Research Trends in English Language Teacher Education and English Language Teaching

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(eds.)

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Preface

Research Trends in English Language Teacher Education and English Language Teaching presents a collection of articles about principled review of recent research conducted in the field of ELT and English language teacher education. This resource will be of interest to novice and experienced researchers who would like to see an overview of recent research trends in the field. The collection of research would hopefully shed light on themes and line of research along with implications and suggestions for further research. Each chapter examines studies published in prominent journals in the recent years and attempts to classify them in terms of focused topics, methodology and findings.

The edited collection of research is a product of an international research group in the field of English language teacher education formed by Gazi University (Ankara, Turkey), the University of Évora (Évora, Portugal), Pomeranian University (Słupsk, Poland), and Boğaziçi University (Istanbul, Turkey). Research Trends in English Language Teacher Education and English Language Teaching is produced as part of the Erasmus+ project titled ILTERG, "International Language Teacher Education Research Group" (no. KA203-035295), funded by the Turkish National Agency and co-founded by Erasmus+.

We would like to thank several other authors from different universities who have contributed to this work of international collaboration and we hope Research Trends in English Language Teacher Education and English Language Teaching could help teacher educators and novice researchers to benefit from the insightful findings of recent research trends collected in the book.

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Technical Details

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Chapter 1

Creating language teacher communities

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Abstract

Research shows that professional in-service teacher development activities carried out in form of lectures were found to have little effect on teachers' behavior at work while falling short in catering for their internal and external needs. So far, various new applications have been proposed and put into practice to minimize the negative effects of such shortcomings experienced in traditional professional development activities. Among many, language teacher communities (LTC) have revealed promising results in and for teacher development around the world. Hence, in this chapter, I review research focusing on LTC in the context of English as a second or foreign language teaching. Furthermore, I suggest some tips for establishing, organizing, and working within LTC. In order to do that, I review the relevant literature available and brainstorm some ideas while building onto our knowledge of the practice of establishing and maintaining LTC.

Keywords: community; community of practice; teacher education; reification; teacher development

1. Introduction

In my doctoral dissertation (Arikan, 2002), under the heading of "Statement of Purpose," I wrote:

> A growing body of research on teacher education informs us that teacher education research disregards teachers' own conceptions and is poorly anchored to teachers' day-to-day situations and problems (Black & Halliwell, 1999; Tisher & Wideen, 1990). For these researchers, teacher education research must be grounded in a more holistic view of what teachers know about their professions (Blcak & Halliwell, 1999; Fang, 1996; Kuzmic, 1994).

Although almost twenty years have passed since I wrote these lines, it is astonishing to see that our progress towards such "holistic view" is still too slow, that is, one can still start her dissertation or research article in the same vein today to point at the shortcomings of teacher education and development

practices with which we are familiar as a part of our profession as researchers as well as teachers. It is still true for today that professional development activities aim at advancing institutional training goals designed for participants' acquisition of necessary knowledge and skills (Sparks & Loucks-Horsely, 1990). Carter (1990) argues that this mainstream, didactic approach to professional development has mainly focused on what teachers need to know and how they can be taught that particular knowledge.

Communities of practice (CP) is another buzzword we have continuously been hearing in our professional circles regardless of where we teach or research in the world. "Developed by Jean Lave and Etienne Wenger" this concept "is currently one of the most articulated and developed concepts within broad social theories of learning" (Barton & Tusting, 2005, p. 1). Despite the fact that the term is often used to refer to those meetings held by like-minded professionals to develop their skills, the often disregarded significance of the term lies in the fact that CP entails a theory of learning that is unique with its characteristics. Developed as an elaboration of Vygotsky's work, the roots of this theory of learning can be found in sociocultural theories of learning which presuppose that all human learning takes place within social interaction (Cole, 1996). Sociocultural theories of learning embody great importance in English language teaching since they "place language, culture and, therefore, community front and center in the development process, which makes them ideal organizing principles in teacher courses related to English language learners" (Jimenez-Silva & Olson, 2012, p. 336).

Grossman, Wineburg and Woolworth (2001) argue that although it has widely been used in education as a term, community, as a word, "has lost its meaning" firstly because "it is not clear what features, if any, are shared across terms" (p. 942). These researchers, however, accept Bellah and colleagues' (1985) definition of "community" as a working term which refers to:

> … a group of people who are socially interdependent, who participate together in discussion and decision making, and who share certain practices that both define the community and are nurtured by it (p. 946)

Similar to the above mentioned researchers, at least within the confinement of this chapter, the term CP will be used to point at a socially interdependent group who, wholeheartedly, care both for their professional growth and well-being. In that sense, the term is purposefully used in opposition to what Grossman, Wineburg and Woolworth (2001) name "pseudocommunities" whose professional meetings are characterized by "eye rolling, ridicule, and

muttering under the breath" (p. 957). Hence, CP and especially LTC should foster the feeling of togetherness and mutual support in a culture in which stratification and competition have already become the norm.

Research results from various countries such as China (Yan, 2005), Greece (Mattheoudakis & Nicolaidis, 2005), Turkey (Turhan & Arikan, 2009; Bümen and friends, 2012; Uysal, 2012) and the online world (Wesely, 2013) showed that professional in-service teacher development activities carried out in form of lectures were found to have little effect on teachers' behavior at work while falling short in catering for their internal and external needs. Such professional development activities and programs that aim to develop teachers' knowledge and beliefs were found to have severe limitations simply because they cannot help changing teachers' behaviors (Hayes, 1997). When the case of Turkey is considered specifically, Bümen and friends (2012) reveal that although there are different teacher development models available, only the traditional model that is comprised of courses, seminars, and conferences is widely used in Turkey. Similarly, review of literature on INSET by Turhan and Arikan (2009, p. 414) revealed that "the trainees specifically felt the need to improve their practical teaching skills." Hişmanoğlu and Hişmanoğlu (2010, p. 24) found that among the ten items answered by English language teachers interrogating their perceptions of the effect of educational supervision in terms of the curriculum and teaching methods/techniques, the highest strongly agree/agree decision was given about the item "Let teachers discuss ways of solving any problem with the curriculum." All these findings suggest that Turkish teachers of English are inclined to be working in LTC because of their dissatisfaction with the narrow, traditional model of teacher development in which experts simply pass knowledge to the trainees.

Applications of CP in English language teacher education programs as a distinct model for teacher development have revealed promising results all around the world. Jimenez-Silva and Olson (2012) who worked with pre-service English language teachers in CP have found that establishing and working in such a community "is a promising way to help pre-service teachers build connections and collaborate in efficient ways to examine their own assumptions and ideologies of education, especially those that they hold for English language learners" (p. 343). Similarly, Patton and Parker (2017) conclude their research by stating that teachers' engagement in CP as a part of their professional development "provided a foundation for collaboration and reduced isolation, allowing participants to extend teaching and research capacities" (p. 351). Yet, although much has been written about CP and LTC specifically, much more must be written to shed light on "how" CP and LTC

can be processed successfully. In this chapter, I suggest some tips for establishing, organizing, and working within LTC. In order to do that, I review the relevant literature available and brainstorm some ideas while building onto our knowledge of the practice of establishing and maintaining LTC. The four-week curricular plan suggested can help teacher trainers or teachers themselves to organize such activities so as to improve their professional development.

2. Components of LTC

Developing LTC necessitates a new understanding and conceptualization of teacherly practice. Knowing that many teachers feel isolated and left out in their professional development partly because of boring and irrelevant professional development practices offered to them, creating LTC appears to be a viable option. Activities in LTC amalgamate the realities of all agents, including teachers, students, and researchers, in a way to bring together individual teachers' in-depth discussion and understanding of issues surrounding all aspects of schooling. Such a fresh understanding makes the individual teacher think and act beyond the confinement of the classroom. As Grossman, Wineburg and Woolworth (2001) states, when a teacher community is considered, it must naturally be accepted that "some people know things that others do not know and that the collective's knowledge exceeds that of any individual" (p. 973). Hence, such LTC should follow "jigsaw" activities in which teachers, like students who are exposed to such activities, "learn about different aspects of a common topic and then pool their learning in small groups or in a whole class setting" (p. 974). Little (2003), in her review of research, argues that teaching and learning can be strengthened and improved "when teachers collectively question ineffective teaching routines, examine new conceptions of teaching and learning, find generative means to acknowledge and respond to difference and conflict, and engage actively in supporting one another's professional growth" (p. 913). Hence, LTC can easily enable teachers' mutual exhange of ideas, experiences, and knowledge in a way to constitute a distinct opportunity for teachers' growth as professionals who learn from one another and with each other.

Believing in the power of apprenticeship, Lave (1991) argues that "developing an identity as a member of a community and becoming knowledgeably skillful are part of the same process" (p. 65). Apart from developing skills that are in congruent with a language teacher's profession, LTC encapsulate a large spectrum of areas of knowledge and expertise ranging from thinking and reflecting and from gaining techniques and styles to contributing to a wider

temporal and spatial entities. To that end, LTC, as my review of research shows, entail various notions and assets towards developing a collective identity:

- sharpening the knowledge of epistemology, curricular content, instruction, pedagogy, assessment and student learning (Hairon, 2018).

- transparency (Little, 2003),

- joint enterprise (mutual negotiation of goals and procedures) (Wenger, 1998),

- maintaining and spreading democratic and civil discourse (Grossman, Wineburg & Woolworth, 2001),

- reification (Wenger, 1998),

Similar to all professional development activities, LTC aim to sharpen teachers' knowledge of epistemology, curricular content, instruction, pedagogy, assessment and student learning (Hairon, 2018). Transparency is gaining importance in educational institutions as a necessary aspect of accountability. Setting realistic and attainable goals, employing explainable and justifiable assessment tools and communicating with all parties involved in an honest way make up the content of transparency in educational practices. While doing that, establishing positive rapport with all parties involved in a way to reach decisions through mutual negotiation of goals and procedures and seeing all segments of education as a unit of joint enterprise should be perceived as sine qua non. Once these fundamentally important goals are set, maintaining and spreading democratic and civil discourse that will be available to all the result of which may be living in communities in which people reach consensus in all steps of human affairs starting from education and moving towards other social and political institutions.

Problems arise in all educational activities in terms of "how fully, completely, and specifically various parts of practice are made visible or transparent in interaction" (Little, 2002, p. 934). As human beings, we perceive our own realities through a process of reification, that is, by making the abstract more concrete or real, since we pass our meanings into the things, both abstract and concrete, after which we "perceive them as existing" (Little, 2003, p. 58). In other words, when the case of the individual language teacher is considered, one can easily claim that the teacher, just like any other member of society, both perceives and concretizes her world full of classroom activities and interactions,

use of materials, and assessment of students' work in a process at the end of which the world becomes an arena of experiences and things that she created in her mental set. Thus, any professional development activity must consider the reification processes of individual teachers within a social and professional context. It must be articulated that we all come from different walks of life although we may share similar experiences. Hence, trainers should start "with a focus on teachers' work and teaching lives, rather than a selection of professional development activities" (Little, 2002, p. 919). This new conceptualization that is based on the organic individual rather than the inorganic institution signals a sharp turn. In fact, this turn is a break away from traditional understanding of professional development which, in fact, is based on an earlier, and rather philosophical, break away from traditional views of knowledge as can be seen in Table 1 (McLure Wasco & Faraj, 2000, p. 158).

	Knowledge as object	Knowledge embedded in people	Knowledge embedded in community
Definition of Knowledge	Justified true belief	That which is known	The social practice of knowing
Assumptions and design implications	Knowledge is codified and decontextualized	Knowledge exists in the minds of people and is difficult to share	Knowledge develops in the context of a community
Knowledge ownership	Organization	Individual	Community
Motivations for exchange	Self-interest	Self-interest	Moral obligation
Promotion of knowledge exchange	Extrinsic and financial rewards	Reputation, status, obligation	Generalized reciprocity, self-actualization, access to community

Table 1. Timeline of nature of knowledge

As can be seen in Table 1, traditional trends consider knowledge as object and define knowledge as "justified true belief." According to such trend, knowledge is codified and decontextualized and organizations (institutions) own these knowledge pieces for self-interest of those who expect extrinsic and financial rewards in return of their contribution and participation. In contrast, on the other side of the spectrum rests knowledge embedded in community,

defining knowledge as a social practice of knowing contextualized within the context of the community who also own the knowledge produced or shared. That particular community is motivated in their knowledge seeking and producing endeavor through moral obligation while aiming to self-actualize by means of mutual reciprocity. This spectrum shows us that the major shift in locus of control has moved from abstract conceptualization of knowledge to a more concrete one that is socialized and actualized by communities rather than institutions. Seely Brown and Duguid (1991) underline the importance of concretizing our practice as teachers while arguing that "abstractions detached from practice distort or obscure intricacies of that practice" (p. 40). Hence, teacher education and development practices must seek for the "real" rather than the "hypothetical."

LTC can center around some questions and tasks with specific functions as can be seen in Table 2. The functions given such as problem-solving and requesting information on the left are taken from Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2015, p. 3). I have contextualized and wrote a set of sample questions that can be asked during the meetings of LTC for the purposes of this chapter. It should be noted that these questions serve different purposes. Studying these questions will in fact help us understand the nature of the patterns of interaction in such meetings. Thus, inviting participants to ask such questions will inevitably help them concretize the content and expected outcomes of the meetings held within the framework of LTC.

Functions[1]	Sample Questions/ Tasks
Problem solving	"I'm stuck. Can we work on this unit? The lexis to be taught is too difficult for my students. Can we brainstorm some ideas to make it comprehensible for my students?"
Requests for information	"Where can I find some handouts of vocabulary learning activities for my students?"
Seeking experience	"Has anyone taught difficult vocabulary to young learners before?"
Reusing assets	"I have a handout I used in my classes. It works great! I can send it to you and you can easily use it in your classrooms."
Coordination and synergy	"Can we prepare a handout together?"

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[1] Functions are taken directly from Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015, p. 3), but the sample questions and tasks are adapted by the author of this chapter.

Building an argument	"How do teachers teaching at other schools do this? Learning what they do will help me find a way."
Growing confidence	"Before I give this handout to my students, I'll use it here with my fellow teachers to see what they think."
Discussing developments	"What do you think of the new curriculum for fifth graders? Will it work?"
Documenting projects	"We all have stated that this unit is too difficult for our learners. Let's simplify it."
Visits	"Can I have a look at your file folder? I need to update mine by adding new materials."
Mapping knowledge and identifying gaps	"Who knows more about this age group? What are we missing in terms of additional materials? Who else should we talk to?"

Table 2. Functions of LTC and sample questions

3. A Sample Plan for LTC

I will share an extended and developed version of my suggested lesson plan I had prepared for an online teacher development course offered in cooperation of the American Embassy and the Arizona State University. The course I took lasted in eight weeks and this task of preparing a plan for engaging teachers in communities of practice was the task assigned during the seventh week. This plan aims to give an idea of a general flow of a meeting held for the purposes of LTC. This plan may be used to prepare for LTC meetings centering around different professional development objectives.

Week 1
Duration: One hour
Objective: Community building, developing mutual relationships in the group

Trainees meet in an informal manner to develop mutual relationships in the group so that they can work cooperatively in the future.

[Individual work] Trainees introduce themselves and then think and complete sentences such as "If I were an animal, I would be a ………….
because ……….. ."
"My favorite song is titled ……………….. I feel …………… when I listen to it."
"I felt so ashamed when…"

[Pair work] Trainees then work in pairs and find at least three common points they share and then report it to the whole group.

[Individual work] Trainees write a funny Haiku by using "I like" and "I love" such as

"I like teaching but
I love doing nothing yet
Next day I go work."

[Whole-class work] Trainees dance to a song they like as a group or play a game to create a friendly atmosphere.

Week 2
Duration: One hour
Objective: Identifying the qualities of a highly motivated language learner

Trainees meet in an informal manner to discuss and brainstorm ideas on the qualities of highly motivated students.

[Individual work] First, they are given ten minutes to reflect on their past learning and teaching experiences to identify the qualities of a highly motivated learner. They may focus on one individual who is known to be an exemplary learner with her high motivation and present a case study of that individual.

[Whole-class work] The group discusses these qualities and prepares a pie or bar chart or a table to show these qualities numerically (statistically). They may also discuss how these results differ from their own individual cases and why. They may also discuss if these qualities are important for LTC.

[Assignment 1] Trainees will read a short article on the qualities of highly motivated learners distributed by the trainer.

[Assignment 2] Trainees, rate their students' motivational levels by using a three point scale including: "Very much so, Somehow so, Not really so."

Week 3
Duration: One hour
Objective: Finding and sharing good practices

Trainees meet in an informal manner to find and discuss good and exemplary classroom practices.

[Individual work] First, they are given ten minutes to think about their past learning and teaching experiences to identify what they consider as good practices. They may narrate a good practice they have previously heard or present a case study of their past experiences as learners or teachers.

[Group work] The group discusses these qualities and prepares a pie or bar chart or a table to show these qualities numerically (statistically).

[Whole-class work] They may discuss the reasons that make establishing good practices while providing solutions to the problems they identified.

[Assignment] Trainees will write a paragraph or a poem to express their vision of a good practice.

Week 4
Duration: One hour
Objective: Discovering our pedagogical weaknesses

Trainees meet in an informal manner to reflect on their own pedagogical weaknesses as teachers.

[Individual work] First, they are given fifteen minutes to reflect on their past learning and teaching experiences to identify their pedagogical weaknesses. They may be asked to complete sentences such as "I am good at teaching ………, but I feel weak when I ………………….." or "I know how to ……………………, but I feel anxious when it comes to ………………….."

[Pair work] Teachers work in pairs to exchange their pedagogical weaknesses. They prepare a pie or bar chart or a table to show their weaknesses numerically (statistically).

[Whole-class work] Trainees will put the results of their self-reflection into a table or chart to see the larger picture, that is, the pedagogical weaknesses they all possess. They discuss possible the root causes of their weaknesses and provide solutions.

[Assignment] Each trainee chooses a weakness they all shared and suggest a meeting, by writing a plan like this one, and maybe lead the meeting so as to minimize the negative effects of this weakness.

It must be noted that teachers need time as they establish trust while working within their LTC. Hence, trainers' openness and sincerity are of utmost

importance to make trainees feel secure so that they can pour out their inner most feelings, ideas and experiences. Inter-group dynamics are also important while achieving these goals because participants must learn to listen to each other in a respectful way, refrain from dominating the interaction, and stay away from harsh criticism. Regularity of meetings and full participation contribute to the success of such communities.

4. Conclusion

This chapter is an end-product of document analysis (literature review and course notes) and an attempt of curriculum building. Two-step procedure was followed during the writing of this chapter. First, conducting a thorough literature review, and then bringing pieces of this process together to suggest a plan that can be used in various LTC. Soon after the set of articles, books and book chapters related with the aims and content of this chapter was prepared, I analyzed every piece of text by close reading. Then, the curricular plan of LTC meetings is prepared.

This chapter has started from the premise that LTC are necessary for professional development since traditional professional development activities remain problematic in terms of effectiveness. Hence, understanding the nature and significance of LTC must be first step to be taken, followed by applying them in various contexts. Such an ardent task is especially necessary and important in contexts like Turkey in which pre-service teachers of English unanimously complain about those facts such as "a close connection between the course materials and practical application in real classrooms was sometimes absent" and "opportunities for micro-teaching and practice teaching" were not enough (Seferoğlu, 2006, p. 372). Hence, in locales where teachers have experienced difficulties in attaining knowledge and practice that could make them feel secure and ready for teaching prior to starting their careers, robust and sustainable professional development activities are of utmost importance for the improvement of all educational activities as well as of agents.

Numerous reasons can be put forward to explain the benefits of and the rationale behind teachers' and researchers' interest in LTC. Among many, the fact that LTC provide members with chances of engaging in natural dialogue as for professional development rather than remaining as a passive observer or listener in an auditorium in which top-down professional development lectures or sessions are carried out. Parallel to that, employing the Internet technology to meet and carry out professional development activities within a LTC

perspective has already been used in many contexts. Blogs, social networking sites or forums can be used to extend the work and discussion situated in LTC.

As Little (2002) argues, teacher learning "ought to be evident in the ongoing encounters that teachers have with one another" (p. 918). Similarly, research should "show how teachers, in and through their interactions with one another and with the material environment, convey and construct particular representations of practice (Little, 2002, p. 934) in their workplace. Hence, continuous research should be carried out to measure the effectiveness of LTC while exemplifying the fact that "workplace learning is best understood, then, in terms of communities being formed or joined and personal identities being changed. The central issue in learning is *becoming* a practitioner not learning *about* practice (Seely Brown & Duguid, 1991, p. 48). Thus, research should report exemplary activities and plans of LTC to reify and concretize the abstract, on-paper experiences so that such professional development activities help teachers in their professions.

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Chapter 2

Teacher Autonomy
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Abstract

It is the aim of this study to explore the concept of teacher autonomy from according to different variables. To do so, this chapter reviewed a total of 19 research studies on teacher autonomy across the globe to see the general tendencies related to the concept in the research paradigm. Studies published mostly between 2003 and 2017 offer three themes relating to the concept of teacher autonomy namely teacher autonomy and professional development, teacher autonomy and reflection and finally teacher autonomy and burnout. Overall analysis indicates that teacher autonomy has not been as extensively as it should in the field of language teacher education despite a growing interest in the importance of autonomy in language learning/teaching. Nonetheless, the essential competencies identified for the teacher such as reflection, scaffolding, professional feedback, teacher development, teacher's awareness, taking responsibility, and so forth make it possible to construct the autonomous identity of the language teacher.

Keywords: Teacher Autonomy, Burnout, Reflection, Professional Development

1. Introduction

Just like the concept of learner autonomy, teacher autonomy is also a complex construct on which educators have yet to reach a consensus. It is both a multifaceted and confusing concept. The literature on teacher autonomy has a number of accounts of teacher education practices (Aoki, 2002; Lamb, 2000; McGrath, 2000; Smith, 2000; Thavenius, 1999; Usma, 2007; Vieira, Paiva, Marques, & Fernandes, 2008). Whereas certain educators take the term from a strict political view (Brown, 1995; Einolf, 2002), others do have a more psychological account (Smith, 2006). There is "no easy definition to operationalise teacher autonomy" (Lamb, 2008, p. 280). Various researchers have done a great many research studies that scrutinize this compelling construct by specifically looking at school policy (Hara, 2006), decision making process (Friedman, 1999), instructors' perspectives (Reigle, 2008), work environments (Pearson & Moomaw, 2006), organizational climate (LaCoe, 2006), and curriculum (Dymoke & Harrison, 2006). In the field of language learning/teaching, teacher autonomy, surprisingly enough, is not given as much weight as it should by teacher educators. In the autonomy literature, for more

than 15 years, the concept of teacher autonomy has been frequently connected with language learner autonomy, yet not many attempts to define the concept clearly have managed to make the term clear enough. Here varying definitions of teacher autonomy are given in the historical order. It was Street and Licata (1989) who first described teacher autonomy as "teacher's feelings of independence from the institution in making instructional decisions with the classroom" (p. 99). This definition shows that teacher autonomy is viewed as a kind of independence from the institution when instructional decisions such as choosing the textbook to follow, teaching strategies to employ and classroom rules to obey are concerned. Pearson and Hall (1993, p. 172) viewed teacher autonomy as "the right of teachers to manage themselves and their job environment". Shaw's (2002) definition of teacher autonomy is "the capacity to take control of one's own teaching" (p.2). Unlike the first two definitions proposed above, Shaw seemed to exclude the school factor and put the very emphasis on the teacher. Before moving on the definitions more specifically in the context of ELT, it would be wise to refer to Little (1995) who stated that "genuinely successful teachers have always been autonomous in the sense of having a strong sense of personal responsibility for their teaching" (p, 179). That is, autonomous teachers and successful teachers are very similar to one another greatly. McGrath (2000), defines teacher autonomy in a more comprehensive way. He mentioned two discrete dimensions of teacher autonomy: a) "teacher autonomy as a self-directed professional development", b) "teacher autonomy as freedom of control by others" (McGrath, 2000, p. 101-102). What is important here is that the first dimension is more concerned with the psychological perspective, while the second one offers a more political one. Following McGrath, Aoki (2002, p. 111) defined teacher autonomy, in her remarks by analogy, as "the capacity, freedom, and/or responsibility to make choices concerning one's own teaching" even though she herself finds this definition a bit problematic because of the limited scope of the definition. Smith (2003; 2006) and later Smith and Erdoğan (2008) prefer to use teacher-learner autonomy. According to Smith and Erdoğan (2008, p. 83), teacher/learner autonomy is "the ability to develop appropriate skills, knowledge and attitudes for oneself as a teacher, in cooperation with others" (Smith & Erdoğan, 2008, p. 83). Drawing on Benson's argument (2007) for the sound definition of learner autonomy, Huang (2005, p. 206) focused on three terms willingness, capacity, and freedom to formulate his own working definition of teacher autonomy "teachers' willingness, capacity and freedom to take control of their own teaching and learning". Jimenez Raya, Lamb and Vieira (2007, p. 1) provided a definition "the competence to develop as a self-determined, socially responsible and critically aware participant in (and beyond)

educational environments, within a vision of education as (inter) personal empowerment and social transformation". After a rigorous examination of the definitions in the literature, Ling (2007, p. 96) offered his own understanding of teacher autonomy as "an insight, a positive attitude, a capacity for reflection in teaching, and a readiness to promote the 38 learner to be more independent and to take control over his/her own teaching". During the course of a significant amount of time, educators have proposed different definitions by especially focusing on what they believe the most important component in teacher autonomy. Nonetheless, there seem to be common-grounded terms that pertain to almost each definition provided above. They are "willingness", "capacity", "freedom", "control", "responsibility", and "independence". It is a common belief that the term "teacher autonomy" may be used in a variety of ways, with different dimensions or components emphasized. The dimensions of teacher autonomy were little mentioned to make the definition more obvious. It was McGrath (2000) who proposed that teacher autonomy be used with different dimensions that pertain to "self-directed professional development" and "freedom of control by others". Focusing more on "processes in the teacher" (Little, 1995), McGrath (2000, pp. 100-101) employed two important dimensions so as to define teacher autonomy clearly. First, he took teacher autonomy as "self-directed professional development". This first perspective takes a number of strands including teacher as researcher (Stenhouse, 1975), action research (Bustingorry, 2008; Moreira, Vieira, & Marques, 1999), reflective teacher (Schön, 1983; Wallace, 1991), and teacher development (Head & Taylor, 1997). This perspective of teacher autonomy has close connections with the careful consideration of teachers based upon their teaching experiences. Second, McGrath (2000) viewed teacher autonomy as "freedom of control by others". Here, as opposed to the first one, he took a more mechanical perspective like "the shift of the locus of control over teacher's work from themselves to centralized bureaucracies" (Breen & Mann, 1997, p. 140). Similarly, McGrath (2000, p. 101) categorized constraints on teacher autonomy as "macro" (decisions taken outside the institution, over which teacher will normally have no control) and "micro" (institution-internal decisions, which the teachers should be in a position to influence). Smith (2003) and later Smith and Erdoğan (2008) reconceptualized "teacher/learner autonomy" by offering two broader dimensions: a) "teacher/learner autonomy in relation to professional action" b) "teacher/learner autonomy in relation to professional development" (2003, p. 4). Smith's reconceptualization of dimensions of teacher autonomy is as follows:

In relation to professional action:

A. Self-directed professional action   (= 'Self-directed teaching')

B. Capacity for self-directed professional action   (= 'Teacher autonomy (I)')

C. Freedom from control over professional action   (= 'Teacher autonomy (II)')

In relation to professional development:

D. Self-directed professional development   (= 'Self-directed teacher-learning')

E. Capacity for self-directed professional   (= 'Teacher-learner autonomy (I)')
   development

F. Freedom from control over professional   (= 'Teacher-learner autonomy (II)')
   development

Figure 1: Smith's reconceptualization of dimensions of teacher autonomy

A few clarifications need to be made in relation to the dimensions above. Smith (2003) and later Smith and Erdoğan (2008) commented on the reconceptualization of teacher autonomy with the dimensions involved as follows. "A" and "D" should be avoided if consistency is to be maintained for the meaning of autonomy (capacity for and willingness to engage in self-direction). "B" and "E" involve a more technical and psychological interpretation of autonomy, while "C" and "F" include more political dimensions. Professional development is a sub-set of "professional action". Therefore, the term "teacher-learner autonomy" can be more acceptable when the primary focus is on professional development. "C" and "E" refer to the most widely accepted sense of the term "teacher autonomy" in the general education literature. The dimensions, which are more related to a political view, are not the new ones because a lot of studies have been conducted on this perspective to date, which is beyond the scope of the current study. However, "A" and "B" and "D" and "E" might be considered to be connected to "teacher autonomy as the capacity to self-direct one's teaching" (McGrath, 2000; Thavenius, 1999; Vieira, 1999a, 1999b, 2002), and "teacher autonomy as capacity to self-direct one's learning as a teacher" (Smith, 2000), which is what the study is more concerned with.

2. Methodology

The construct "teacher autonomy" has not been well-identified; hence, in the literature one can see more theoretical studies (Wilches, 2009; Ramos, 2006;

Aoki, 2002; Smith, 2003; Smith & Erdoğan, 2008, Usma, 2007) than contextual or practical inquiries. Systematic review in this study, though, followed a review plan based on some dimensions and constructs related to teacher autonomy. The initial plan was to review the journals that publish teacher autonomy related research in the field. As a result of this preliminary analysis of the journals, we came to realize that not teacher-autonomy research based articles were existent in the field of language education. However, we recognized that studies were extensively based on three themes, namely "Teacher Autonomy and Professional Development", "Teacher Autonomy and Reflection" and finally "Teacher Autonomy and Teacher Burnout". When we look at the characteristics of these studies in Table 1, we identified the following: First, all of these studies were written in English and were published in education-related journals, not solely language education. Second, we chose to analyze studies between 2000-2018, which is very understandable because teacher autonomy was not widely addressed earlier than this period. Third, the contexts in which the reviewed studies were carried out did significantly vary as seen in Table 1.

Table 1. Studies reviewed according to certain variables

	Teacher Autonomy and Professional Development	Teacher Autonomy and Reflection	Teacher Autonomy and Burnout
Number of studies	11	6	2
Context	Europe (n= 2) Asia (n= 5) South America (n= 2) North America (n=2)	Europe (n= 2) Asia (n= 2) South America (n= 2)	Asia (n= 2)
Years of Publication	2003 (n=1) 2004 (n= 1) 2007 (n= 1) 2008 (n= 2) 2009 (n= 1) 2011 (n= 1) 2012 (n= 1) 2015 (n= 3)	2003 (n= 1) 2006 (n= 1) 2008 (n= 2) 2012 (n= 1) 2017 (n= 1)	2014 (n= 2)

Themes relating to Teacher Autonomy

3. Theme 1: Teacher Autonomy vs. Professional Development

What we argue is that teacher autonomy is a prerequisite if teachers are expected to benefit from PD practices. In other words, if teachers are not professionally autonomous, exposing teachers to any PD program would, as we believe, prove to be ineffective – since they would not have enough capability, motives, or time to benefit enough from those PD activities. There are a number of studies to prove the importance of teachers' professional autonomy for PD activities. In their study, for instance, Schibeci and Hickey (2003) worked with 28 science teachers, and they found that teachers' views

about PD ranged from those who will only attend when it is compulsory or convenient to those who willingly attend hundreds of hours of science PD and are involved in frequent after-hours, science-related activities. Similarly, Van Den Bergh, Ros, and Beijaard (2015) found that teachers benefitted from PD programs because they had 'a willingness to learn' (p. 148). Smith (2003) agrees that we do not 'necessarily' learn from the experience. Teachers might experience new practices as a part of PD training, but experiencing only does not guarantee that teachers will act by making use of their experiences in their teaching. Van den Bergh, et al., (2015) agree that research on teachers' professional development generally yields disappointing results. In some studies, professional development activities have been found to be ineffective or to be perceived as irrelevant by teachers (Lieberman & Pointer Mace, 2008; Opfer & Pedder, 2011). Many studies, as reviewed by Wideen, Mayer-Smith, and Moon, (1998) show that teachers hardly implement the theories they learn in teacher education in their own teaching practices. Therefore, if teachers do not have autonomy – in other words, if they do not have (or if they do not believe they have) the capability to develop themselves professionally, it is quite likely that they will avoid participating in PD activities. In Patterson, Collins and Abbott's (2004) study, resilient teachers – i.e. teachers who stay in the profession despite difficulties they face – are found to "place a high premium on professional development and find ways to get it" (p. 5). It can be argued that this is the fine line between teachers' professional autonomy and PD because it is teachers' professional autonomy that makes them place a high premium on PD. Goodwyn (1997) states that:

> If student teachers, beginning teachers and less accomplished colleagues are really going to be a part of a continuum of professional development, then it is essential that those further along that continuum demonstrate their wish to be still moving. This is just as true of teacher educators, who have an equal responsibility to show their open-mindedness and eagerness to learn. Demonstrating such a dedication to learning and self-development may take a number of forms (p. 129).

Here, the key words such as wish, responsibility, open-mindedness, eagerness, and dedication clearly show the importance of teachers' professional autonomy if they are expected to move further on the continuum of professional development. Similarly, Raya (2007) states that when people are coerced, their performance is reduced and they frequently react with resistance, resentment, and a loss of energy. On the contrary, people whose actions are self-motivated tend to be high-functioning and display greater cognitive outcomes, well-being,

and persistence. This clearly shows that if teachers are not professionally autonomous, they might not benefit enough from PD activities – or they might even avoid participating in them. The impact of aforementioned terms can easily be seen in another related study which aimed to investigate the relationship between English Language Teachers' Teaching Styles and Autonomy. Conducted by Baradaran and Hosseinzadeh (2015) in an Iranian setting, the study involved more than 200 experienced English language teachers at various language schools in Tehran and used two instruments for this aim: Grasha's Teaching Style Inventory (1994); and Teaching Autonomy Scale (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005). Three main categories illustrated in the inventory differ from each other, meaning that teachers' models and curriculum autonomy correlate with one another. The lower category a language teacher belongs to, the higher curriculum autonomy s/he displays. It can be argued that without any motives, it is highly unlikely for teachers to find the need within themselves develop professionally even if they have professional development (PD) opportunities at hand. For example, it would be unreasonable to expect teachers to benefit from a PD seminar simply because they are attending one. Moreover, even if they do so, there is no guarantee that teachers will automatically transfer what they learn into their classroom. Goodwyn (1997) states that "if student teachers, beginning teachers, and less accomplished colleagues are really going to be a part of a continuum of professional development, then it is essential that those further along that continuum demonstrate their wish to be still moving" (italics added – p. 129). Therefore, it can be claimed that this wish to be moving is what essentially constitutes teachers' professional autonomy, and it is teachers' professional autonomy that urges teachers to benefit from PD opportunities. In a similar vein, Atkinson (2011) did an interesting case study with eight elementary high school teachers to monitor their own progress as autonomous teachers for eight months. These teachers were assigned 12 reading selections from scholarly journals or edited boks. The main aim of this was to observe how the teachers read and interpreted the selected readings based on their experiences. For each of three discussions which took place after their readings, there emerged enough similarities in themes in the individual teachers' critical responses to consider them a shared group critical response to a particular reading's depiction of reflection. The findings of the research simply refer to three important implications for teacher educators namely 1) the need to work with and develop teachers as members of critical communities of inquiry, 2) the significance of recruiting and developing greater cultural and racial diversity in the teacher population and finally 3) the need to reconsider the role of reflection in helping teacher to act autonomously in their own contexts. Another aspect of teacher

autonomy was given emphasis by Izumi (2009) who carried out his research on how to develop teacher autonomy through classroom research in a Japanese context. More spefically, in line with the principles put forward by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology which administered a five-year plan (2003-2007) for intensive training of all English teachers, the study focused more on an in-service teacher training with a specific emphasis on lesson improvement through action research. The study has two purposes: to describe the teacher training program of the past seven years, and to consider the kind of teacher development and classroom research desirable for future enhancement of teacher autonomy. Overall results indicate that almost all of the participants managed to improve their classes through action research through deep reflection and analysis of their methods and the students' needs and such, which can lead to the development of teacher autonomy. In another context of teaching English as a foreign language, in Malaysia, Thaliah and Hashim (2008) investigated the construct of Teacher Autonomy Support in relation to professional development and tried to understand how teachers' sense of autonomy would affect classroom engagement. Findings display that whether teachers have autonomy or not has a positive influence on their cognitive and behavioral engagement for students in classroom settings. In a case study conducted in Colombia (Pineda & Frodden, 2008), the experiences of a novice English teacher were closely examined so as to understand what drove her to take actions of her teaching practices. More specifically, the collaborative action research project with a group of children in a bi-national language center included a theme-based approach to teaching which had been recently introduced. The study, then, aimed to focus on problems encountered with the approach and to develop learner and teacher autonomy. The findings show how reflection, collaborative work and critical thinking were promoted and enabled the teacher to find alternatives in her teaching, to gain a new understanding of this approach, and to develop teacher autonomy. One significant study on the development of teacher autonomy in an EFL setting belongs to Kennedy and Pinter (2007). In their research, they were working with a group of teachers to identify how they became more autonomous through the support provided to them. More specifically, teachers whom they observed over the years in their MA programme were seen to work closely with other teachers with a specific view to producing high quality materials and benefited more than those who did it individually. Their observations and interviews with the participating teachers showed that teachers spent time developing teacher autonomy through teamwork by creating different kinds of tools for teaching. Another relating research study was carried out by Jiang and Ma (2012) in a Chinese context where teacher autonomy is considered to

be one of the most effective ways to support teachers in their classroom practice, as well as to improve and expand their professional preparation and practices. To this end, their research looked at how university novice and proficient English teachers see themselves as autonomous practitioners on the five dimensions of teacher autonomy: teaching autonomy, assessment autonomy, school management autonomy, professional development autonomy, and curriculum development autonomy. Findings indicate that teachers view themselves insufficient in such ways as developing different stages relating their own teaching processes, and expertise for their aspects that need to be improved. Xu (2015), in a similar context, worked with four novice EFL teachers so as to identify how the collaborative lesson preparation would help them recognize the value of becoming autonomous in a way that lead them to take immediate actions regarding their teaching processes. Three types of data revealed that the collaboration, in essence, offered certain possibilities for teachers to produce a complete, ready-to-use set of teaching resources as a visible product, and the problem-based collaboration featuring discussions on certain teaching issues and to develop their autonomous teaching skills, which, even, will overcome teacher anxiety provoked by the circumstances of collaboration. The necessity of teacher autonomy in the field of professional development lies in the fact that teachers need some ways of exploring more strategies and techniques to better their teaching.

4. Theme 2: Teacher Autonomy and Reflection

> "As a language teacher, have you ever finished all of your teaching for the day only to find your mind racing with thoughts about a lesson recently completed? [...] During such moments I find myself responding with a full range of emotion that includes not only excitement, joy, inspiration, and reassurance but also more troubling moments of boredom, annoyance, and even disappointment in myself." (Murphy, 2001, p. 499)

Teacher autonomy is a term which is related to reflection in many ways. Lamb (2008), for example, conceptualizes teacher autonomy by referring to the extent to which teachers have the capacity to improve their own teaching through their own efforts through reflective or research-oriented approaches. Thavenius (1999) defines autonomous teacher as the one who "reflects on her teacher role and who can change it, who can help her learners become autonomous, and who is independent enough to let her learners become independent" (p. 160). Murphy (2001) states that reflective teaching aims at: (1)

developing one's understanding of the teaching-learning process; (2) expanding one's repertoire of strategic options as a language teacher; and (3) increasing the quality of learning opportunities one is able to provide in language classrooms. Castle (2006) states that "Just as an oyster creates a beautiful pearl out of irritation, pedagogical researchers begin their quest when they perceive that something is wrong" (p. 1097). Given that one of the main functions of reflective practice is solving problems, it can be argued that what makes teachers "perceive something is wrong" is their professional autonomy. As Castle (2006) further explains, "teachers who do not ask questions about their teaching do not grow professionally through the struggle to find out what is going on and how to improve the situation" (p. 1098). Explaining the three pillars of post-method pedagogy, namely pedagogy of particularity, practicality, and possibility, Kumaravadivelu (2001) asks the following questions:

> How do post-method teachers pursue professional development involving the triple pedagogic parameters of particularity, practicality, and possibility? How do they theorize from practice and practice what they theorize? One possible answer is that they do so through teacher research. Teacher research is initiated and implemented by practicing teachers motivated mainly by their own desire to self-explore and self-improve (p. 550).

Other than theoretical contributions to the field, one can see solely a few studies relating to reflection and like terms. One of them is the study carried out by Mello, Dutra and Jorge (2008) in Brasil. Their study primarily focused on action research as a tool for teacher autonomy in a language-related setting. Working with the public school teachers in a unit called Foreign Language Teacher Continuing Education (Educação Continuada de Professores de Línguas Estrangeiras – EDUCONLE, language teachers participated in talks, classes, projects related to four different axes for almost a year: a) linguistic and methodological issues; b) cognitive aspects of learning; c) action research and d) Brazilian educational themes. The research areas they chose to work on were primarily guided by professors from the Language and Education Colleges who additionally teach methodology modules and supervise action research projects. After the formulation of the groups, the collaboration with these professors throughout the year involved continuous guidance, including cognitive and affective feedback. This collaboration was materialized in five stages 1) identification of a problem in a language classroom, 2) visits to peer's classrooms, 3) collecting data relating to the identified problem, 4) analysis of the data to next implement various strategies, and 5) sharing the results with everyone involved in the research. Overall results point 1) to the understanding

of the goals and meanings of action research itself, 2) to the process of carrying on collaborative action research and 3) to the different levels of participants' commitment to the research. Another relevant research that was conducted in the relationship between Teacher Autonomy and Reflective Practice through an Online Teacher Education Course by Joyes and Chen (2006). They reported a study into the Chinese teacher experiences of online learning where teachers got involved in a BA degree program in education for English teachers in Chinese secondary schools. In order to evaluate whether teachers were motivated to develop innovative eLearning, the longitudinal study involved a wide range of data collection methods including pre and post questionnaires, focus group interviews, online activity logs and tutor and learner diaries. Teacher reaction to the eLearning approach was very positive. In a similar vein, Çakır and Balçıkanlı (2012) looked at ELT student teachers' and teacher trainers' views on the use of the EPOSTL in pre-service language teacher education of a Turkish state university. Upon the implementation of the EPOSTL as a reflection tool for the second semester of 2010, 25 student teachers and 4 teacher trainers were interviewed through the questions prepared and piloted. The findings indicated that both student teachers and teacher trainers found the use of the EPOSTL beneficial in terms of reflection, self-assessment and awareness, which are key to teacher autonomy. In the light of the findings, it is proposed that the EPOSTL should not only be integrated into teacher education programmes but also be converted into an online format to make it more convenient for the student teachers. In a Colombian setting where there is a great need for teachers to be able to reflect upon their own teaching processes, the study carried out by Parra (2008) investigated whether action research and critical reflection would trigger affective factors and language learning strategies in foreign language teaching. Two important factors namely critical reflection and action research are viewed as rigorous and systematic activities that enable teachers to help their students deal with the emotional difficulties of social interaction and language learning, and to become responsible for their own learning/teaching. Findings indicate that there is a close relationship between the use of action research and the development of teacher autonomy in many sense. Fani (2017) researched the relationship EFL Iranian teachers' reflective teaching and teacher autonomy. Adopting a descriptive correlational design, the study involved a group of 83 Iranian teachers selected based on convenience sampling. Two instruments were employed to collect the data namely a reflective teaching scale (Akbari, Behzadpour & Dadvand, 2010) and teacher autonomy questionnaire (Moomaw, 2005). The results of statistical analyses indicated that there was a significant and positive correlation between reflective teaching and teacher

autonomy. The findings of the present study have implications for both teacher educates and teachers. The obtained results can be used to enhance teacher educators' and teachers' level of awareness in terms of teacher autonomy and reflective teaching. Finally, Usma and Frodden's (2003) is of importance as their research specifically investigated how teacher autonomy could be improved through collaborative work on the redesign and implementation of a new English syllabus in a high school. Using several important aspects that pertain to the development of teacher autonomy, the study concluded that such themes as educational innovation, collaborative work, and autonomy development contributed to teachers in making necessary adaptations related to their school practices. Conditions stipulated by teachers are mostly created because the process of change offer new opportunities to emerge.

5. Theme 3: Teacher Autonomy and Burnout

Burnout can simply be defined as "a chronic state of exhaustion due to long-term interpersonal stress" (Schwarzer & Hallum, 2008, p. 154), and there are numerous factors that function as stressors which contribute to teacher burnout. For instance, low salaries, absence of fairness, or disruptive student behavior are among stressors which cause teachers to experience burnout. Lamb (2000) agrees by stating that teachers need to understand the constraints upon their practice, but rather than feeling disempowered, they need to empower themselves by "finding the spaces and opportunities to maneuver" (p. 127). Here, it is understood that if professionally autonomous, teachers would have the capability and motives to consciously seek ways refrain from the symptoms of burnout. For example, reading books and articles, attending talks and seminars, or simply speaking to friends and colleagues about ways to avoid burnout would prove helpful for teachers to do so. As Kelchterman and Strittmatter (1999) emphasize, the classic burnout symptoms (i.e. emotional exhaustion, diminished personal accomplishment, and depersonalization) would be reduced in environments where teachers experience positive professional growth. Similar findings can be obtained through two research studies which mostly focused on teacher autonomy and burnout. First, Javadi (2014) tried to explore the relationship between teacher autonomy and feeling of burnout in EFL teachers in an Iranian setting. Using two major questionnaires in the field namely Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996) and Teaching Autonomy Scale developed by Pearson and Hall (1993), the study offered that teacher autonomy was significantly and inversely related to their feeling of burnout, confirming previous research that shed light on the negative influences that teachers' dissatisfaction and

demotivation can have on their professional development. Second, Fatemi, Alimirzaei, Gahaffari and Izadi (2014) added more constructs to this relationship. The aim of their research was to examine the interplay among emotional intelligence, autonomy intelligence and job burnout with EFL teachers.   To this end, the research used three different questionnaires Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (EIQ), Teacher Autonomy Scale (TAS) and Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) and showed statistically significant relationships between EFL teachers' EI and their autonomy, EFL teachers' EI and JB, and EFL teachers' autonomy and their JB. These findings are significant in determining the psychological traits of language teachers in EFL settings and in providing possible ways of getting rid of job burnout with the effective use of several strategies described in depth.

6. Conclusion

This study, then, focused on studies on teacher autonomy with a specific view to understanding the concept from different angles. This review offers a number of important conclusions related to the concept. First, most of the reviewed studies concentrated on the relationship between teacher autonomy and professional development, emphasizing that the ways of becoming autonomous teachers through various strategies were examined in those studies. As described in the findings section, the aim of analyzing the concept "teacher autonomy" from teachers' perspectives was evident in the studies. Second, one of the relating construct "reflection" was viewed as an important aspect of teacher autonomy in the reviewed studies. Depending on the conditions in which teachers worked, reflection played an important role in the development of teacher autonomy evidenced in the studies. Finally, one of the significant factors causing teacher burnout was viewed as the lack of teacher autonomy in the contexts in which teachers taught. Therefore, the relationship between teacher autonomy and teacher burnout was closely examined in the reviewed studies.

It is therefore quite reasonable to propose that the conceptualization of the term 'autonomy', as a superordinate construct, and the variations of it across the definition of learner and teacher, has been advanced along with the paradigm shifts in psychology, in mainstream education and in applied linguistics. This conceptualization process has also witnessed the ever-evolving nature of the societal stressors, such as the operational definition of a competent teacher who can address the children of new information age and the nature of the knowledge which has never been so immense and complicated

before. These requirements of schooling inevitably led the researchers and the teacher educators to frame a set of competences for teachers who are able to educate themselves, take pedagogical initiatives in- and outside-the-class and sustain the high-quality interaction with the emerging generations. Allegorically speaking, these competencies identified for the teacher may resemble the materials and devices exploited to construct a building: Reflection, scaffolding, professional feedback, teacher development, teacher's awareness, taking responsibility, and so forth. Within this allegory, teacher autonomy serves as the construction plan or the engineering design, which puts all of those theoretical concepts into a reasonable organization, making it possible to construct the autonomous identity of the teacher.

One implication is that there is a need to look into teacher autonomy in the field of language teacher education. In recent years, we have witnessed a growing interest in the role of reflection and metacognition in teacher education. However, the studies reviewed simply indicate that teacher autonomy has not been as extensively as it should in the field of language teacher education. On the other hand, no one can deny the importance of teachers who are capable to develop themselves professionally in collaboration with their students and colleagues in the teaching processes. It is known that in the last three decades, most of the studies which devote a lot of attention to the construction and validation of a research tool for its measurement conceptualize teacher autonomy as 'a personal sense of freedom to execute professional action' (Usma, 2007). However, teacher autonomy is a phenomenon which needs to conceptualized from various aspects, and therefore it involves the analysis of personal beliefs, professional competence, and environmental factors that interrelate for the successful exercise of professional discretion (Usma, 2007). Therefore, adopting a multifaceted viewpoint, the present study considers teacher autonomy from teachers' professional learning aspect and regards it as a personality trait under the umbrella term of teacher autonomy.

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Chapter 3

Curriculum and materials development in language teacher education in contemporary times: Are we ready for change?

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Abstract

The current global sociolinguistic landscape has continuously generated important impacts to different areas in Education, including that of language teacher education. No matter the context where teachers get their regular training (pre-/in-service), such impacts, in many ways, have been pressing for change in courses and programs in order to respond to the demands of language classrooms that are becoming increasingly multilingual and multicultural. Focusing on the subareas of curriculum and materials development, the chapter approaches the contemporary reality, raising and discussing issues related to the global spread of English, research trends in curricula, ELF-aware teacher training experiences, besides calling teachers' attention to the importance of their constantly engage in processes of decolonization of language materials, especially in ELT. All of this anchored in the perspective of an epistemic break (Kumaravadivelu 2012) which would, among other aspects, empower practitioners in different parts of the world, mainly in periphery countries, to critically question, relativize, and deconstruct the center-based knowledge systems they have for decades almost entirely followed and relied on.

Keywords: Language teacher education; curriculum; materials; decolonization; epistemic break.

1. Introduction

Due to the current phenomenon of globalization, which is dramatically different from its earlier stages, the contemporary world has been going through incredibly fast and unpredictable changes at the most different levels, including those of language and culture. As contended by Kumaravadivelu (2006: 131), "the impact of globalization on the sociocultural lives of people all over the world is remarkable." Global mobility and migration (forced or voluntary) have been contributing to unveil and expose the complexities which, more and more, have singularized the sociolinguistic communities we all inhabit on this planet. As Blommaert (2010: 4) would assert, "the mobility of people […] involves the mobility of linguistic and sociolinguistic resources." In

such a scenario, he complements, "'sedentary' or 'territorialized' patterns of language use are complemented by 'translocal' and 'deterritorialized' forms of language use, and […] the combination of both often accounts for unexpected sociolinguistic effects" (p. 5). In other words, culturally and linguistically speaking, there are immese and exciting avenues to be studied and explored.

Back in the 1980s, B. B. Kachru, the founder of today's well-known research field *World Englishes*, would call our attention to the fact that substantial data at that time already proved that speech communities – monolingual or multilingual – were never homogenos users of single codes. According to him, "a speech community tends to use a network of codes which are functionally allocated in terms of their social uses, [and] the type and range of such codes would vary from one community to another" (Kachru 1986: 78). For sure, when Kachru wrote those words, the world was beginning to experience the 'explosion' of "the most distinctive feature of the current phase of globalization," that is, the global electronic communication along with its major engine, the Internet (Kumaravadivelu 2006: 131). This unique and powerful source that connects millions of people almost instantaneously has naturally given rise to a global community which, for reasons extensively studied and debated, assumed English as its main means of communication, but by no means the only one.

Despite the predominance of English as the language of globalization, this hegemonic role has been slowly challenged by other international languages, especially in cyberspace, which is to be open to all (and any) languages. As the so-called global lingua franca, English continues 'breaking into' more and more multilingual and multicultural spaces, and actively becoming part of the everyday life of people from very different linguacultural backgrounds (Cogo & Dewey 2012). As a consequence, this whole process has brought to surface sociolinguistic phenomena like *translangaging*, for instance, the "*new* language practices that make visible the complexity of language exchanges among people with different histories, and releases histories and understandings that had been buried within fixed language identities constrained by nation-states" (García & Wei 2014: 21) (italics in original). In this sense, as Blommaert (2010: 5) would point out, in such contexts, "the structure of people's repertoires and the patterns of multilingual language use [have] become less predictable and significantly more complex," and, more than ever, in order to interact with their international/global counterparts, individuals rely on their multimodal and multilingual literacy skills. Alluding to Kachru's words written more than thirty years ago to refer to what he named "The alchemy of English," we can say that

the picture we briefly introduce here also points to "a sign of new awareness and a new direction" (1986: 79).

Bearing in mind the aforementioned scenario, what would be the impacts and implications for language teacher education?[1] Being more specific, as our title announces, what role(s) are curricula and instructional materials to play in order to respond to the changes that have already been knocking on the doors of our language classrooms in practically all corners of the globe? In order to approach these two important aspects within language teacher education, we shall initially look to the past and reflect upon some of the conceptions that have along time oriented language teacher training and teacher education in this particular realm. Therefore, we are to carefully consider the results a certain curricular perspective (from which the develpoment of materials would derive) has brought to our social context. These reflections can help us analyze language teacher education around the world and thus contribute to possible changes in this area of studies. As Duboc (2015: 15-16) argues, it is of crucial importance to investigate and know how language teachers can rely on contemporary curricular theories as a pre-condition to a "postmodern curricular redesign which better responds to the demands of these new times."

As well-known, the curriculum by subject and discipline has always been at the center of the attention of language teacher education courses. Brazil, our context, and many other expanding circle countries, for example, along the years, have followed and adopted (most of the time uncritically) perspectives imported from the United States whose general objective would basically attend to market demands, and, for this reason, the curriculum should be characterized as technical. As a result, the majority of language teachers, especially in English Language Teaching (henceforth ELT), acquired standardized knowledge, as well as guidelines for teaching languages through methods and techniques which normally constituted what we would call a 'technical pedagogy'. Its main goal then was developing language skills.

This tradition has prevailed over time, and even in these postmodern times, we can still see many language teachers restricting their practice to the teaching of the four linguistic abilities, i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Although distanced from grammar and translation-oriented curricular designs, the curriculum by subject does not privilege a contemporary education in which

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[1] As professional English teachers and teacher educators, we might approach certain issues, refer to experiences, and bring about examples from the ELT area. However, our thesis is that most everything, especially the theoretical discussion that we expose in the text is applicable to language teacher education in general.

knowledge of language, culture, and other conditions to interact both locally and globally can be fully addressed. Nowadays, a curriculum must be a cultural construction. Better still, as Duboc (2018: 175) suggests, we are to speak of "a *curricular attitude* in place of any fixed normative set of curricular guidelines."

As for materials, adaptations and changes in their conceptions and parameters have certainly been occurring in the last decades, but teacher education courses have not been able to help and empower pre-service and in-service teachers to exercise their agency and autonomy towards the pre-fabricated instructional resources that come to their hands. In many contexts and scenarios, for instance, the textbook series becomes "the teaching method," and practically dictates the "what" and the "how" in the teaching process. In other words, despite the fact that teachers are being prepared to deal with students who share multiple and heterogenous knowledge, their initiative and promptness to challenge "the ubiquitous power of the textbook" are still limited. As Guerra and Cavalheiro (2019: 129) point out, "[language] teaching materials have traditionally been restricted to standard monolithic representations of language, focusing largely on a standard [model] as the only valid example."

With that in mind, what can teacher education do to equip teachers to defy this and several other tenets that are commonly seen and taken as unnegotiable pillars in classroom practices? The answers to this and to a couple of other questions related to language curriculum and materials development in today's globalized world, along with the discussion of some research trends and innovative teacher training experiences in the area, basically comprise the goal of our reflections in this chapter.

2. The idea of curriculum in postmodernity

As Duboc (2015: 20) contends, "to reflect upon language teacher education in these current times means inscribing it in postmodernity's questions and dillemas."[2] Several authors defend that a definition of term postmodernity always implies an aesthetic and epistemologic rupture with the so-called modernity as it negates the latter's subject taken as absolute, centered, and autonomous. When it comes to the postmodernity identity, for instance, Kumaravadivelu (2012: 11) points out that *fragmentation* is the catchcword. For him, "the fragmented identity takes on a life of its own through a process of becoming – a process that is continuous, non-linear, and unstable." That is, "it

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[2] Our translation for: *Pensar a formação do professor de línguas na atualidade implica inscrevê-la nas questões e nos dilemas da pós-modernidade.* (Original in Brazilian Portuguese).

embraces the idea that identity id fluid and amorphous, one that is constantly and endelessly invented and reinvented" (p. 11).

Upon revisting the modern theories of education, Libâneo (2010 as cited in Duboc 2015: 21) calls attention to the implications of postmodernity to pedagogy, including the relativization of systematized knowledge, emphasis on learners' performance in detriment of knowledge acquisition, the fall of human universality and domineering cultures, and the need of an integration of early fragmented knowledge. Based on this and several other premises inherent to what she terms a postmodern educational project, Duboc (2015) proposes a resignificaton of curricular practices under a postmodern perspective which are to move away from the typical desgin anchored in linearity and stability. In her view, we are to engage in the conception of "a curriculum founded in the dialogic and transactive interaction between teacher and student – not anymore in modernity's unilateral and informative interaction – once the categoric distinctiveness between subject and object is revisited"[3] (Duboc 2015: 27-28).

Following that idea, in her elaborations, Duboc (2015: 28), drawing on Biesta (2010), points to "the responsibility of an educational project in forming citizens that respond ethically to the practices and traditions in which they insert themselves"[4], and offers some key terms which are to comprise the ontologies and the epistemologies of two ideas of curriculum, the modern and the postmodern curriculum (See Table 1):

	Modern Curriculum	**Postmodern Curriculum**
Ontologies	acknowledgement acquisition trasncendental	contestation response contingent
Epistemologies	representational verifying positivist	genealogic perspectivist interpretativist

Table 1: Ontologies and epistemologies in two ideas of curriculum (Duboc 2015: 29)

But what it is interesting about the author's line of thought is that, to a certain extent, she is not really engaged in proposing a specific design of a postmodern curriculum, but, interestingly enough, she advocates post-educational practices devoid of pre-established models which turn themselves to the experiences and

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[3] Our translation for: *Um curriculum fundamentado na interação dialógica e transativa entre docente e aluno – e não mais unilateral e informativa como na modernidade – na medida que a distintividade entre sujeito e objeto é revisitada.*

[4] Our translation for [...] *a* [...] *responsabilidade do projeto educacional em formar cidadãos que respondam eticamente às práticas e tradições nas quais se inscrevem.*

the contingencies of a particular context." (Duboc 2015: 29). So, her emphasis, as previously mentioned, is on the resignification of educational practices, raising our awareness to what she terms a "curricular attitude," which she defines as

> "the teacher's agency *between the cracks* [or *the gaps*] of the curriculum so that any discursive practices in textbooks, course plans, lesson plans, school procedures, students' and teachers' ways of being, seeing, and acting might serve as starting points for a critical intervention towards transformation" (italics in original) (Duboc 2018: 175)

To us, such posture appears as extremely pertinent and attractive for language pedagogy, as in many contexts the practices and orientations still emanate from a modern curricular tradition that has not even revised outdated concepts of language and culture, for example. Besides that, the "curricular attitude" proposed by Duboc (2015; 2018) encapsulates important Freirean concepts like criticality, agency, and emancipation. It is Freire (1987: 48) who affirms that "when challenged by a critical educator, students begin to understand that the more profound dimension of their freedom lies in the recognition of constraints that can be overcome." Still with Freire in mind, this "curricular attitude," we assume, can trigger the decolonization of teachers' mentality, especially those who believe that for them to become legitimate speakers of the language they teach, they have to assimilate values, beliefs, and behaviors of the supposed "owners" of this language. For Freire (1987: 118), "the decolonization of mentality is much more difficult to achieve than the physical expulsion of the colonialist." "Sometimes," he complements, "the colonizers are thrown out but they remain culturally, because they have been assimilated into the minds of the people they leave behind." In today's world, where colonialism in different societies has been replaced by coloniality[5], this assimilation, and thus the mental colonization Freire refers to, is one of the main challenges to be overcome by language teachers.

3. Contemporary types of curriculum

Curriculum theory is a rich and robust academic area or discipline devoted to examining and structuring educational curricula. Young (2014: 192) postulates that for those involved in the field, a crucial question to answer is: "What should all students know by the time they leave school?" For this author,

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[5] Coloniality, according to Maldonado-Torres (2010: 97), "refers to long-standing patterns of power that emerged as a result of colonialism, but that define culture, labor, intersubjective relations, and knowledge production well beyond the strict limits of colonial administration."

among several important issues, curriculum theorists should "concentrate their efforts on the development of curricula that not just reproduce learning opportunities, but rather broaden them" (p. 192). This means, engaging in an epistemic activity to produce knowledge, and seeing learning in two senses, "historically, as over time learning has become increasingly complex and differentiated; and in terms of types of learning in today's [post]modern societies" (Young 2014: 197).

The first mention of the word "curriculum" dates from 1582, at the University of Leiden, The Netherlands. However, curriculum theory as a field of study is thought to have begun with the publication of *The Yale Report on the Defense of the Classics* in 1828, which promoted the study of a classical curriculum, including languages like Latin and Greek[6]. Time has passed by, several traditions emerged and disappeared until we reached the periods of conceiving curricula anchored in perspectives that, among other things, sought to reflect the demands of the realities of the times we were living.

According to Sacristán (2000), the quality of teaching and education has a lot to do with the culture in which such processes develop. For this author, there must be a constant dialogue between the curriculum, school, and society. Apart from the aforementioned discipline-based curriculum, severely criticized for its instructional emphasis on specific and factual information and skills, and a teaching practice that leads students into assimilating knowledge in a fragmented way, we can say that when it comes to educating teachers, various alternative types of curriculum have been conceived. It is our contention then that, although not widely used in *language* teacher education programs, they seem to be the path to follow in order to have language practitioners' education aligned with the complexities and peculiarities of today's world.

As Silva (2014: 517) argues, "complexity and postmodernity have served as rich metaphorical sources for considerations related to Education, and, more specifically, to the Curriculum area."[7] Pinar (2004) and Silva (2014), for instance, based on the elaborations by Doll Jr. (2002), discuss the idea of curriculum as "currere" (*run* in Latin). Taken as a noun, the term refers to a pre-planned path to follow, and as a verb, it refers to the act of tracking the path, as a personal experience. According to these authors, since the beginning, we have considered curriculum almost exclusively in terms of the trajectory, not in terms of the runner's personal experience. The runner, in this case, would be the future teacher who must be well-prepared to successfully complete his/her

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[6] Adapted from <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Curriculum_theory>. Access: Feb 25, 2019.

[7] Our translation for: *A complexidade e o pós-modernismo têm servido como ricas fontes metafóricas para considerações a respeito da Educação e, mais especificamente, para a área do Currículo.*

marathon. In other words, curricula tend to ignore the variety of runners that come to our courses, as Silva (2014: 521) would call our attention to:

> Considering the runner's perspective implies a self-reflexive experience of the actors of the process. This requires from teacher educators a posture of instigating this self-reflection in teachers-to-be. It also introduces the need to change routes throughout the process, considering specific demands. As we interpret 'currere' as a verb, we place ourselves in favor of the design of personalized curricula which value the runner's experience and not always the beauty of the path, as this beauty can be restricted only to the eye of those who planned the prescriptions, not the teacher's much less the student's eye.

Bringing the reflection to the context of language teacher education, we have noticed that even today there is a strong tendency for teacher educators to follow a certain and strict path of preparation and instruction, often neglecting their student-teachers' experiences, being such a posture possibly replicated when the latter start their classroom practices. We believe that such an idea of curriculum can surely make a difference in language teacher education in these contemporary times as it can help the "runner" understand both in theory and practice that there is much more in his/her education than just being equipped to follow a pre-determined pedagogical plan.

Another perspective of curriculum that we see as very well-aligned with the demands of postmodernity is the so-called multi-referential curriculum approach. Initially introduced by Jacques Ardoino, professor at the University of Vincennes (Paris VIII), and his research group, the emergence of this approach in Human Sciences, especially in Education, is directly related to the recognition of the complexity and heterogeneity which comprise social practices (Martins 2014). In a nutshell, the multi-referential perspective seeks "to approach social phenomena as to establish a new and more plural "look," […] based on a conjugation of several theoretical currents, unfolding in a new epistemological perspective in the construction of knowledge" (Martins 2014: 468-469).

On the basis of the multi-referenced curriculum, Macedo (2013: 78) would tell us, is "our condition to work with heterogeneity as a formative process, our struggle to overcome centuries of understanding that to be efficient in educational and curricular terms, the normal path to follow is that of homogeneity."[8] Considering the plural relationship among different knowledges, the multi-referential curriculum is conceived then as a space whose main focus is on the learner, his/her life experiences, respecting one another's

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[8] Our translation for: [...] *a nossa condição de trabalhar com a heterogeneidade como processo formativo, uma luta para superarmos séculos de entendimento de que o normal é homogeneizar para ser eficiente em termos educacionais e curriculares.*

differences, tastes, interests and needs, thus privileging the learning process and the group's heterogeneity. Within this context, the different non-disciplinary references destabilize academic truths and challenge an apparently stable and self-sufficient knowledge (Macedo 2013). According to this author,

> The curriculum here is literally placed within the core of the world. A *mundane curriculum* that since it proposes a pedagogical, ethical and politically-committed to human dignity education, it attracts and brings the world's impurities to the debate. This happens because people are educated to the world and its "natural" heterogeneity, not to the continue deifying knowledges in the comfort of some truths and lies of the small and specific academic world[9] (Macedo 2013: 89) (italics in original).

So, in contrast to multi and inter-*disciplinarity*, multi-*referentiality* does not postulate that we gather knowledge from different and distinct areas, but that we are able to develop what Macedo (2013) would call a *condition of access to the other's perspective*. In other words, it is a curriculum that works as a welcoming system[10], an open system.

When it comes to language education, we envision that under such a perspective, teachers can exercise their autonomy to expand their knowledge beyond what curricular orientations might dictate. Multi-referentiality suggests an *events curriculum*, that is, it considers the different types of knowledge that do not necessarily constitute the ordinary curriculum. In this sense, teachers are to discover and notice *gaps* in their school planning, and, consequently, feel empowered to go beyond the principles and the normative procedures prescribed in the general curriculum matrix. This certainly takes us back to the aforementioned *curricular attitude* as conceived by Duboc (2015; 2018). Dialogue becomes a keyword, issues to be addressed count on learners' direct participation, and, coursebooks, for instance, are to be seen not as the untouchable center of attention, as they can be sided by teachers' experiences, negotiated additional materials, alternative school planning, different forms of assessment, among others.

Besides providing boarder knowledge and deeper sociocultural involvement, the multi-referential curriculum can be recognized as a matter of justice in view of the needs that contemporary citizens have to be closer to each other to share

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[9] Our translation for: *O currículo aqui é literalmente colocado no âmago do mundo. Um 'currículo mundano' que, ao propor uma formação pedagógica, ética e politicamente comprometida com a dignidade humana, atrai e acolhe as impurezas do mundo para o debate, até porque é para o mundo e sua "natural" heterogeneidade que as pessoas se formam, e não para continuar a deificar saberes no conforto dos âmbitos de algumas verdades e de algumas mentiras do pequeno e específico mundo acadêmico.*

[10] Our translation for: *Um sistema de acolhida.*

their points of view, their lives in the family, and how teachers can work to offer a better education to their learners. Through the multireferential curriculum, the development of the future teacher can be expanded beyond the disciplines and their corresponding contents. Learning is to take place during all phases and in any place, that is, in the educational institutions, from the books, movies, in the working environment, on the internet, etc. It has to do then with how the comprehension of reality can be addressed by the school through multiple references, considering as central humankind's heterogeneity in all its richness and potentiality.

One last perspective of curriculum worth mentioning to be present in language teacher education is the intercultural curriculum. For Estermann (2010: 33), "interculturality describes symmetric and horizontal relations between two and more cultures, with the objective of mutually enriching one another and contributing to greater human plenitude."[11] As Mignolo (2000: 37) argues, "learning a new language is not a matter of learning a new code, but a new way of being in the world." For this reason, as language teachers (especially English teachers), in our view, are in the center of the discussions related to the intricacies of global interactions among people from all walks of life, it is a fact that we are in need of intercultural language educators for a world that is naturally becoming astoundingly intercultural (Siqueira 2018).

Intercultural language educators are those language teaching professionals who assume and implement their everyday practice under an interculturally-sensitive perspective; an orientation which invests in building bridges, long-standing connections. These are teachers who have developed, among other aspects, a clear understanding of practices and pedagogies intrinsically associated with an intercultural orientation in language teaching (Liddicoat & Scarino 2013). Our contemporary society has assumed configurations of new social scenarios in which cultural differences and the potential richness of human realities are increasingly centered around the political discussion of the ways of being and being in the world. Such reality has particularly been imposing demands and challenges on school education and presupposing pedagogical initiatives that involve the necessary cross-linking between equality and difference policies (Candau 2016).

Within the arena of conflict and power where we live, issues of race, gender, language, politics, culture and other social demands exist and need to be addressed both in the social and school spheres. Unfortunately, our schools have not been enough preparing individuals to live in a world of difference and diversity. As a consequence, we have a disjointed society, still oriented by patterns of standard established by dominating groups. As posed by Sablic

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[11] Our translation for*: La interculturalidad describe relaciones simétricas y horizontales entre dos o más culturas, a fin de enriquecerse y contribuir a mayor plenitude humana.*

(2011), pedagogy faces enormous challenges, being one of them the development of a positive attitude towards those who are different from us. In her view, "the contemporary approach to the making of a curriculum is increasingly more democratic, emphasizing a need for changes to the educational system, especially on the level of teachers, tutors, pedagogues, expert associates, and parents – the intercultural educational community" (p. 137). Based on this,

[a] curriculum structured in this manner recognises social and cultural differences and includes all areas of school activity: acquisition of fundamental humanistic values, curricular and extracurricular activities, school culture, and inclusion of minority pupils. The concept of intercultural curriculum is based on an academic approach and pedagogical competence, and aims towards avoiding prejudice and stereotype, ethnocentrism and hierarchy among different cultures. In order to help the inclusion of intercultural aspects into the existing curricula, schools need to work alongside families and local communities for the purpose of achieving the aims of intercultural education (Sablic 2011: 137).

This whole idea goes in line with what Reis (2017: 136) defends when she affirms that it is not possible dissociate culture and education, once the school universe, besides being social and political, it is by nature cultural. According to this author,

[within] the more immediate pedagogical action, the subjects pass on their systems of values and symbols, their different languages and life experiences, their memories, their concepts of world and society, as this process consists in a cultural action. It is obvious that in this action the conflicts and tensions are present, since the diversity of subjects brings to surface affirmations of identity[12] (Reis 2017: 136).

As Siqueira (2018) points out, for us to expect our language teachers to act interculturally, and indeed incorporate an intercultural attitude influenced by an intercultural curriculum, it is crucial that teacher educators move away from their comfort zone and pay heed to the new configurations that language education around the world is to be submitted to. As Sifakis (2014) would advise us, all kinds of educational professionals, including teacher educators, are to engage in a constant process of 'learning,' 'unlearning,' and 'relearning.' This, and the previously discussed curricular perspective, in our view, can surely respond to such a pertinent call.

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[12] Our translation for: *Na ação pedagógica mais imediata, os sujeitos transmitem seus sistemas de valores e de símbolos, suas diferentes vivências e linguagens, suas memórias, seus conceitos de mundo e de sociedade, posto que este processo consiste numa ação cultural. Obviamente que nesta ação os conflitos e as tensões estão presentes, pois a diversidade de sujeitos coloca em relevo afirmações de identidades.*

An intercultural curriculum, for sure, holds the potential to, among other things, help develop teachers' intercultural competence, once such a perspective, according to Liddicoat and Scarino (2013: 29), "implies the transformational engagement of the learner in the act of learning." Besides this, add the authors, "the goal of learning is to decenter learners from their preexisting assumptions and practices to develop an intercultural identity through engagement with an additional culture" (Liddicoat & Scarino 2013: 29). It is then imbued by these assumptions that we shall remember that an intercultural pedagogy:

- creates new relations of equality, destroying the traditional relations of power;
- develops new ways of being, new expectations of what it is to be a man or a woman;
- promotes participation and a democratic environment in which everyone can express their opinions;
- is accessible to all and responds to everyone's needs;
- is based on the experience of the students;
- is relevant to life and work of the students on a regional and inter/national level;
- is constructive – with the teacher as facilitator, rather than the expert;
- is inclusive – provides access to all; everyone has the same opportunity;
- respects individual differences;
- is motivating and provides incentives for all;
- is multicultural and multilingual (Daniel 2001: 1).

Naturally, these contemporary times are to make room to all kinds of rethinking and reevaluation of curricular perspectives and pedagogical practices. However, one aspect in the area that we believe has been practically overcome is the idea of conceiving curricula in terms of disciplinarity. Possibly, a few traditionally-oriented language teacher educators still conduct their practices under such a prism, but sooner or later, they will become aware of the differences and peculiarities of that the profile of the student-teachers that come to their classes today. Education, we reckon, can not be constructed without the individual's presence and active participation. So, it does not make any sense to have him/her, for example, to learn from materials and situations which bring and discuss contents that have nothing to do with their life histories. In other words, teacher education guided by curricula, theoretical approaches, methods, procedures, and techniques will be fully effective when we decidedly unveil what it is usually invisible or hidden by the (false) premise that the language classroom is to be taken as a neutral instructional venue detached from what happens in real life.

4. Language curriculum, materials, epistemic break

Broadly speaking, within the context of language teaching, the curriculum is a theoretical document which deals with the program of studies in an

educational system or institution. As Candlin (1984 as cited in Nunan 1988: 3) postulates, "curricula are concerned with making general statements about language learning, learning purpose and experience, evaluation, and the role relationships of teachers and learners." Syllabuses, on the other hand, complements Nunan (1988: 3), "are more localized and are based on the accounts and records of what actually happens at the classroom level as teachers and students apply a curriculum to their own situation." Following a tradition, especially within the area of ELT, throughout the years, teacher educators got used to deal with these elements, along with others like approach, method, design, procedures, techniques as part of the "engineering" processes of English teaching, be as a second (ESL) or a a foreign language (EFL). A tradition was globally installed, and an entire industry flourished and spread all over the world, consolidating premises and practices which became (almost) untouchable canons all stakeholders were supposed to accept and submit to.

With the advent of areas of studies like *World Englishes* and *ELF*, (*English as a Lingua Franca*), both interested in the reach and implications of the denationalization and deterritorialization of English catapulted by the current phenonmenon of globalization, a great deal of discussion has naturally taken place all over, including in the debates the expectations related to curriculum and materials development. As already highlighted, these are the times of complex sociolinguistic scenarios, and research studies have shown that we are moving in leaps and bounds towards what Kumaravadivelu (2016) came to call "the decolonial option in English teaching". Referring also to the need of an "epistemic break" in the area (Kumaravadivelu 2012), we would agree with the author and argue then that ELF research findings, for instance, have created and opened important avenues for such actions towards adaptations and changes within ELT practices and teacher education to be carried out.

For Kumaravadivelu (2012: 14), this epistemic break would represent "a thorough reconceptualization and a thorough re-organzation of knowledge systems." In his view, such a move is extremely important in order to help ELT professionals "meet the challenges of teaching English which is marked by globality as well as coloniality" (p. 24). The first enduring episteme which is being seriously challenged by these studies is exactly that of the *native speaker* and "its benevolent twin, *native speaker competence*" (p. 15). However, there is a long path to tread, once

> [t]he episteme symbolizes West-oriented, Center-based knowledge systems that [...] practitioners in the periphery countries almost totally depend on. It is analogous to a tap root from which all primary and secondary roots and rootlets sprout laterally. It spreads itself largely in terms of the importance given to matters

such as native-speaker accent, native speaker teachers, native-like target competence, teaching methods emanating from Western universities, texbooks published by Western publishing houses, research agenda set by Center-based scholars, professional journals edited and published from Center countries ... The list is long. (Kumaravadivelu 2012: 15).

Besides this, the author prompts us to consider breaking the epistemic dependency on several aspects related to ELT, including labels and terminologies, Western knowledge production, Center-based methods, Center-based cultural competence, and Center-based textbook industry. Such a call, in our view, is extremely pertinent, and although the focus is on ELT and English education, the epistemic dependence is present in contexts which involve other international languages and all professionals involved. But concerning English, we assert that it is ELF and its current concerns towards the implications to the ELT classroom that have advanced with several initiatives that, for us, need to be made much more visibile and thus expanded. For instance, in terms of teacher education, two examples are worth mentioning here. In the first one, Kemaloglu-Er and Bayyurt (2019) describe a study with Turkish pre-service teachers who participated in an ELF-aware teacher education training program, revealing that after going through theoretical, application and evaluation phases, they began "[to integrate] ELF in their teaching practices willingly and innovatively in explicit and/or implicit ways" (p. 163). As we can see in Table 2, the leading educators defined two categories of ELF integration (implicit and explicit), associated with the different elements that comprise the regular ELT classroom[13]:

Table 2: How explicit and implicit integration treat different pedagogical and ELF related issues (Kemaloglu-Er & Bayyurt 2019: 166)

	Explicit ELF integration	**Implicit ELF integration**
Teacher	ELF-aware; makes direct reference to ELF and makes use of overt explanations related to ELF.	ELF-aware; makes no direct reference to and explanations about ELF and employs covert ways related to ELF.
Learners	Informed about ELF; engaged in critical reflection on the ELF concept.	Not informed about ELF; no critical reflection on the ELF concept.
NNSs use of English	Introduced with different samples with direct reference to the concept of ELF.	Introduced with different samples by making no direct reference to the concept of ELF.
Communication	The teacher and the learners consciously focus on intelligibility	The teacher consciously focuses on intelligibility in correcting the

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[13] For a comprehensive discussion on results and further developments of the program, see Kemaloglu-Er & Bayyurt (2019).

	in communications within the classroom. The students are informed about the concept of intelligibility.	learners in communications within the classroom. The students are not informed about the concept of intelligibility.
Local cultures of NNS	Can be included with direct reference to the people's NNS identity.	Can be included with or without direct reference to the people's NNS identity.
Use of L1s and other langguages	Allowed in the classroom as a resource to help to learn and improve English. The rationale behind this permission can be explained to the learners.	Allowed in the classroom as a resource to help to learn and improve English. The rationale behind this permission is not explained to the learners.

The second example within the scope of ELF studies as an initiative to break with the Center-based dependency concerning knowledge production is the work by Sifakis (2014) which proposes a transformative perspective for TESOL, having in the background ELF-awareness as an opportunity for change. As part of the program, several issues are debated such as the cultural aspect of ELF and the communicatively effective of English by NNS that, for Sifakis (2014: 321), "present further opportunities that engender adopting a different perspective to traditional approaches to teaching and learning." As for curricular innovations, the author mentions the importance of introducing ELF-related topics in local school EFL curricula (his local context is Greece), along with change in materials because "even when new curricula prioritize the function of English for global and cosmopolitan citizenship, textbooks do not follow suit" (p. 322). In his elaborations to expose tenets of an ELF-aware teacher education, Sifakis (2014) does not forget to call our attention to obstacles that need to be faced in order to move on with this and similar entreprises. According to him,

> […] the major obstacle to linking ELF-oriented principles and concerns with the ESOL classroom and, by extension, with ESOL teacher education, despite the obvious benefits of such a link, seems to be the preponderance of (a) established practices and (b) strong perceptions by key stakeholders (ranging from policy decision makers to course book designers to teachers), both of which lead to an inherent resistance to change (Sifakis 2014: 322).

In fact, when Sifakis (2014) argues that a transformative approach to teacher education and training can integrate the many strengths of ELF research in teacher education courses, envisioning "change in teachers' mindsets and in their well-established pedagogical practices" (p. 330), he is unconciously taking the path of the epistemic break defended by Kumaravadivelu (2012). Also, as a scholar based in a periphery country, with his elaborations, Sifakis (2014) is bringing to the foreground new and non-Centered ways of constructing

alternative knowledge systems along with new ways of applying them in local ELT classrooms. In this sense, for Kumaravadivelu (2012: 24),

> if the teaching of [English as an international language] as a profession is serious about helping its professionals generate sustainable knowledge systems that are sensitive to local historical, political, cultural, and educational exigencies, then, it must get away from an epistemic operation that continues to institutionalize the coloniality of English language education.

It is this coloniality also that, to a large extent, permeates language teaching materials and, as already pointed out, needs to be challenged through a serious and continous process of overall decolonization within ELT. Again, taking ELF studies as a reference, Lopriore and Vettorel (2015: 14) show us that, from recent research studies on ELT coursebooks analysis, "it appears that the tendency to introduce aspects of global Englishes is usually visible in those sections aimed at developing (inter)cultural awareness and CLIL." Despite this still limited scope, the authors would argue that the increasing plurality of forms and functions that English has developed over the last decades as a global lingua franca "cannot any longer be ignored in teacher education as in materials and classroom practices" (p. 27). In other words, teacher education needs to equip practitioners (both pre- and in-service) systematically with the tools to promote ELF within EFL, access pre-fabricated materials critically, incorporate cultural content from different sources (local, target, and international), and, especially, feel empowered to deconstruct the "plastic world of textbooks" (Prodromou 1988; Siqueira 2015).

We know this can be a slow process as it implies change in mentality, and, above all, empowerment. But it is in face of the impostion of materials produced and promoted by center-based publishing industries that Kumaravadivelu (2016) also raises the idea of "subversion of the marginal majority," or bluntly speaking, the revolt of the subaltern ELT professional who more than speak, needs *to act*. Proposing a framework of decoloniality in ELT, he would remind us that we have to think of

> [preparing] materials that are not only suited to the goals and objectives of learning and teaching in a specific context, but also responsive to the instructional strategies desgined by local professionals. This entails a recognition that centrer-produced ESL/EFL texbooks are the instruments that propagate the principles of center-based methods. […] Many teachers already prepare supplementary materials. All they have to do is to learn to do it more systematically and for a larger purpose (Kumaravadivelu 2016: 81).

Based on this whole discussion, we close the section affirming that language teacher education, especially the preparation of future English teachers, is to go through many changes pushed by the winds of this new and defying global landscape. Within the specificities of curriculum and materials development, it is crucial that teacher educators and other stakeholders act as those professionals who can propose and produce knowledge fully geared by the forces of decoloniality. In all aspects, linguistic, cultural, political, ideological, philosophical, etc., we already have the knowledge and tools to decolonize our minds, plans, ideas, perspectives, and practices. Several of them, both theoretically and practically, have been briefly exposed here, and potentially might serve the purpose of helping language professionals in their pursuit of new horizons in the career.

5. In guise of conclusion

We started the chapter with a brief description of the world panorama we have today due to the challenges posed by globalization and some of its tributary phenomena, including the internet and the massive global spread of English. Having focused on the two aspects within language teacher education, curricular and materials development, we pointed out alternatives that, in our view, could be taken as appropriate according to contextual needs, hoping that teacher educators, especially those working in periphery countries, would engage in this movement of language teaching decolonization, ELT especially included.

Within this overall explanation and discussion, mirroring the impacts and implications caused by globalization, we posed a question we need to address here: Are we ready for change? Based on findings and results coming from fields like ELF, World Englishes, Critical Pedagogy, Curricular Studies, Interculturality, among others, we believe that, despite some waves of resistance, "Yes, WE ARE." And the resistance here, we think, is not against the new, but the different.

When we imagine that the world is becoming more and more multilingual and multicultural, we are to conceive a notion of language as social construction with all the implications it encompasses. Under this perspective, we finally abandon the outdated notion of language as structure, i.e., a closed system of fixed meanings, and embrace the notion of language as a social product of multiple, non-universal and situated meanings in a specific context of use (Duboc 2015).

In a book chapter about global textbooks, Gray (2002) argues that in the work publishers do there is a socially progressive and ethical dimension that, in practice, is usually neglected when they normally produce their materials under the "one size fits all" philosophy. For him, this dimension "is all too often undermined by the perceived need to sanitize content, [limiting it] to a narrow

range of bland topics, […] dominantly aspirational" (p. 166). Going more deeply into the question, Gray (2002: 166) affirms that this "one size fits all" means the exclusion of the local," and due to this, it naturally loses sight of a key factor that, more than ever today, we will always encounter in our classrooms: diversity. Diversity in all senses, at all levels, in all capacities.

All in all, borrowing that idea from Gray's reflection, we would like to conclude this chapter alluding exactly to the point of leaving behind this "one size fits all" possibility, not only in curriculum and materials development, but in all aspects and elements that comprise the work of professionally preparing language teachers for their professional adventures. The early mentioned term "alchemy," out of many definitions, refers to the ancient protoscientific tradition that aimed to purify, mature, and perfect certain objects. Needless to say that the complexities of today's world are imposing on language education the challenge to deal with an immense diversity of "objects." Due to this, it is then in teacher education that we should seriously exercise our talents of contemporary "alchemists" to locally "purify, mature and perfect" philosophies, approaches, methods, practices, and processes that are to decisively equip language teachers with the knowledge, tools, and abilities they will surely need to make a difference in their students' lives in classrooms around the planet.

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Chapter 4

Continuing Professional Development for Language Teachers

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Abstract

This paper reviews a selection of research from the field of teacher education with a focus on professional development (PD) for language teachers. For this purpose, it investigates target studies published in related academic journals between the years of 2010-2018. Following the steps of systematic review process, review of 33 studies yielded five main themes related to PD; a) PD as a reflective practice, b) PD as a transformative process, c) Role of Collaboration and cooperation in PD, d) INSETs as PD and e) PD and Technology. In addition to the general inclinations found, the review suggests that due to the increasing interest in PD and technology, further studies are needed on the integration, use and effectiveness of computer-based, virtual, and online PD activities.

Keywords: Professional development; language teachers; systematic review; reflective practice; online PD activities

1. Introduction

Teachers' need to keep their pedagogical knowledge and practical skills updated has been the focus of recent discussions in the field of teacher education over the last decades. The action taken by teachers to meet this need is called professional development (PD). PD is a term referring to the process in which teachers are expected to equip themselves with the required skills and information to teach according to the changing needs of their profession. This professional growth, which is continual, experiental and dynamic, impacts teacher practice which in turn yields to both better teaching and learning environments in longer terms.

Also called as continuing professional development (CPD), this professioanl growth covers activities which teachers take part in to develop professionally and keep abreast of developments in their field. It is seen as the cornerstone of teacher professionalism and a foundational element of teachers' development. It plays a vital role in the education system in today's rapidly changing world where teachers are expected to meet the dynamic needs of schools, students, materials and education system as a whole (Luke, McArdle, 2009). Kelchtermans (2004) defines CPD as "a learning process resulting from meaningful interaction with the context (both in time and space) and eventually leading to changes in teachers' professional practice (actions) and in their thinking about that practice" (p. 220).

One of the most prominent features of CPD is its being a long-term and ongoing process starting from undergraduate courses and going on during in-service trainings at workplace rather than a short-term intervention (Richter, Kunter, Klusmann, Lüdtke, and Baumert, 2011). Another significant feature is that PD are expected to lead to change both for teachers and other parties in the education environment. This comprehensive definition of CPD below by Day (1999) also emphasizes the change as the outcome of PD:

> Professional development consists of all natural learning experiences and those conscious and planned activities which are intended to be of direct or indirect benefit to the individual, group of school and which contribute, through these, to the quality of education in the classroom. It is the process by which, alone and with others, teachers review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purposes of teaching; and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills and emotional intelligence essential to good professional thinking, planning and practice with children, young people and colleagues through each phase of their teaching lives (Day, 1999, 4).

CPD is an indispensable part of English language teaching as is the case with other fields. There is an urgent need for language teachers to keep up with the recent developments in the field. Through PD, language teachers are expected to have commitment and enthusiasm to develop and grow professionally. Richards and Farrell (2005) explain the significance of CPD for language teachers by emphasizing that PD has a longer-term goals which can be listed as: "understanding the process of language development, understanding change in teachers' roles according to the kind of learners, understanding the kinds of decision-making during lessons, reviewing one's own theories and principles of

language teaching, developing an understanding of different styles of teaching, and determining learners' perceptions of classroom activities" (p.4).

The aim of this article is to provide a critical review of existing studies from major journals in the field with a focus of continuing professional development for language teachers. It looks at the contexts, research methodologies, finding and future directions of the studies analyzed.

1.1. Aim and Significance of the Study

This study which is a systematic review of previous studies on CPD for language teachers is significant because it provides a general analysis and a current state of recent trends of PD by synthesizing target studies. It provides an unbiased summary of what has been studied and found earlier and direct to potential areas for further studies. The following research questions were the impetus for the exploration of CPD in this study:

a) What do the recent studies published between the years of 2010 and 2018 reveal on the issue of CPD for language teachers?

b) In what contexts (regions, countries, learning environments etc.) were these studies carried out?

c) Which PD type(s) did the studies focus on?

d) What research methodologies were employed in the studies?

e) Which data collection tools were used?

f) What are the common findings of these studies?

2. Method

Review articles are seen as valuable tools which help to have a broader and coherent view of a particular topic. They are detailed and comprehensive synthesis of the most relevant resources available in the literature of a current area of research. They help the readers to update their knowledge on what has been done so far and see the gaps for future studies. Systematic review requires the authors to develop their search strategies and decide a priori on their selection of target studies. It is crucial to define what types of studies to include and exclude, find the relevant databases to obtain studies, create their data organization system (labeling and archiving studies and organize the information from each article etc.) and reach a conclusion based on their

collection of studies chosen. In this study, certain criteria were followed to find target studies. These can be listed as:

Publication: published in journals that are fully-refereed, open and are indexed in Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI) and Emerging Sources Citation Index (ESCI)

Language: studies written in English in full text

Time: studies published between the years of 2010-2018

Type of text: only research articles (exclusion of other academic written genres such as review articles, book reviews, notes/letters to the editor, responses to previous studies, conference proceedings, discussion articles, dissertations, or proposal of models/frameworks without reporting on empirical evidence)

Study Design: qualitative and quantitative, mixed

Study Population (Participants): Exclusion of studies whose participants are not English language teachers (i.e. professional development of math teachers etc.)

2.1. Data Collection

Data collection based on the criteria listed above began with coming up with a comprehensive list of key terms related to main theme to be able to identify all relevant studies. Databases, digital libraries, search engines, and journal websites were searched for the keywords "professional development, professional development + language teacher, continuing professional development, professional development + ESL/EFL". The databases on language education and teacher education included SCOPUS, Jstor, Google Scholar to name a few. In addition to searching databases, finding articles included steps such as checking article reference lists, hand-searching key journals, and personal communication with experts or key researchers in the field when needed. The search yielded 33 articles for review from various journals as can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1. List of journals published studies on PD between 2010-2018

Journal	# Studies
Australian Journal of Teacher Education	5
English Teaching-Practice and Critique	1
European Journal of Teacher Education	1
Journal of Education for Teaching	1

Journal of Language Teaching and Research	2
Language Teaching Research	1
Professional Development in Education	9
Reflective Practice	3
System	2
Teachers and Teaching	1
Teaching and Teacher Education	4
TESOL Quarterly	3
TOTAL	**33**

2.2. Data Analysis

Once a large collection of articles has been created and an initial examination was done, any studies meeting inclusion criteria then were archived to be reviewed in full. For the full review, data forms were created with the help of previous classification forms (Sözbilir & Kutu, 2008) to organize information from each reviewed study. These forms included tagging labels such as author, publication year, journal, index, context, PD type, research design, number of participants, data collection tools, and outcomes. Modifications were made to the forms when needed.

3. Results

After tagging each study for the categories in the data forms, a detailed content analysis was carried out by two reviewers. Each study was read and reread elaborately in a cyclical form by paying attention to its research questions, data collection and findings. In the following sections, the results are presented in the categories of:

- Purpose of the studies

- PD types

- Duration and mode of PD activities

- Context

- Research designs

- Themes related to PD

- Results and Discussion

3.1. Purpose of recent studies on PD

When studies were analyzed to see what they focused on, in general it was found that studies under review could be categorized into two as a) perceptions on PD and PD practices/activities/needs/problems of teachers and b) experimental studies using a PD activity. The studies in the first group aimed at finding what the teachers' views were on PD in general or on a particular PD type. The study by Kabilan and Veratharaju (2013) can be given as an example for the first group. In their study, they reported PD needs of Malaysian English-language teachers teaching in the primary schools. Lin (2015) also conducted a survey of 83 English teachers in South Australia to find what they thought of PD in an online environment. Meng and Tajaroensuk (2013) investigated the problems that tertiary EFL teachers had in their in-service PD.

The studies in the latter group, on the other hand, reported the results of teachers' PD experiences by tracking the changes if occurred. With a purpose of examining professional transformation, these studies were longitudinal with a case-study design and had fewer participants compared to the first group. An example study from the studies reviewed is by Xu (2013) who conducted a longitudinal case study with four novice Chinese EFL teachers on their professional development. Another example is by Tao and Gao (2017) who examined the interaction of teacher agency and identity commitment to professional development during curricular reform at a Chinese university.

3.2. PD types

The PD activities in the studies reviewed are varied in type, duration, and mode which are further elaborated in this and following sections. What PD activities require the teachers do depends on the type of PD. There are different classifications of PD activitiy types in the literature. Timperley et al. (2007), for example, list possible activities as listening, watching, being observed, receiving feedback, engaging with professional readings, and discussing teaching with experts and colleagues. As can be seen in Table 2, Richards and Farrell (2005) group PD activities in four broad categories: a) individual (i.e. self-monitoring, journal writing, teaching portfolios, action research, and critical incidents), b) one-to-one (i.e. peer coaching; peer observation, critical friendships, action research, critical incidents and team teaching), c) group-based (i.e. case studies, action research, and journal writing and teacher support groups), and d) institutional (i.e workshops, action research and teacher support groups).

Table 2. Types of PD activities (Richards and Farrell, 2005, p.14)

Individual	One-to-one	Group-based	Institutional
• Self monitoring • **Journal writing** • Critical incident • Teaching portfolios • Action research	• **Peer coaching** • Peer observation • Critical friendships • Action research • Critical incidents • Team teaching	• **Case studies** • Action research • **Journal writing** • **Teacher support groups**	• **Workshops** • Action research • **Teacher support groups**

(*PD activities in bold are found in the studies reviewed)

Variety of PD activities was observed in the analysis of studies for this review. The types of PD activities found are workshops, seminars, teacher collaboration, reflective journals, classroom research, specialized in service trainings, teacher reflection groups, online platforms, conferences, meetings, talks, computer based CPD programs, mentoring, and in-service education programs (INSETs). The engagement level of teachers in the activities depends on the type of the PD environment and activity type. In some of the activities such as attending to talks, short trainings or meetings teachers were in the recipient position; whereas, in other type of PDs such as keeping a reflective journal or doing a classroom-based research required more hands-on work and active participation of the teacher.

3.3. Duration and mode of PD activities

Time spent in PD activities in the studies changes according to the activity type. As Vrasidas and Glass (2004) stated PD can be performed in different modes such as collective vs. individual, during pre- and in-service education, cooperative or alone etc. Each of these PD types requires different time length and medium of instruction. In the corpus of this study, there are examples of one-week INSETs, 46 hours of trainings, 3 years of teacher reflection group project, or 6 months of a single PD project in which there are various types of PDs. While some of them are intensive PD programs, there are also studies in which PD is regarded as a part of teacher's education such as degree upgrading courses, or a long-term partnership experience with another institution. A recent trending mode of PD activity found in this review is virtual/online platforms. Online environments are rapidly expanding as a venue for professional development in education. As e-learning becomes more widespread in education and training settings, teachers have begun to

experience PD activities through their computers. Out of the studies reviewed, there are five examples of very recent studies in which such online platforms were used for PD purposes.

3.3. Context

The majority of the studies were conducted with teachers in EFL contexts. As can be seen in table below, more than half of the studies were conducted in the in the Asian context in Far Eastern countries. It can be inferred that PD is seen as a significant issue in countries where English is spoken as a foreign language.

Table. 3 Countries where studies took place

Country	# studies
Australia	1
Arabia	1
Canada	1
China	9
Iran	1
Korea	1
Malaysia	3
Portugal	1
Sri Lanka	1
Syria and Pakistan	1
Thailand	1
Turkey	1
USA	3
Vietnam	1

3.4. Research Designs

In the selection of studies for this review, the criteria about research design was that all kinds of designs were accepted. The corpus of studies reviewed included quantitative (n=9), qualitative (n=12), and mixed method studies (n=12). The data for the quantitative studies mostly came from questionnaires or surveys. The number of participants for quantitative studies ranged from 40 to 1500. Data for the qualitative studies were gathered from mainly interviews. Classroom observations, field notes, facebook posts and reflective journals also constituted the data for the studies reviewed. In majority of the studies with mixed method design, teachers' experiences and attitudes were surveyed with questionnaires and this was further supported with interviews. In general, there is an inclination to have a mixed method design and to include as many data

sources as possible. It seems that particularly with the tendency to investigate computer based PD activities, teachers' discussions, online posts or virtual classrooms have become and will continue to be data sources for studies on PD.

3.5. Themes related to PD

The studies reviewed were grouped into five main themes based on their findings: 1. PD as a reflective practice, 2. PD as a transformative process, 3. role of collaboration and cooperation in PD, 4. INSETs as PD and 5. PD and technology.

3.5.1. PD as a reflective practice

Reflection is seen as a vital element of professional development. It is used at both pre-service and in-service levels of teaching. Recent studies on what constitutes effective teaching has shown that reflection, inquiry and continuing professional development are basic foundations (Harris, 1998). The benefits of reflective practice have been under investigation of numerous studies on teacher education. Reflective practice enables teachers to gain a better and deeper understanding of their own teaching, thus it helps them become more effective teachers. A brief definition of reflective teaching by Richards (1990) is:

> "an activity or process in which an experience is recalled, considered, and evaluated, usually in relation to a broader purpose. It is a response to past experiences and involves a conscious recall and an examination of experiences as a basis for evaluation and decision-making, and as a source for planning an action" (Richards, 1990, p.1).

Davis (2005) emphasized the role reflection plays by stating that it is a conscious practice to open teachers' thinking to all possibilities, so they "step outside of their own definitions of the world and see new perspectives" (p. 18).

Reflective practice can be conducted in different forms such as action research, diaries and journals, or teacher development group (Borg, 2001; Farrell, 2008). Reflective practice as a PD activity has been the focus of seven studies examined for this review article. Keeping reflective journals, reflective dialogues and narratives of teachers are example activities teachers were engaged in. In one of the studies reviewed, Farrell (2013) reported that teacher reflection activities such as groups discussions and journal writing enabled teachers to develop personal understanding and interpretations of their

knowledge. As a result of his study, Farrell (2013) suggests that teacher reflection groups provide a platform where experienced teachers share their accumulated knowledge they gained through teaching years, for this reason reflection groups need to be incorporated in PD programs.

Another study which is carried out with 217 English language teachers by Wichadee (2012) also underscored how reflective practice plays a significant role in PD. It was found that the PD activity which helps teachers develop themselves most was their reflective discussions with other teachers. 91% of the participants reported that when they discussed and shared knowledge with their colleagues, this gave them an opportunity for self-development. Chien (2013) conducted a study which solely focused on teachers' keeping a journal as a reflective practice. The study was concluded by remarks that constantly keeping a journal of classroom practice as a reflective practice for professional growth helped teachers set a clear focus and objectives, spend time with their colleagues to analyze and discuss journal entries and make suggestions for professional growth.

Reviewing recent studies on PD revealed that reflection plays a significant role in professional development of language teachers no matter which type of reflective practice it is. As Richards and Lockhart (1994) stated, teachers need to "collect data about their teaching, examine their attitudes, beliefs, assumptions, and teaching practices, and use the information obtained as a basis for critical reflection about teaching" (p. 1).

3.5.2. PD as a transformative process

How professional growth changes teachers has also been the focus studies reviewed. Based on the written narratives of a language teacher, Pinho (2015) recently reported how this language teacher (re)constructed of her self-image as a teacher thanks to her involvement in a project on plurilingual and intercultural education. It was found that the teacher's involvement in the project's collaborative learning atmosphere positively influenced her professional growth. She had the opportunity to revise her pedagogical and didactic knowledge and became aware of the fact that she needs to reconstruct and update her knowledge. She realized that she needed a transformation to try out new teaching practices. Another study by Xu (2013) on PD's contribution on transformation investigated professional identity change of novice EFL teachers during their first year of teaching. Based on interviews, reflective journals by participants and classroom observations, the researcher found that novice teachers experience drastic transformation from their imagined identities to practiced identities as teacher. The negative change of identities

can stem from institutional pressures. The author suggested that novice teacher participation in PD activities can provide them with the opportunities to have a positive evolution of imagined identities.

3.5.3. Role of collaboration and cooperation in PD

Cooperation in PD is found to be mostly discussed issue in the studies reviewed. It was highlighted that if PD activities were designed, developed and implemented in a collaborative way, this would increase the quality of PD experience. Cooperation needs to be considered both in macro and micro levels; it can be between teachers, teachers and mentors, employing bodies, school administrators, educational institutions, governments etc. It can be a small group having a professional dialogue, a teacher and a peer-coach discussing, or a larger group of international teachers from all around the world sharing at a conference. Here are a few example studies reporting the significance of cooperation in PD. To begin with, in their recent study, Mann and Tang (2012) found that engagement and interaction with mentors were seen by novice teachers as useful for their professional support and development. Martin-Beltran and Peercy's (2014) study looked at how a university–school district partnership involving a five-month professional development (PD) series for 26 teachers from 11 different schools contributed to their professional growth. As the authors state "Teacher collaboration served as a way for teachers to externalize their thinking and learning… As teachers used and created shared artefacts, they were able to articulate, re-name and re-conceptualize their own knowledge about teaching, which demonstrated ongoing learning" (Martin-Beltran & Peercy, 2014, p. 732-733).

He, Prater, and Steed (2011) conducted a study in which 22 language teachers participated in 46 hours of PD. The authors collected data from the participants teachers on their evaluation of the PD sessions. They concluded by stating that cooperation between teacher educators, administrators and all teachers is a must to have effective PD. Meng and Tajaroensuk (2013) carried out a study to investigate the problems that EFL teachers at universities had in their in-service professional development. They reported that collaboration of teachers in their in-service professional development is beneficial and highlighted the advantage of team work compared to individual practice in PD.

3.5.4. INSETs as PD

Although not as common as cooperation in PD as a theme, in-service education and trainings (INSETs) have also been the focus of several studies reviewed. INSET is a practical activity for teachers to develop PD and skills

throughout education. It can take various forms of activities aimed at developing on-job experience and performance. INSET can both refer to general PD activities and "oneshot" training programs in which knowledge is usually transmitted by an outside expert (Craft, 1996).

INSET is an issue discussed in Turkish education system because an educational reform initiated in 1997 required to familiarize the inservice teachers with new curriculum. Therefore, a nationwide INSET series were carried out in this context. The effectiveness of these series has been the focus of a recent study by Uysal (2012). She found out that INSETs in Turkey has some shortcomings as PD activities because there is no systematic planning, and functional organizational structure. By collecting data from 72 English language teachers who took part in INSETs in Turkey, she found that the INSET series were effective and beneficial for the teachers because they present practical information, variety of techniques, and opportunities for teachers to share and reflect. However, there were shortcomings due to the lack of necessary planning, preparation and needs analysis.

Another study on INSETs by Yan and He (2015) discusses similar problems of INSETs from China. They report that in general INSET programs in their context are considered mundane and superficial. Thus, they conduct a similar study to find what teachers thought of short INSET programs and how they can be improved to foster better learning. The results showed that although teachers had high motivations to take part in INSET programs, their satisfaction level was low. Echoing the claim by Uysal (2012) aforementioned, the authors suggest that these PD programs need to have a systematic and comprehensive plan. To generate long term impacts, they should be changed to more practice-based and teacher-friendly activities from top-down, one-shot, and short trainings.

3.5.5. PD and Technology

The rapid integration of technology in education has also been experienced in teacher education and professional growth of teachers. One of the most prominent findings of this review is that studies on PD have begun to gear towards to the relationship between technology and PD. Advances in technology have led to the use of technological tools for teacher professional growth and created a new field referred as online professional development (OPD). How educators benefit technology in relation to PD activities has been under investigation of several studies in this review as well. Using technology to deliver trainings, creating online teacher support communities and networks, attending online webinars, workshops, conferences, subscribing to discussion

lists, reading academic publications, writing articles for online journals, conducting research via internet are some examples of PD activities with technology. It should be noted that studies under this theme are not focused on PD for/on technology (not helping teachers use technology) but PD with technology (PD through technology). Thus, the purpose of these studies is to see how technology-based PD activities are conducted and what teachers think of them. The findings are controversial in that some studies report that PD activities using technological tools are not preferred by teachers; whereas, there are studies reporting positive attitudes of teachers towards the use of internet for professional development.

As Lin (2015) stated, the popularization of information and communication technologies and internet has led to do PD programs in online environments. Although teachers might prefer face-to-face and conventional way of PD activities, it seems that online PD programs will continue to increase as time goes by. Based on data gathered from 83 teachers, Lin (2015) reported that

> "…the majority of EALD teachers are in favour of a mixed structure that combines the face-to-face components which involve synchronous interactions between the presenter/lecturer and the attendees and the asynchronous components such as video footage and textual web pages, because a PD programme of such a mixed structure would be more adaptive to the context, more supportive to professional networking and more flexible in terms of temporal arrangements." (Lin, 2015, p.541)

Rashid (2018) carried out a study with 34 English language teachers to find how a social media platform, Facebook, helped teachers to have supportive conversations in dialogic reflections. He reported that this experience of teachers via computer and internet sources contributed to the development of their professional lives because they enabled them to reflect on their teaching experiences. This was found to be a useful experience for their professional growth. Kabilan, Adlina and Embi's study (2011) also reports how a virtual classroom can help teachers experience meaningful professional development through online sharing, socializing, and collaboration. Gathering data from 142 English teachers who took part in a virtual classroom for fourteen weeks, they found that teachers found the project very useful and effective. They had the opportunity to engage in many online tasks with other teachers and this enriched their profession in many ways.

Alhabahba (2016) investigated the place and role of internet use by English teachers for professional development in Arab countries and found that

members of TESOL Arabia spent a considerable amount of time using the Internet for their professional development and had positive attitudes toward PD via internet. Internet has been found to contribute to expand experiences for career/promotion purposes, improve teaching skills, gain motivation, grow professionally, learn new skills related to ELT, share ideas/views with other teachers, facilitate thinking abilities, prepare self for innovation, be aware of the latest development in ELT, and remain interested in teaching.

In sum, as the studies reviewed show the integration of technology in PD is becoming a trending issue in the field of teacher professional development. Thanks to the advantages it brings such as being practical, time saving and up to date and appropriate for today's educational needs, online or technology-based PDs will be used more and more in time. Studies on collaboration and interaction of online teacher networks and support groups are emerging and their effects on teachers' professional growth seems to be the focus of many upcoming studies in the field.

4. Conclusion

This study aimed at reviewing current trends and issues on the topic of professional development for language teachers. Based on 33 studies published in journals indexed either in SSCI or ESCI between the years of 2010 and 2018, five main themes were identified as: PD as a reflective practice, PD as a transformative process, collaboration and cooperation in PD, INSETs as PD and technology and PD. There are a number of implications and future directions derived from this review. To begin with there is a call for taking CPD into consideration as a whole by stakeholders such as teacher(s)/educators and educational policy-makers who are the decisionmakers. PD should not be seen as an issue of teachers only. Both teachers, school administrators, and other related parties' total commitment, concentration and effort are required.

Teacher PD is facing with rapid change and demands of today's education system. There is no doubt that professional development needs will continue to expand in parallel with the changes in the world. Therefore, in order to have effective and upto date PDs, systematic, needs based, upto date and practical development tools are needed.

In 1990s, PD was considered as a matter of voluntary participation; however, this has changed and it has become an indispensable part of professional growth. More and more teachers are getting involved in PD activities all around the world and this has been also proven in this review. The studies were from

different countries and contexts which shows that PD is a more global and critical issue than it was in the past.

As suggested by several studies in this review, studies on PD will focus on the relationship of technology and professional growth. With the use of online platforms, tools and programs that aim professional development for teachers, future studies will focus on the effectiveness of such environments. Experiences of the design, plan and implementation of online PD tasks will shed light on future PD projects.

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Chapter 5

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and language teacher education

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Abstract

This chapter reviews research on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and language teacher education (LTE). To this end, it examines studies published from 2007 to today and groups them under four main categories regarding their subjects. The results show that the CEFR and complementary documents have been studied intensively in LTE from various perspectives including research agenda, policy and standardisation; perspectives of teachers, teacher trainers, and student teachers and the outcomes of the teacher education programs; European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages; and teacher competencies.

Keywords: CEFR; language teacher education; subjects; research methods; findings

1. Introduction

The Council of Europe (CoE) have been working on securing unity across nations and cultures of Europe. Acknowledging that a crucial step for unity begins with developing a mutual understanding and respect, it promotes foreign language learning and teaching to raise plurilingual and pluricultural Europeans. For this purpose, the CoE introduced the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)* to disseminate its foreign language teaching and learning policy. The CoE and the CEFR provide an opportunity to create a new "European language domain" that encourages all countries to "defend multiculturalism and promote one another's languages" (Bonnet, 2007, p. 670). In this sense, the CEFR has changed the way "how foreign languages are taught, learnt and evaluated in Europe" (Barenfanger & Tschirner, 2008, p. 82), and it has been well-accepted as a standardised framework and guideline. In this paper, we examine studies focusing on the CEFR and the complementary documents of it to understand from which perspective researchers deal with the CEFR regarding LTE.

The CEFR as a general framework defines the philosophy of language teaching and learning in Europe. It constitutes an identifying scheme to examine the components of language learning with an action-oriented approach and determines "communicative proficiency" in six stages. It outlines communicative functions learners should achieve at different proficiency levels, but it does not dictate the grammatical forms they should improve for performing those functions (Little, 2007). Instead, it promotes cultural diversity, self-assessment and learner autonomy along with the communicative functions. As a course of action, the CEFR defines general competencies (knowledge, skills and know-how, existential competence and ability to learn) and communicative language competences (linguistic, pragmatic, socio-linguistic, and sociocultural) in four categories as receptive, productive, interactive and mediative that are presented in four domains as personal, public, occupational, and educational language use (CoE, 2001; Little, 2007). The principle behind the CEFR is to protect the less commonly used and taught languages and to preserve the plurilingual and pluricultural structure of Europe where the citizens are encouraged to learn two other languages. It also aims to promote cooperation among the professionals in the field of modern languages in Europe, and it brings a collective understanding and acknowledgement of "language education practices in different educational systems" (Mirici & Kavaklı, 2017).

Professional development (PD) of language teachers naturally focuses on teaching and assessing language proficiency according to the CEFR (Bonnet, 2007). Thus, the CoE encouraged follow-up studies and research groups after the publication of the CEFR. As a result of this process, two complementary documents, namely *European Profile for Language Teacher Education (EPLTE)* built on the findings of the European Language Teacher Project (Grenfell, Kelly, & Jones 2003), and *European Portfolio for Student-Teachers of Languages (EPOSTL)* were presented to teacher trainers and policymakers as a guideline to improve LTE. The EPLTE presents itself as a "voluntary frame of reference" which is not mandatory but suggestive for policy makers and teacher educators to "adapt to their existing programs and needs". It is a source for teacher education policymakers at the institutional, national or European level, and it also addresses teacher educators who wish to make their trainees to be acquainted with European endeavours in the area of LTE. It is composed of forty items in four sections such as *structure*, *knowledge and understanding*, *strategies and skills*, and *values*, and they describe essential features of foreign language teacher education (FLTE) in Europe as a reference (EPLTE Report, 2002). The EPOSTL, on the other hand, is similar to the European Language

Portfolio (ELP) assisting language learners to track their language development, and aims at encouraging students teachers to reflect on their "didactic knowledge" and "skills necessary to teach languages". Thus, it is a reflection, assessment and monitoring device for teacher candidates to track their development as future teachers of languages (Newby et al., 2007). It includes three main sections such as *personal statement* where student-teachers (STs) reflect on general questions related to teaching, *self-assessment* where STs reflect and self-assess their competencies as teacher candidates through the "can-do" descriptors, and *dossier* where STs can record their progress. It is based on the CEFR, ELP and EPLTE.

Numerous studies are focusing on the CEFR and the complementary documents aforementioned from various perspectives. While some of those studies are critical of the CEFR's descriptives or the rationale behind it, many studies focus on other issues such as the relationship between the CEFR and standard scoring of various tests, use of the CEFR in setting university entrance standards, scoring validities of the CEFR-based rating scales, relation between the CEFR and educational policies in different countries in and out of Europe, and the relationship of the CEFR and learner identity. Although, these are all valuable studies to be included for a comprehensive review of the CEFR and its effect, within the scope of this chapter we only focused on the studies that centred on the CEFR and the LTE.

2. Method

This study aims at reviewing the existing studies on the CEFR and LTE regarding the subject of the studies, the methods used, and the results presented. To this end, the researchers first decided which journals and articles to include in the study. Thus, articles indexed in Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI), Emerging Sources Citation Index (ESCI), ERIC, and TUBITAK ULAKBIM were included in the study. After the initial search with the keywords, we reached very few studies in those indexes. Hence, Academic Search Complete and Scopus were also included in the second round of the search.

"Common European Framework of Reference for Languages", "CEFR", "language teacher education", "teacher education", "teacher training", "European profile", and "EPOSTL" were used as keywords for article titles, and topic sections to find the relevant studies. Book reviews and editorial notes were excluded, and only those published in peer-reviewed journals were included. As a result of this search, thirty research articles comprised the corpus

of the research. The researchers analysed each article based on their abstract, methodology, findings and discussions.

3. How Studies Approach to the CEFR and LTE

When we group the studies according to their approach to the CEFR and LTE, four categories appear. Nine articles in the first group focus on *LTE programs regarding research agenda, policy and standardisation*. The second group evaluates the *perspectives of teachers, teacher trainers, and student-teachers, and the outcomes of the teacher education programs*. There are eight articles in this group. The third group including eight articles focus specifically on *EPOSTL* from different perspectives. Five studies in the fourth group focus on *teacher competence* from various perspectives including language competence of teachers and teacher candidates as well as other competencies such as computer-mediated communication (CMC).

3.1. Studies on LTE Programs regarding Research Agenda, Policy and Standardisation

The oldest of those articles dates back to 2010. While four of them focus on LTE policies and programs in Turkey (one comparatively) concerning the effect of the CoE, European Union (EU) and the CEFR, other articles focus on teacher education and the CEFR.

Ceylan & Yorulmaz (2010) focuses on the effects of the globalisation and EU policies on foreign language teaching and FLTE policies in Turkey. Although there is other profound research about Turkey's language policies such as Kırkgöz (2007, 2009) and Incecay (2012), those are not included in this review article since the scope is limited to LTE and the CEFR. Similarly, Mahalingappa & Polat (2013) investigated English language teacher education (ELTE) in Turkey from two contending perspectives; "current second language teaching standards and research vs Turkey's Higher Education Council (HEC) mandates" (p. 371). The study explores the views of the program directors about the current situation of the programs. Mirici (2015) is very comprehensive and informative in this respect. Moving from the standardisation and dissemination policies of Europe in language learning, teaching and FLTE, he presents a brief overview of the CEFR, ELP and EPOSTL as part of the standardisation process, and later portrays the situation in Turkey. The study carried out by Altmisdort (2016) is complementary of Mirici (2015) and aims to "analyse and discuss the similarities and differences between English language teacher educational programs at universities in

Turkey, and to identify the undergraduate students' ideas about their curriculum" (p. 213). It also compares ELTE programs in Turkey with countries that have higher English language proficiency based on EF English Language Proficiency Index.

Five other studies in this group discuss FLTE in an international context. Scott-Monkhouse (2013), concentrating on standardisation process in primary school teacher education with a focus on foreign language teaching and language competence of the teachers, portrays how the profession of foreign language teacher has developed in Italy. With a similar perspective, Enever (2014) compares primary English teacher education in Europe by reviewing "current mechanisms in Europe aimed at supporting the provision of quality language teacher preparation courses" and considering "their weakness with regard to the needs of primary teachers" (p.231). It draws its data from a project including the comparisons of teacher education provisions in seven European countries. Two other studies in this group; Diestro-Fernandez (2014) and Karatsiori (2016) approach to the standardisation and integration of LTE in Europe from a broader perspective. Moving from the challenges that European integration project is facing, such as the recent economic crisis in European countries, Diestro-Fernandez (2014) discusses possible solutions to the crisis which would revive from the "idea of including a European Dimension in education". It might adopt a four action-point including "curricular and teaching materials, the creation of school networks and extracurricular activities, initial and ongoing teacher training, and styles of centre management, leadership and administration" (p. 48). Karatsiori (2016), on the other hand, approaches to European integration in education based on the EPLTE. She makes a comparative analysis of the academic curricula for teacher education for French language teachers in 25 member states of The European Centre for Modern Languages to identify best practices concerning the four sections of the EPLTE, and recommends to improve the academic curricula to enhance cooperation among the stakeholders in designing LTE policies.

In the last article in this section, Arnott et al. (2017) introduce a research agenda for future studies that would focus on the use of the CEFR in plurilingual Canada. The authors highlight three areas of emphasis regarding the use of the CEFR in the Canadian context. These are K-12 education and the use of the CEFR with the learners, initial teacher education, and postsecondary language learning context. The authors propose future research perspectives by considering "how policymaking, language teaching and language learning are articulated across" those areas (p. 31).

3.2. Studies focusing on Perspectives of Teachers, Teacher Trainers and Student-Teachers and the Outcomes of the Teacher Education Programs

There are eight articles in this section approaching teacher education programs from various aspects. While some of those articles present the perspectives of teachers, teacher trainers and student-teachers regarding the current situation of the teacher education programs they graduated, working or studying; other studies in this category directly or indirectly portray the outcomes of the teacher education programs along with the perspectives of their participants.

Kır (2011) focuses on teacher trainers' view on FLTE based on European standards. Considering the CEFR's approach to foreign language learning and teaching, Kır (2011) investigates "the applications of teacher trainers" and "the applications at the institutions" that teachers work. She also tries to understand "the views of teacher trainers on FLTE based on the CEFR" (p. 807). A similar study is conducted on student-teachers by Hismanoglu (2013) who adapted the data collection tool of Kır (2011) in his context. He tried to understand whether the ELTE curriculum, at the time of the implementation of the study, promoted CEFR awareness among student-teachers of English or not.

As for the outcomes of the teacher education programs, Sahinkarakas, Inozu & Yumru (2010) investigates "whether and to what extent the learning outcomes are achieved" by the student-teachers studying in ELTE programs at two Turkish universities at their final year. They applied two frameworks, namely EPLTE and Turkey's Council of Higher Education (CoHE) competencies to define and discuss those learning outcomes regarding the contributions of in and out-of-class experiences of the student-teachers to their learning. Following the study of Sahinkaras, Inozu & Yumru (2010), various other studies also discussed the outcomes of LTE programs in Turkey from different perspectives. For instance, Çelik (2013) analysed the development of plurilingual and pluricultural competence in ELTE programs. He tried to explore the understanding of Turkish teachers of English regarding the implication of plurilingual and pluricultural competence, and he also investigated whether the teachers believe the standard curriculum for ELTE promote the development of these competencies. In another study, Kahraman (2015), moving from a sample of ELTE program in central Turkey, investigated the course catalogues of the program regarding its alignment with EPLTE and interviewed teacher educators to understand whether the program promotes teacher autonomy; as one of the aspects that is highlighted in the profile.

Ozdemir-Yılmazer and Ozkan (2017), on the other hand, reveals the teachers' belief at the tertiary level on the assessment of speaking skills. Although this study does not directly focus on the issue of FLTE, it has implications for the training of teacher candidates on classroom assessment as well as the need for PD in the assessment of speaking.

Two other studies that we would mention here are examples from the international context. Hennebry (2014) investigates the issue of language learning and European citizenship by understanding teachers' views on the teaching of European citizenship and their perceptions about their roles in it. Doly et al. (2017), on the other hand, focus on teachers' experiences, knowledge and perspectives on ELP in the Spanish context. Although the respondents participated in this study were not all language teachers, the study gives some ideas about the integration of the teaching of ELP in teacher education programs in the Spanish context.

3.3. Studies Focusing on the EPOSTL

There are eight articles in this section that focus on the EPOSTL in LTE. However, their approach to the EPOSTL varies. Two of these studies; Burkert & Schwienhorst (2008) and Cakır & Balcıkanlı (2012) investigate the EPOSTL regarding teacher autonomy. Burkert & Schwienhorst (2008) discusses the function of the EPOSTL as a tool to develop teacher autonomy. First, it presents detailed information about the rationale behind the portfolio, and the structure and the components of it, and later prose a criticism of the portfolio. Cakır & Balcıkanlı (2012), on the other hand, presents the use of the EPOSTL from a practical perspective by reflecting the voices of student teachers and teacher trainers regarding the use of it in pre-service LTE at a Turkish state university. A study carried out by Newby (2012) is very comprehensive and reflecting the "good practices" of the EPOSTL in LTE. "Drawing on the experiences of users of the EPOSTL", the author demonstrates how the portfolio could be used for "fostering teacher autonomy, supporting a reflective mode in teacher education, underpinning of rationales and approaches to learning and teaching, making the scope and aims of teacher education transparent, helping to make competences explicit, providing a tool for self-assessment, and supporting coherence in teaching practice" (p. 210).

Cindric, Andraka, & Bilic-Stefan (2015) portrays the results of an investigation into the use of the profile as part of "the Integrated Undergraduate and Graduate University Programme of Study of Primary Education and The English Language at the Faculty of Teacher Education in

Zagreb"(p. 117). Analysing the ELT methodology courses, the study presents students' perceived usefulness of EPOSTL for identifying specific areas of improvement. They also portrayed students' opinions about the particular features of the EPOSTL. Two other studies in this group also portray the views regarding the use of EPOSTL. Mirici & Hergüner (2015) compares student-teachers' self-assessment scores in English Language Teaching (ELT) and German Language Teaching (GLT) departments at a Turkish state university. It used "an EPOSTL-based self-assessment checklist to record and reflect" on the achievements of the student-teachers in the methodology courses of their departments (p.3). It also tried to understand how student teachers appreciated the use of the EPOSTL as a standard self-assessment tool in ELT and GLT departments in a comparable way. Seitova (2017) investigated the views of in-service teachers for the use of the EPOSTL to promote professional development in in-service teaching. In the same vein, Su Bergil & Sarıçoban (2017) applied an adapted Likert-type scale version of the EPOSTL to evaluate the self-efficacy levels of the prospective senior teachers of English studying at a state university in Turkey.

Arıkan (2016) examines the potential practical use of the EPOSTL in Turkey. The study adopts a critical look into the EPOSTL and discusses "the value of EPOSTL…in teacher education programs in Turkey…with a focus on the probable challenges associated with applying it in English language teacher education programs in Turkey" (p. 76). Thus, Burkert & Schwienhorst (2008) and Arıkan (2016) could be evaluated together to understand how the research and criticism of the use of EPOSTL have changed in years.

3.4. Studies Focusing on Teacher Competence

There are five articles in this section that we found related to the CEFR regarding teacher competence and LTE. Sesek (2007) investigated target language needs of EFL teachers in Slovenia between 2003-2005. The study, based on the reports from various countries, portrays the insufficiency of target language competence in EFL teachers, and it is grounding itself on the CEFR as a model to describe the language needs of the teachers in and out- of the classroom. The issue of language proficiency seems to be the primary concern for teacher competence that Herrera-Masquera & Tover-Perdomo (2017) and Freeman (2017) also carried out their research on the same issue almost ten years after Sesek (2007). Moving from the problem that the majority of the teacher candidates at EFL programs in Colombian context cannot achieve the required C1 level of competence at the institutional English exam (IT), Herrera-Masquera & Tover-Perdomo (2017) investigated the personal and academic

factors that might affect the development of L2 competence in teacher candidates. Meanwhile, Freeman(2017) adopts a critical perspective towards the role of teachers' language competence and argues that general English proficiency does not necessarily "address the type of classroom language teachers need in order to teach" (p. 31). Hence, the discussion centres on *English-for-teaching* as part of English for specific purposes methodology.

O'Dowd (2015), on the other hand, defines teacher competence from the perspective of the ability "to integrate and exploit computer-mediated communication (CMC) in the foreign language classroom" as suggested by the EPLTE and EPOSTL (p. 63). The study portrays a model of competence for telecollaboration as a form of CMC and introduces an online platform reflecting the competencies of the telecollaborative teacher. Su Bergil & Sarıçoban (2017) focus on the assessment of prospective teachers' competences and suggest the European Profiling Grid (EPG) as an alternative document for the assessment of teacher competence. The EPG includes thirteen categories including various descriptors for assessing teacher competence in different areas ranging from knowledge and skills in methodology to administrative duties, teamwork and teachers' commitment to professional growth. The authors, working with various stakeholders, try to understand whether the EPG is a reliable document to be used for teacher education, and the profile of the prospective teachers in relation to the EPG.

4. Research Methods Used in Studies on CEFR and LTE

Studies on the CEFR and LTE applied various research designs and data collection tools depending on their approach and focus on the subject. Studies in section 3.1 mostly applied qualitative research design. Three of them used a mixed method research design to triangulate their results and support their discussions. They mostly preferred document analysis as a qualitative data collection procedure. Semi-structured interviews with the stakeholders, forum discussion and scales are among other data collection tools used. The scales were also adapted to quantise the qualitative data in mix-method-studies.

The number of the qualitative and quantitative studies in section 3.2 is equal. Four of them applied scales/questionnaires. Semi-structured interviews were also preferred by four of the studies here. One study used document analysis, while one study used classroom observation and repertory grid techniques to reveal the personal constructs of the participants.

In section 3.3 majority of the studies are qualitative, and they used document analysis and interviews to collect their data. Some studies that applied a mixed-

method design used questionnaires to quantise their data. Adapted Likert-type scales are preferred means of data collection for the studies employing quantitative approach.

Qualitative research is also preferred much by studies in section 3.4. One of the studies applied mixed-method research design. Interviews, questionnaires/scales, and document analysis are mostly used in this section. There is only one study that applied classroom-observation.

5. Findings of the Studies on CEFR and LTE

When the results of the studies in section 3.1. were analysed holistically, it is seen that they highlight a need for a (European) standardization as well as the consideration of the local/national context while designing the LTE programs (e.g. Arnott et al., 2017 for Canadian context; Ceylan & Yorulmaz, 2010; Enever, 2014; Karatsiori, 2016; Scott-Monkhouse, 2013). Some of those studies present the homogeneity of the content of the national teacher education programs as a challenge to comply with the standards and trends in the world (Altmişdört, 2016; Mahalingappa & Polat, 2013). The content of those programs is usually determined by central institutions such as the CoHE in Turkey, which leaves little room for teachers, and program directors to change the content according to the needs of their students. This problem seems to be related to the national education policies of the countries, and although necessary changes to the policies have been applied theoretically to integrate CEFR and complementary documents into LTE, practical problems exist in the implementation of those documents in national (e.g. Mirici, 2015) and international context (e.g. Enever, 2014). Some of the studies highlight the importance of cooperation and willingness among the national governments and member states to create a unified teacher education policy while protecting the diversity of each state (e.g. Diestro-Fernandez, 2014; Enever, 2014; Karatsiori, 2016).

Studies in this section also have implications regarding the quality of the content of the teacher education programs and teacher/faculty competencies. Mahalingappa & Polat (2013) portrays that the little flexibility provided by the CoHE for the program design cannot be used appropriately because the content of the courses that are not mandated by the CoHE is usually defined not according to students' needs and expectations but according to the faculty composition (p.378). It means that the faculty members offer courses they think they are capable of delivering, and some of those courses might be irrelevant to LTE. Another issue is related to how those courses are delivered.

Interviews with student-teachers portray that the course content in teacher education programs are usually theoretical and do not offer much practice (Altmışdört, 2016). The author compares the result to the ELTE programs of five European countries, and states that "there is a clear division of labour between the teaching of theory and teaching practice; pedagogical and educational subjects are given together; teacher education is based on not only theory but also research; and the investment in new technologies takes an important place in language education" in those countries (p. 221). Mahalingappa & Polat (2013) also portrays program directors' thinking that teacher candidates studying at ELT programs cannot benefit from the program as expected because of their language limitation.

The studies in section 3.2 suggest the integration and inclusion of the CEFR and complementary documents for standardisations in teacher education programs, continuous PD and in-service training in LTE. Some of those studies indicate the integration of the CEFR in their program content and highlight how the CEFR is successfully implemented (e.g. Hismanoglu, 2013; Kır, 2011). Teacher autonomy and European citizenship (EC) are also emphasised in some studies. While Kahraman (2015) found that teacher education program that she investigated supports the development of teacher autonomy from many aspects, Hennebry (2014) addresses the issue of EC as an essential aspect of LTE. Based on some of the limitations of the participants with the concept of EC, the study suggests a systematic and embedded adaptation of EPLTE in teacher education programs to clearly define what teaching of EC should include in terms of learning outcomes, and to show how EC could be integrated into teaching through course materials, networks of foreign language teachers, and other curricular activities.

Çelik (2013) demonstrates teachers' lack of awareness of plurilingualism and pluriculturalism at the elementary level. In the same vein as EC is presented as an essential aspect of the CEFR and EPLTE, Çelik (2013) discusses how teacher education programs -in-service training as well- in Turkey have little contribution to the development of plurilingualism and pluriculturalism awareness. Although the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) aims to promote those competencies as a policy, the practical applicability of this policy seems to be unavailable.

The discrepancy between the theory and practice is highlighted in Sahinkarakas, Inozu & Yumru (2010) from a different viewpoint. The study reveals that student teachers attributed the development of theoretical knowledge, practical skills, and strategies to the curriculum, course

requirements and peer-related activities. They did not refer to other curricular and extracurricular activities such as workshops, seminars, student clubs and ICT work as contributors to their learning, although they are theoretically suggested as essential contributors to LTE in EPLTE.

Two other studies in this category, Ozdemir-Yılmazer & Ozkan (2017) and Dooly et al. (2017) portray the assessment perspectives of teachers and the familiarity with ELP respectively. Ozdemir-Yılmazer & Ozkan (2017) states that the assessment culture in Turkey is mostly based on student output and participation, hence undervalue the progress in student development which is highlighted in the CEFR and the complementary documents. The study suggests "an urgent need for professional development in speaking assessment" (p.388). Similarly, Dooly et al. (2017) portrays that majority of the teachers seem to feel "insufficiently informed about European Language Portfolio", and they indicated "a general lack of interest" (p. 71), although the use of this document is stressed in many educational policy documents of Europe.

The studies in section 3.3 reveal different findings regarding the use of EPOSTL in LTE. Some studies depict results supporting the use of EPOSTL as a tool for self-reflection and self-assessment for teaching competencies or self-efficacy (e.g. Cakır & Balçıkanlı, 2012; Seitova, 2017; Su Bergil & Sarıçoban, 2017). Newby (2012) and Cindric, Andraka and Bilic-Stefan (2015) portray the good practices in the use of the EPOSTL, and how it could be presented as a more beneficial tool for LTE by integrating it into the various phases of teaching/learning activities in the programs. Some studies investigate awareness of student-teachers about the EPOSTL, and they present similar results. For instance, Cindric, Andraka and Bilic-Stefan (2015) portrays that senior student-teachers are more aware of the EPOSTL regarding its usefulness in developing teaching competence when other student teachers at the early years of the teacher education program are not much aware of it. Mirici and Hergüner (2015) also reveal the motivation and interest of senior student-teachers on the use of the EPOSTL. The study also portrays the EPOSTL as an excellent model of standardised assessment in LTE. Seitova (2017) puts forward supporting findings regarding the use of the EPOSTL with in-service teachers. In this study, the use of the EPOSTL made teachers to realise their strengths and weaknesses in teaching various language skills such as grammar, speaking, writing and reading.

Two studies in this section present a critical perspective towards the EPOSTL. For instance, Burkert and Schiewienhorst (2008) highlight the

limitations of the EPOSTL regarding the portfolio's lack of levels with a large number of descriptors without any global achievement scales (p. 246). Similarly, Arıkan (2016) suggests changes to the content of the portfolio since it seems problematic with the limited context it addresses, the nature and the load of the descriptors, vagueness on the descriptors' content, and the physical limitations regarding the conditions of LTE classrooms in Turkey.

Studies in section 3.4 have interesting results regarding teacher competency and proficiency. Herrera-Masquera and Tover-Perdomo (2017) discuss general English language proficiency of teacher candidates in Colombian context. The study defines the factors that affect language proficiency of the student-teachers as personal and academic aspects. Accordingly, personal aspects include innate aptitude, desire to travel to countries where the target language is spoken as a native language, and learning strategies which include out-of-class habits/activities and exposure to the culture either as experiences in foreign countries or via the out-of-class habits. Academic aspects include the effects of educational foundations such as the type of primary education, secondary education and other studies, independent learning strategies and influence of the teacher and class regarding motivation. Sesek (2007) and Freeman (2017) adopt a different approach to language proficiency of teachers by differentiating general English proficiency and classroom language competence for teaching. Sesek (2007) defines various language needs of EFL teachers such as speaking as the most crucial skills followed by reading, writing and listening. She also defines desired language competencies such as grammatical competence, lexical competence, phonological competence, sociolinguistic competence, and pragmatic competence of teachers. She reveals that teachers at different levels of teaching have various desired target language proficiency at different competency areas. Similarly, Freeman (2017) advocates for specific language support for teachers with "English-for-teaching construct" (p. 39). Supporting an idea that debunks "native-speakerism" promoting native speakers as the ultimate model for language proficiency, Freeman (2017) asserts the idea that teachers are "native" to classroom, therefore English-for-teaching courses might provide "equitable professional development opportunities to improve teachers' classroom English proficiency" in various contexts (pp. 49-50).

Su Bergil and Sarıçoban (2017) focuses on teacher competency from the perspective of assessing it through a standardised tool similar to the EPOSTL. The study, presenting the evaluation of student-teachers in various competency areas such as training and qualification, professionalism and teaching experience from the perspectives of mentors, course supervisors and

registration supervisors, portrays EPG as an alternative for student teacher assessment by highlighting the weaknesses of student-teachers in various competency areas.

O'Dowd (2015) presents a professional competency for using CMC to enhance intercultural competence with the concept of telecollaborative teacher- who is defined as a teacher that can use telecollaboration successfully and effectively. Acknowledging that a short training course might not be sufficient for training teachers for telecollaboration, the author introduces an online platform that could be used for the training of the in-service teachers and for reaching materials, samples and other documents for telecollaboration.

6. Conclusion

In this chapter, we investigated a total of thirty articles on the CEFR and LTE that comply with our criteria. It is seen that the studies reflect various aspects of the topic ranging from LTE regarding setting research agenda, policy and standardisation to student-teachers and teacher competencies. It is observed that qualitative research design was the most preferred method for the studies (19 studies) followed by mixed-method research design (6 studies) and quantitative studies (5 studies). As for their data collection tools, studies mostly preferred document analysis, followed by interviews and scales/questionnaires. Other techniques such as classroom observation and forum discussions were not preferred much.

All in all, it could be stated while studies appreciate the standardisation and integration process of Europe in LTE through the CEFR and complementary documents such as the EPOSTL and the EPLTE, they also portray various limitations regarding the dissemination of those documents, theoretical or methodological problems of the documents, and cooperation between stakeholders for setting standards. The studies also reflect issues on improving the quality of teacher education programs and in-service teacher education, and ensuring teacher competencies defined in various documents. Based on this observation, it might be suggested that more research is needed, especially with a mixed-method approach to understand the concept of the CEFR and LTE from a broader perspective. Studies using forum discussions and classroom-observations might also be increased to include more voices and views from the stakeholders and other actors in LTE programs for a better standardisation and integration in LTE.

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Chapter 6

Language teacher mentoring: A review of studies from 2001 to 2017

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Abstract

A review of publications on language teacher mentoring is the subject of this chapter. The focus are the accounts of research studies published in the years between 2001 and 2007 in five peer-reviewed journals in which mentoring was a centre of attention. The chapter identifies four strands in the analysed mentoring research: (1) mentoring practice and its effects; (2) the process of becoming a mentor; (3) approaches and models of mentoring, and (4) perceptions and beliefs about mentoring. It is hoped that through this review contemporary trends in the area of language teacher mentoring will be uncovered, and some other issues related to mentoring, including future research directions, will be highlighted.

Keywords: mentoring; mentor teachers; mentors; language teacher education

1. Introduction

The concept of mentoring is not unanimously understood. Although definitions of teacher mentoring vary (Malderez, 2009), the term is usually used to refer to "a process whereby teachers/more capable teachers help each other to learn by providing each other with professional and emotional support" (Nguyen, 2017, p. 29-30). Mentoring has become an increasingly important topic in language teacher education as more and more attention is being placed on those who are at the beginning of their teaching careers (e. g. Farrell, 2008; 2016) and whose professional challenges could, perhaps, be mitigated with the help of a teacher mentor (Delaney, 2012).

The present study is a principled review. It was motivated by our wish to explore the burgeoning body of teacher mentoring research, make sense of the findings on teacher mentoring, and suggest ideas for further research. The survey focuses on twenty-two research papers which were subjected to a rigorous review process and published in refereed journals from 2001 to 2017. The studies were situated in geographically and educationally diverse preservice

and in-service contexts, and present different conceptual, methodological, and ideological orientations to mentoring.

The chapter starts with the selection of the journals included in this review. Then, it presents and discusses the results of the selected article studies in terms of the four domains that have been identified: (1) mentoring practice and its effects; (2) the process of becoming a mentor; (3) approaches and models of mentoring, (4) perceptions and beliefs about mentoring. Finally, implications for mentoring and future research are considered.

2. Data collection

The article search was conducted with the use of a keyword-based procedure available for the online library system of the Pomeranian University in Słupsk, Poland. The sought after articles were those published between 2001 and 2017 which used the word "mentoring" or "mentor" in the title of an article, or the enumerated keywords which were placed under the title. If a tentative article was available in electronic form, its suitability was confirmed by our independent reading of the article. When the article was considered suitable by both of us, we included it in this review. What we especially looked for was the focus on language teaching, irrespective of the context in which it took place. In two cases (Jaspers et al., 2014; Richter et al., 2013), however, we intentionally included the studies which did not examine mentoring and language teachers exlusively, but referred to general education literature. The resason was that both of the contributions focused on the aspects of mentoring which are by no means absent from language teachers' experiences. The former reported on the effects of mentoring on teacher efficacy, enthusiasm, beliefs about learning, emotional exhaustion, and job satisfaction whereas the latter investigated the perceived possibilities and challenges that mentor teachers in primary education experience when they simultaneously combine the two roles: of a teacher and that of a mentor.

Initially, we agreed on selecting twenty-four articles but then compromised on eliminating the two of them (Delaney, 2012; Orland-Barak, 2014). Both of the rejected articles themselves provided syntheses of research projects on mentoring rather than reports on original studies, and thereby offered no insight interesting to us in this chapter. As a result, this review includes twenty-two articles which were published in the following six journals, with the number of the selected articles in the brackets: *Teaching and Teacher Education (15), Foreign Language Annals (2), System (2), TESOL Quarterly (1), TESOL Journal (1), Procedia – Social and Behavioural Sciences (1).*

3. Focal points

As noted, the examination of the twenty-two research articles that matched the topic of language teacher mentoring discussed here seem to point to four distinctive themes: (1) mentoring practice and its effects; (2) the process of becoming a mentor; (3) approaches and models of mentoring, (4) perceptions and beliefs about mentoring. These four focal points serve as the categories with reference to which the selected studies on mentoring *vis-a-vis* language teaching are discussed below.

3.1. Mentoring practice

The reviewed papers in the first category are the most legion. It seems that the substance of mentoring practice and its effects occupy a lot of attention of mentoring researchers. There is no doubt that mentoring as a form of teacher education is considered useful and most teachers who have experienced it view it in positive terms. Yet, the studies conducted on the mentoring practice reflect its two sides: mentoring that leads to positive effects on language teachers, and mentoring that may produce pernicious effects in the teachers' professional careers. Let us discuss the two groups of results now.

3.1.1. Positive effects

Positive effects of dfifferent forms of mentoring practice were found in six research studies. For example, Kissau and King (2015) argue that peer mentoring among graduate students, including lateral entry teachers (those who have not completed their formal qualifications yet), can be a beneficial experience for both those who are mentors and those who are mentees. Employing Lickert-style items, open-ended survey questions, semi-structured interviews, and in-depth reflective accounts, the authors suggest that the mentoring relationship is facilitated when both partners share certain commonalities, such as content area specialization, age, even teaching experience. If the mentoring relationship is additionally self-initiated rather than imposed, a dramatic transformation, from self-doubt to leadership for mentors, and from self-doubt to improvement in lesson design and classroom management for mentees, seems to take place.

Another example of positive mentoring practice could be the employment of a Lesson Study approach. Working with eight student groups involving 27 student teachers and 8 mentor teachers in a Business-As-Usual condition (control group) and analogous eight student groups involving 28 student

teachers and 9 mentor teachers in a Lesson Study approach (intervention group), Helgevod et al. (2015) discovered that the dominant topics of all mentoring converstions were instruction and organization. That said, they argue that Lesson Study frameworks prove to be more inquiry-based, produce more quality teaching than curriculum delivering, and generated more collaboration towards directing attention to pupils rather than 'doing' practical things in the classroom.

Still another research project which contributed to finding what was effective in mentoring is Batt's (2010) quantitative and qualitative study whose purpose was monitoring the effectiveness of coaching with the introduction of the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocole (SIOP) framework. The employment of Lickert-based questionnaires, tests, surveys and open-ended interviews enabled the author to make claims about the benefits of formal coaching. The study revealed that workshops with coaches produced strong commitment to the coaching model in mentees, whereas the implementation of the same model without a coaching phase turned out disappointing. The findings indicate that time should be allocated for coaching with observation and feedback as key features, thanks to which teachers make changes. It is vital, however, that the coach assists teachers to reflect and self-determine their behaviours, limiting his or her role to that of an empowerer rather than an expert performer.

An effective mentoring experience can also be provided by expert mentoring initiatives. Exposed to the Video-Recorded Performance Analysis, expert Teacher Observation and Critical Friendship mentoring initiatives, the novice L2 teachers in Karimi and Norouzi's (2017) study were investigated for their use of pedagogical thought units, the category which stood for collective thoughts, beliefs and theories underlying a language teacher's performance. The results show that having experienced this mentoring programme, the beginning teachers produced almost twice as many pedagogical thought units in their post-programme performance than they had done before the programme, increased fluency in articulating their thoughts, noted student behaviours more frequently and, making the tacit explicit, clearly made a transition towards a more 'experienced' cognitive functioning.

A team of German researchers (Richter et al., 2013) investigated the extent to which the quality and frequency of mentoring during the first five years of teaching impact on teachers' professional competence and well-being. The participants of the study were over 700 teachers who took part in pre-test/post-test quantitative study in the period of one year. The findings clearly show that

the quality of mentoring, not its frequency, produces a good teaching career start. According to the authors, a succesful model of mentoring should be constructivist rather than transmissive, as transmission-oriented mentoring only fosters transmissive beliefs in teachers, not their well-being. The authors call for more constructivist mentoring with less close guidance or interacton but more space for mentees' reflection and freedom to encourage them to explore teaching techniques on their own. Those mentors who provide assistance only if needed, prove to be more helpful and contribute to mentees' higher levels of efficacy, enthusiasm, and satisfaction than those who closely guide the beginning teachers.

The final research article reviewed in this section illustrates how the Professional Mentoring Program for Early Childhood Teachers is likely to build teacher confidence which, in turn, impacts on a teacher's professional capital. On the basis of 200-word statements of purpose provided by 221 mentees and 75 mentors in which their aspirations and understanding of mentoring were described, followed by pre-mentoring and post-mentoring programme evaluations, the authors report that there are considerable gains in the participating teachers' professional knowledge. This newly gained knowledge is related to the teachers' human capital (more confidence in skills, more confidence in helping others in the future, a validation of self-knowledge), social capital (more awareness of a mentee's 'blind spots', more confidence in instructionaal practices, more trusting relationships and collegiality), and decisional capital (less preoccupation with acountability in post-mentoring responses, more assertiveness, more aspiration to become an effective leader, belief in providing support in a non-judgemental way).

3.1.2. Negative effects

Noting the effectiveness of various mentoring initiatives presented in the studies above, this review would be incomplete if we failed to address the issue about how negative mentoring could sometimes turn out to be for prospective teachers. It transpires that teacher mentors, often unaware, may dismantle teacher candidates' ideal selves (Yuan, 2016), as well as influence their target language use (Bateman, 2008; Chambers, 2013).

As for the first claim, Yuan (2016) reveals that mentoring may impede pre-service teachers' identity formation. Investigating two participants through interviews, field observation and analyses of their reflective journals, the author argues that prospective teachers may give up their prior ideal identities (e.g. 'a communicative teacher') for the sake of 'feared identities' (e.g. 'a controlling

teacher teaching for the exam') if they are exposed to mentors who place strict limits on what and how language teaching should be like. The results show that there is often a disconnect between university teaching and teacher candidates' expectations on the one hand, and school reality and 'ought to' identities on the other.

One more problem attributed to mentoring teachers could be their influence on student teachers' target language use in the classroom. In his article from the beginning of the first decade of this century, Bateman (2008) maintains that mentor teachers are one of the factors affecting teacher candidates' decisions on using L2. If the target language use was customary for a mentor teacher in the study, or its lack thereof, the same practice was found in the mentees.

The mixed-methods based study conducted by Chambers (2013) seemed to confirm Bateman's (2008) results. What Chambers (2013) finds is the students teachers' adoption of the approach used by the school mentor and practising teachers, which is very often at odds with what was taught at university. In his article, a student teacher's sentence recommending that the target language should not be used – " 'If you want to get kids through an exam, you're best not using target language.' (Attributed to mentor by student teacher, SFG3R2, p. 51)" is very thought-provoking. Chambers' (2013) call for target language policy documentation deserves serious consideration, as well.

As can be seen from the studies related to the mentoring practice, its effects are not one-sided. On the whole, mentoring initiatives can be beneficial for both parties of the mentoring process, especially when they are performed on a voluntary basis and include the constructivist model of mentoring which promotes co-inquiry, reflection and student teachers' development of autonomy. Yet, the 'dark side' of mentoring with its negative effects may hinder future teachers' identity formations or their use of English in the classroom, if mentors' roles are not transparent enough. If this is the case, mentors may implement their own understanding of mentoring, e.g. sole transmission-based or exam-oriented teaching, which may consequently produce more harm than benefits for the construction of a teacher candidate's professional identity.

3.2. Becoming a mentor

The second category of the reviewed papers attempts to address the process of becoming a teacher mentor. The process seems complex and multifaceted, as the reviewed articles in this group suggest. On the basis of seven studies, their aims and obtained results, it can be concluded that the literature on learning to become a mentor in the period examined here, follows two strands.

Several researchers seem to suggest more normative and operationally-oriented solutions. For example, on the basis of her analysis of Sandi, a mentor teacher for new Russian immigrants who are teachers of English in Russia, Orland (2001) proposes five developmental themes emerging from her data: transferring the mentor's assumptions as a teacher to the mentoring context, comparing different mentoring contexts, analyzing how systemic conditions affect the practice of mentoring, developing awareness of how a mentor's own educational views influence her mentoring agenda, and analyzing how interpersonal, organizational and professional aspects of the mentoring context operate integratively. According to the author, these five stages enable a mentor to adequately learn "to read a mentoring situation" (p. 79), "break the process down into small steps" (p. 85) and "see the whole picture" (p. 85).

Drawing on Gee's (2001) construct of identity, which comprises the nature perspective (*the N-Identities*), the institutional perspective (*the I-Identities*), the discursive perspective (*the D-Identities*), and the affinity perspective (*the A-Identities*), Bullough (2005) argues that teacher-based mentoring should be related to teacher identity. Based on weekly e-mails, paired-peer interviews, paired-discussions, mentoring logs, and transcripts of a mentoring seminar, his study describes the conditions that would facilitate a school mentor's identity formation. An important result from this study is that school-based educators wish their mentoring work was acknowledged by university teachers through more conversations and contact based on 'belonging' to the same profession rather than only skill teaching. In a word, more access to other communities of practice held in high esteem, like university teachers, seems important for mentors at schools.

The other two studies in this category deal with the nature of work that mentors' practices involve, which are undoubtedly reponsible for making up a mentor. Orland-Barak & Hasin's (2010) case-study research project describes the practices of exemplary mentors which require organizational skills, interpersonal relationships, the integration of theory and practice, agreement to challenge and reflexivity. Koc's (2012) research study stresses the roles of cooperating teachers in the context of distance-learning language teacher education. Interestingly, the author proposes a new mentor's role (a self-trainer) which has not been addressed in the literature and to which mentors in distance learning are not trained.

The other group of researchers point to the challenges that becoming a mentor may involve. Using critical moments from the mentoring practice, Johnson (2003) points to the value of conflicting values and beliefs (including

religious beliefs). Following the analysis of her journal notes corroborated by teaching observations, she observed a change in her mentor's identity as far as her prior behaviours and relationships with others are concerned.

On the basis of retrospective semi-structured interviews, Jaspers et al. (2014) attempt to find out what challenges are perceived and experienced by mentor teachers in primary education when they combine the mentor's role and the teacher's role. Their study indicates that, when faced with a dilemma, primary-school mentors are more worried about pupils than student teachers. They also tend to perceive student teachers as guests who need to adapt to the mentors' routines and, on the whole, lack deeper reflection or more insights into mentor teachers' roles. At the same time, however, simultaneous performance of both roles makes them aware of their own teaching and, in a way, contributes to their well-being in the classroom.

The vignette-based study by Haigh & Ell (2014) can be considered interesting in terms of challenges that mentor teachers experience when they have to grade teacher candidates and make judgements on teacher candidates' readiness to teach. The conclusions are that disagreements in grading originating from different views about what is important in teaching, a different focus of observation (what they see now in candidates vs. who the candidates might be in the future), or 'learnability' of a key teaching aspect should not be discouraged but explored. The authors maintain that dissensus provides opportunities for growth while aiming for consensus-reached standards may risk losing 'different', yet often creative and innovative teachers.

Like in the studies disucussed in the previous section, the process of becoming a mentor does not seem to be linear or stress-free. Although the reviewed authors suggest solutions to make the process of becoming a mentor more operational (Bullough, 2005; Orland, 2001), the discontinuities on the way to achieving this, which stand for unexpected challenges, problems, or mental shifts, are equally beneficial. It is our belief that future research pays more attention to explaining the elements which make up the mentor's profession or what candidates for this job have to go through.

3.3. Approaches and models

In the corpus of this review, we found two research articles which were compatible with the category focused on approaches and models of mentoring. In the article by Kemmis et al. (2014), three different practices of mentoring: supervision, support and collaborative self-development were examined, which were directed at newly-qualified teachers in Australia (supervision), Sweden

(support) and Finland (collaborative development). Using the multiple case study approach which embraced field notes, interviews, observations, policy documents, reviews of national literature and teacher reflections, the authors argue that mentoring of novice teachers should be investigated in terms of specific cultural-discursive, material-economic, and socio-political arrangements (called by them "practice architectures") that enable or constrain novice teachers' practice. They also show that different mentoring approaches are likely to develop different teachers' dispositions, such as compliance (supervision), professional development (support) or the collective self-development (collaborative development).

The other article on mentoring in this group concerns Thompson's (2013) overview of the structures and mentoring strategies used in English as a second language (ESL) programmes in the United States. On the basis of 20 out of 67 returned questionnaires sent to the accredited US university ESL programmes, the author affirms that there is a dearth of formal mentoring structures in most of the programmes inspected. This lack of structured mentoring programmes in place of ESL programmes suggests that mentoring is understood as a one-size-fits-all model with no diversity to meet mentees' individual needs.

Although there seems to be agreement that supportive and collaborative models of teacher mentorship should be promoted, there is a need for more comprehensive nation-based studies like those performed by Thompson (2013) or Kemmis et al. (2014). Then, the structure of the existing mentoring programmes, their implementation, and the effects of development on teachers who were subjected to them could throw light on what the organization of the mentoring system is really like, and what skills and competences in mentees these programmes develop.

3.4. Perceptions and beliefs

There is no doubt that a vital individual difference in any aspect of language teaching are a person's beliefs. Therefore, the last category in this review includes four studies that investigate the stakeholders' perceptions on mentoring.

One study in this group aimed at examining the perception of mentoring by different members of the teaching community (Langdon et al., 2014). It was a national online survey on mentoring in which the participants (n=696) were recruited from the personnel in primary and secondary schools in five regions of New Zealand. The findings show that the stakeholders represent different perceptions on mentoring. For example, school leaders and mentors, especially

those who volunteered rather than were appointed for this role, held high perceptions on the mentor's professional role, which was not so evident in non-mentors, including mentees. In terms of socioeconomic level of the investigated schools, there were slightly lower perceptions of mentoring in rural and low socioeconomic schools. As to the school sector, more favourable opinions on mentoring were held in primary sectors of education, but location does not seem to influence the participants' differences in perception.

Another online questionnaire study on beliefs was focused on exploring graduate teaching assistants' perspectives on their roles in a foreign language hybrid course (Drewelow, 2013). Although mentoring was not particularly emphasized in this study, the results show that there should be more training offered to teaching assistants on hybridized courses, especially for peer support and mentoring with a view to developing teaching practice.

In a qualitative study performed in Malaysia, Senom and Othman (2013) explored the novice ESL teachers' learning while participating in the mentoring programme in which the mentors were native speakers of English. On the basis of semi-structured interviews, observation and document analyses from the training, the authors report on considerable gains in terms of mentees' general pedagogical knowledge (classroom management, fostering students' motivation), knowledge of context (higher awareness of differences between Manglish and other Englishes), knowledge of self that was found important for educators-to-be, knowledge of students (the ability to recognize their abilities and preferences), and pedagogic content knowledge that stood for the practical dimension, such as assessment of teaching aids or using gestures to explain the meaning of words. Not questioning the value of the topic which the article raises, the article may seem to be not balanced enough. Full of praise for native speaker mentors and benefits originating from native speakers' mentoring of Malaysian teachers, the article says nothing about the fact that all the increase in the mentees' kinds of professional knowledge probably stems from mentors' expertise rather than their native-speakerism.

In their collective case study research involving 4 novice teachers and mentors, Mann and Hau Hing Tang (2012) investigated the beliefs related to the support that the teachers receive from mentors and other colleagues, as viewed by different stakeholders. Their article concludes with the identification of several weaknesses that can be caused by mentors, such as fulfilling mentors' roles in a procedural rather than a reflective manner, or their focusing on fixing problems rather than inquiring into them together with a mentee. The authors also provide several recommendations on how schools could offer better

support to newly-qualified English language teachers. The solutions involve having two mentors for novice teachers (an experienced one who offers advice and an inexperienced one who is closer in age, but more empathetic and collaborative), more recognition for performing the mentor's role, more opportunities for mentors and mentees to collaborate, and rendering the novice teacher's observation process more developmental and reflective rather than mechanistic and evaluative.

Overall, the studies presented in the articles on the perceptions and beliefs on mentoring are always timely. They are very much context-based and this is why they are prone to modifications if contexts in which they are investigated change. To acknowledge the variability, context-dependance and idiosyncrasy of those who hold such perceptions on mentoring, the studies on the investigation of mentoring beliefs should be conducted on a regular basis.

3.5. Conclusion

This chapter provides a review on selected research articles which were published in five peer-reviewed journals between 2001 and 2017 that are related to the topic of teacher mentoring. As a result of the analysis of the twenty-two research studies, we came up with four principal themes that were raised in the mentoring research. The first one deals with the mentoring practice and focuses on its numerous positive effects as well as possible negative effects, such as interfering with a teacher candidate's professional identity construction or his or her target language use. The second theme, focused on the process of learning mentoring, suggests that the process of becoming a mentor is not a starightforward or linear one. The articles reveal that although there exist attempts to make mentoring smoother and more operational, there appear challenges on teacher mentors' professional pathways which, in the long run, may contribute to the mentor's development. In the third part of the articles, we concentrated on mentoring programmes. While doing so, we also tried to point out that it is worthwhile to study international mentoring models, as their results are likely to offer a better insight into what is successful and worth copying in other places, or what, like US mentoring strategies implemented at several American universities, is not about teaching mentoring but about teaching English (Thompson, 2013). Finally, we reviewed the articles focused on the assumptions and beliefs of different stakeholders of mentoring. As was noted above, it is useful to monitor beliefs and perceptions regularly, paying special attention to the assumptions expressed by those participants who are directly affected by mentoring.

We are well aware that this review is limited to only twenty-two international journal articles from 2001 to 2017, so that our discussions should be treated with caution. In addition, the findings of the study results analyzed here refer to particular mentors, or mentoring initiatives, working or implemented in specific contexts, and may not be generalizable to other people and places. Despite these shortcomings, this set of papers has produced useful insights about mentoring, such as:

- the best mentoring practice may be self-initiated and inquiry-based, in which mentors and mentees share many commonalities, e.g. content area, specialization, age, sometimes even teaching experience,

- the effectiveness of mentoring may be increased through using a Lesson Study approach and a coaching phase,

- the quality of mentoring, rather than its frequency, is likely to produce a better teaching career start,

- mentors may encourage teacher candidates to develop 'feared' and 'ought to' teacher identities if they provide mentees with too little space for development,

- there is not enough cooperation between school-based mentors and university mentors,

- there are roles of language mentors to which they have not been prepared (e.g. a self-trainer),

- simultaneous performance of a mentor's role and a teacher's role may be disturbed towards selecting the role of a teacher,

- different mentoring approaches tend to develop different teachers' dispositions,

- different stakeholders may represent different perceptions on mentoring, e.g. school leaders and mentors in primary school sectors are likely to hold more favourable beliefs on the effectiveness of mentoring than non-mentors (including mentees) or those from low socioeconomic schools,

- school location does not seem to influence the perception of mentoring,

- in the opinion of some novice ESL teachers, native speakers are still considered the best mentors,

- having two mentors (an experienced one who offers advice and a less experienced one who is empathetic and collaborative) for novice teachers, acknowledging more recognition to the mentor's role and providing more opportunities for collaboration may result in better mentoring.

In addition, we would like to make three final comments as to the future research directions related to mentoring:

- The role of language mentors is still insufficiently addressed. This is evident in making it almost equal to language instruction (Thompson, 2013) or in encountering situations in which those who are considered good mentors are blamed with impeding the formation of teacher candidates' identity or individual teaching styles (Bateman, 2008; Chambers, 2013; Yuan, 2016).

- The articles we have analysed provide only limited insight into the challenges which mentors experience. As future research directions, we suggest investigating more challenges faced by mentors (and possibly mentees) which concern their emotions, as well as exploring emotional transformations, epiphanies, crises, etc. that are experienced by all those who are engaged in teacher mentoring. The acknowledgement of mentors' and their mentees' emotions may produce new developments of this field.

- The twenty-two papers analysed here employ a number of data collection tools. Most of them, however, rely upon interviews, questionnaires and, less often, document analyses. We believe that the employment of case studies and/or ethnographic studies could be useful. Studying the evolution of becoming a mentor would call for longitudinal projects. Once various issues are specified, the distribution of particular issues in the mentoring practice, such as the process of a mentor's formation, models of mentoring, or beliefs about mentoring held by various stakeholders, can be investigated through survey studies, the findings of which may lead to further research problems that can be examined in detail through additional qualitative research.

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Chapter 7

Teacher Knowledge and Research Agendas

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Abstract

This article is a review of literature on teacher knowledge (TK) in general education research (GER) and the teaching of English as a foreign language (EFL). It first reviews research on TK in GER in relation to kinds of knowledge, teacher cognition and beliefs and personal practical knowledge. Then, this discussion is continued in EFL. The literature review encompasses studies scanned through the Web of Science first in GER, then in EFL, published in major teaching and teacher education journals. This analysis reveals a diversity of topics revolving around teacher knowledge and the above mentioned topics. Similarly, the theoretical frameworks and terminology used show much variance. Research methods employed range from quantitative to qualitative including narrative inquiry. Recommendations for future research and implications for teacher education are offered.

Keywords: teacher knowledge; pedagogical knowledge; teacher cognition and beliefs; personal practical knowledge; professional knowledge landscapes

1. Introduction: A context for Teacher Knowledge in Teacher Education

Interested in understanding the "subjective realities" of teaching which are "embedded in people's individual and organizational contexts and their personal histories" (Fullan, 2016, p. 42), this article explores the concept of teacher knowledge as the "body of convictions and meanings, conscious and unconscious, that have arisen from experience and that are expressed in a person's practices" (Clandinin & Connelly, 1995, p. 7). It acts on the belief that understanding teacher knowledge may enable us to determine to what extent change can make sense for teachers "at the level of use and effectiveness" (Fullan, 2016, p. 42) and thus enable professional development at both pre-service and levels. Although there has been much research on teacher knowledge since the 1970s, interestingly, it appears that we have only just started to fathom its depth both in GER and EFL.

Following this brief introduction, this article provides information on the method of data collection and analysis. The third section offers a brief discussion of the origins and kinds of TK in GER followed by a brief overview of research directions. In the light of this discussion, the next section moves to an analysis of TK in EFL in greater detail. The final section concludes the article.

2. Method and Data Analysis

The literature review was done by means of a scan within the Web of Science which includes major journals in teaching and teacher education. The keywords that guided this scan were TK in GER and EFL and teacher cognition and PPK in GER and EFL. The articles on the teaching other foreign languages were put under research in GER when the focus was not on EFL. Out of the many articles that came up in these searches, first of all the articles that were strictly on some aspect of teacher knowledge were selected including both pre-service and in-service contexts. Another criterion was choosing articles with relatively well-defined terms in the relevant literature in the sense that most researchers seem to agree excluding technological articles and articles on teaching young learners. The final criterion was to exclude books and conference proceedings with seminal books cited.

The most striking feature of a literature review on TK is that it draws on various strands of research that are seemingly related but with overlapping boundaries which makes it a rather daunting task. It is also the case that researchers could be investigating the same constructs using different terminology with the result that not every researcher may agree with the terminology used by others creating "a terminological proliferation" (Woods & Çakır, 2011, p. 383).

The articles on TK in GER are discussed according to possible common themes. This discussion is intended to set the stage for a relatively clear theoretical base for understanding TK in EFL. The articles on EFL are first listed in chronological order, and then discussed according to possible common themes. It is beyond the scope of this paper to mention all the articles that go under the above mentioned topics and provide a comprehensive analysis of each one; nor, is it the aim. Nevertheless, the articles chosen are intended to bring to the fore examples of different research directions with the aim of presenting a wide spread of topics investigated since 2000 in different contexts. It is the hope of this article that

the argument presented will provide the reader with a thorough review of the scope of teacher knowledge both in GER and EFL and can motivate thinking on the current trends and inspire future research on teacher knowledge.

3. Origins and Kinds of Teacher Knowledge

The changes in the conceptualizations of teacher knowledge are a reflection of the evolving trends in teacher education. In the 1980s, when the process-product approach was dominant, the concern was with finding the right method for teaching with focus on "observable teacher actions" aiming at "student achievement" (Rosemary, Sherin & Sherin, 2013, p. 393). Following the 1990s, teaching came to be seen "as a way of thinking with a particular set of specialized knowledge and cognitive processes" (ibid, p. 396) and aimed at investigating teachers' mental lives, thus addressing the gap in the process-product approach. The current sociocultural perspective came as a result of concerns for understanding the wider context of teaching, with an attempt to investigate teacher knowledge in teachers' "social, physical, cultural, and historical contexts" (ibid, p. 403).

Research in teacher knowledge owes its origin to Shulman (1987) who categorized teacher knowledge in an attempt to describe and define the knowledge base of teaching and theorize about "how new teachers learn to teach" (p.4). The three major categories that are generally accepted by most researchers are Shulman's (ibid) categorization of content knowledge (CK), general pedagogical knowledge (GPK) or pedagogical knowledge (PK) and pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) with three additional categories of knowledge of the curriculum, learners, context and educational aims.

As a research focus, while CK is knowledge of the subject matter (e.g. English or mathematics), GPK has a wider scope and incorporates "principles and strategies of classroom management" and is a particular blend of content and pedagogy (Shulman, 1987, p.8). Initially, it was CK that was considered important to the neglect of pedagogical knowledge before Shulman (ibid) developed and contributed to the integration of GPK and CK. However, studies do not always differentiate between CK, PCK and GPK in a clear manner. Further, studies may also focus on the conceptualization of teacher knowledge as practical knowledge, originated by the work of Elbaz (1987) which may also be investigated as teacher practical knowledge, practical theories of teaching or personal practical theories.

Following 2000, the term teacher knowledge (TK) has been extended to include teacher cognition (TC) under which different constructs may be advanced by different authors. Thus, it is again difficult to observe a coherent

research direction. While some authors focus on the cognitive aspect of TK, others do not agree that it is purely a cognitive process. In addition, TC may also be used interchangeably with teacher thinking (Crookes, 2015). Other authors argue that PK is shaped by the relationship between various categories of knowledge and beliefs with the implication that a well-developed PCK base does not result only from one category of TK (Hashweh, 2005). We see that a whole chapter in a handbook of educational psychology has been spared for teacher knowledge and beliefs (Woofolk, Davis & Pape, 2006) since Pajares (1992) drew attention to the fact that beliefs provided a filter for screening knowledge in creating meaningful experiences. Building on the social and contextual aspect of TC, we see that the themes that have attracted attention in recent research come out as an amalgam of teachers' decision-making, the role of beliefs and PCK.

The final approach to teacher knowledge discussed in this article is the concept of teachers' personal practical knowledge (PPK) on a professional knowledge landscape that originated with the work of Clandinin and Connelly (1995). The metaphor of a landscape is used to show that PPK is "composed of relationships among people, places and things" and is therefore "both an intellectual and moral landscape" (ibid, p. 5). This kind of thinking is different from other kinds of TK in that it focuses on understanding a teachers' knowledge from a personal point of view as enacted in experience (ibid). It is perhaps not coincidental that the complex and dynamic nature of PPK is best reflected and therefore understood narratively in the expression of story (Clandinin, 2013).

4. Teacher Knowledge Research in General Education

Interest in the kinds of knowledge has been vested in relation to how PCK constructs may be defined and related to each other. Working with physics teachers in Germany, Stender, Brückmann and Neumann (2017) investigated two types of PCK as topic-specific professional knowledge (TSPK) and practical routines, or as teaching scripts, the quality of which may be affected by TSPK along with motivation and self-regulation. Although a study done in teacher education in Belgium argued that the integration of GPK, CK and PCK would enhance learning, the results could not prove this hypothesis (Evens, Elen, Larmuseau & Depaepe, 2018). König and Pflanzl (2016) investigated the connection between GPK and the quality of instruction among teachers in vocational schools in Austria pointing to a lack of research in this area. They found that the three issues of classroom management,

teaching methods and teacher–student relationships correlated positively with teachers' GPK.

Interestingly, we see that a lot of research has been conducted in mathematics teaching (Murray, Nuttall & Mitchell, 2008). A frequent topic is challenges in teaching; for example, teachers' beliefs and non-routine problems experienced by elementary school teachers in Israel, also including their pertinent beliefs (Asman & Markovitz, 2009) or challenges confronted by an experienced primary school teacher in the context of educational reform in India (Takker & Subramaniam, 2018). A related area of interest is change in practical knowledge; for example, in terms of the design, implementation and assessment of new teaching methods among teachers at the one-year post teacher training program in mathematics education in Netherlands (Buitink, 2009) or change in teachers' practical knowledge in their implementation of new teaching methods that mathematics teachers would experience (Witterhold, Goedhart & Suhre, 2016). As revealed by the findings of this study, it can be argued that change is closely related to teachers' personal concerns, thus drawing attention to the personal side of learning new knowledge.

Some studies explore TK from the perspective of personal practical theories (PPTs), for example among of pre-service teachers in terms of the relationship between the content and sources of what is conceptualized as pedagogical constructions (Levin & He, 2008, 273). Practical knowledge in language teaching may also be investigated as the relationship between language teachers' practical knowledge of teaching reading comprehension in terms of unshared and shared practical knowledge in various teacher education programs in Germany (Meijer, Verloop & Beijaard, 2001). Another example is a study investigating pre-service teachers' confidence in their own subject knowledge (foreign languages) in UK which focused on the relationship between linguistic competence and intercultural understanding for which the strongest predictors were found to be time spent abroad including teachers' understanding of the target culture (Woodgate-Jones, 2008). Yet another example is a study which investigated the ethical dimension of a teacher's practical knowledge by means of a project conducted with the cooperation of 10 researchers and 50 teachers in China (Chen, Wei & Jiang, 2017).

Beliefs may also create change in a teacher's PK if teachers perceive new knowledge input as valuable as found in a recent study conducted with 270 elementary school teachers in Taiwan in terms of their intention to attend

weekly professional programs (Hwang, Hong & Hao, 2018). The results of the study revealed that the participants valued the acquisition of PCK more than they value PK and CK because of the expected usefulness of each for teaching. And yet, this relationship whose cause and effect remains to be uncovered has not been clearly established. The dilemma seems to be understanding whether beliefs determine a teacher's knowledge or whether is it vice versa (Blömeke, Buchholtz, Suhl & Kaiser, 2014). As found in a study done among pre-service teachers at various universities in Germany, "epistemic beliefs" which are said to be predictors of PCK played a more important role in these teachers' decline of GPK as a reliable learning source than their "source beliefs" (Merk, Rosman, RueB, Syring & Schneider**,** 2017, p. 1).

   Offering a goal-driven model of cognition in a study in science education, Hutner and Barkman (2017) investigated motivational and behavioral systems that drive cognition and action. Cognition regarding prior experience in particular among pre-service teachers' investigated as "situative knowledge" may limit their ability "to make reasoned decisions" about new solutions (Powell, 2000). Cognition may also be conceptualized as complexity theory for studying language teacher cognition (LTC) (Feryok, 2010) and pre-service teachers' emotional regulation and cognition when dealing with children's positive and negative emotional behavior (Swartz & McElwain, 2014). Thus, teacher knowledge, cognition and beliefs are discussed as an interrelated personal domain of knowledge and as such may be one essential component of teacher professional growth (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002).

3.4. Narrative conceptions of teacher knowledge: personal practical knowledge

   The context of teaching is a substantial area of research in the narrative inquiry of PPK as it is "a rich experiential context" that informs a teacher's actions (Phillion & Connelly, 2004, p. 462); creates their personal knowledge (Craig, 2003); may affect beginning teachers' "knowing" particularly, in the face of school reform (Craig, 2014, p. 81). A study done via teacher narratives in an urban high school in South Africa proposes three types of knowing as solicited, unsolicited and professional which may arise from teachers' experiences, skills, and pre-service and personal experiences (Amin & Vital, 2015, p.2) as may be in the case of mentor teacher training (Clarke, Killeavy & Moloney, 2013).

Within the topic of context, a major sub-construct is tensions or challenges, in the formation of a teacher's PPK much like in GER. Olson and Craig (2001) draw attention to the need to identify the opportunities and challenges in both pre-service and in-service teacher education and develop teachers' "narrative authority" by building "knowledge communities" (p. 683). A somewhat similar study by Whelan, Huber, Rose, Davies and Clandinin (2001) investigating the influences of PPK among experienced teachers argues for a research community which can help teachers to make sense of the situations enacted on the professional knowledge landscape. A later study exploring teacher knowledge from a school portfolio development perspective revealed how the teachers in the study became aware of their own practices by collaborative engagement in portfolio making (Craig, 2003).

4. Teacher Knowledge in EFL

Building on the attempts to reconceptualize the knowledge base of EFL under the influence of the sociocultural perspective, we see that, after 2000, research on teacher knowledge in EFL has become a blend of cognition, beliefs and PPK. Educators are now questioning schools as sociocultural environments that mediate and transform what and how teachers learn (Johnson, 2015), with emphasis on "what teachers think, know and believe" (Borg, 2003, p. 81) albeit using different terms to explain the concepts used and looking from different angles (ibid, 2012) again as is the case in GER (See Borg, 2003, 2015a & Andrews, 2007 for reviews of literature on TC and language awareness). This section presents selected articles in three tables that comprise three major research strands of TK as pedagogical knowledge base (PKB) knowledge of language and PPK. The tables provide information about research contexts and designs most of which are small-scale including think aloud, stimulated recall and narrative frames with the exception of a few large-scale studies.

Table 1 presents a list of articles on PKB focusing on types of knowledge, teacher cognition and beliefs. As the table reveals, the articles attempt to explore, identify or describe the components of PCK as related to teachers' classroom practice reflecting a combination of content and pedagogy and also pedagogy, cognition and beliefs. Although drawing clear distinctions between research constructs may not always be possible, the table attempts to discuss a three-tiered discussion of PKB as teacher pedagogy, teacher thinking/cognition and beliefs.

Table 1. Articles focusing on pedagogical knowledge base

Date of Publication and Author	Context and Participants	Topic	Method
2001 Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver and Thwaite	18 experienced ESL teachers (Australia)	Relationship between teachers' thinking and actions in terms of pedagogic principles of teachers (individually and in groups)	Observations, Interviews and elicitation procedures
2006 Mullock	4 TESOL teachers in two private commercial language schools (Australia)	Patterns of pedagogical knowledge base as related to teachers' thinking about their activities in their classrooms	Stimulated recall & coding [partial replication of Gatbonton's (2000) study]
2008 Gatbonton	4 novice ESL teachers teaching course (Canada)	Categories of novice teachers' categories of PK deduced from reports of their thoughts	Taped recollections of one lesson to elicit major categories
2010 Busch	381 pre-service teachers enrolled in three-year course at state university (US)	Effects of introductory SLA course on beliefs	Mixed methods
2011 Woods and Çakır	6 newly-graduate EFL teachers (Turkey)	Development of knowledge and beliefs of communicativeness in language teaching	Background survey, sentence completion task, reflection on video clip, initial and follow-up interviews

2014 Akbari and Dadvand	6 EFL teachers, subject matter experts, TEFL applicants (Iran)	Teachers' thought processes in of pedagogical knowledge base regarding teacher selection and certification	Mixed methods (Stimulated recall & instrument validation)
2015 Yazdanpanah	108 experienced ESL teachers in six states (Australia)	Types of knowledge teachers consider important in their teaching	Quantitative: Lickert-scale questionnaire & exploratory factor analysis
2015 Faisal	Identification and review of the PCK components in national curriculum (Indonesia)	Four teacher competencies as pedagogical, professional, personal, and social as defined in curriculum	Content analysis: Manifest-latent
2016 Kahn-Horwitz	106 teachers (70 pre-service vs. 36 in-service EFL teachers doing M.Ed.) in two groups taught by same y same instructor (Israel)	Impact of a course on English orthography on teachers' orthographic content knowledge	Quantitative longitudinal (tests prior to participation in course; immediately and four months after participation in course)
2017 Karimi and Nourizi	4 novice and 4 experienced teachers (Iran)	Development of pedagogical thought categories of novice L2 teachers' pedagogical	Video and audio recordings; stimulated recall, verbal reports;

		knowledge via expert mentoring initiatives	interviews
2017 Gök-Kaça and Yiğitoğlu	2 Novice EFL teachers in an Intensive English Program of university (Northern Cyprus)	Influences of curriculum on novice teachers' cognitions while attending in-service course	Semi-structured interviews, observations, Stimulated-recall, think-aloud, final reflective interviews
2017 Lemus-Hidalgo	4 teachers (from same BA Program) working in same state university (Mexico)	Role of teachers' knowledge and beliefs in their teaching practices.	Observations, interviews, conversations, class video recordings and teachers' journals
2018 Cesur and Ertaş	127 prospective language teachers in ELT Department of state university (Turkey)	Analysis of PCK in terms of five categories in relation to classroom practice	Mixed methods Quantitative: Questionnaire Qualitative: Document analysis, observations of and interviews with 3 teachers
2018 Ngo	1 EFL university teacher (Vietnam)	Teacher's cognition about second language writing and mediational resources	Narrative inquiry

In terms of teacher pedagogy, the principles in teaching and categorization of knowledge stand out as two major sub-constructs. Principles are said to be related to teachers' thinking about their activities in their classrooms (Mullock, 2006) and may comprise more differences than similarities both individually and collectively (Breen et al., 2001). Conversely, there may be similarities between novice and experienced teachers in terms of the ability to acquire PK; however, experience is required for novice teachers before applying such knowledge (Gatbonton, 2008). Studies also emphasize that creating change in a teacher's practice may be difficult particularly in cases where there is a discrepancy between teachers' theoretical knowledge and classroom practice as found in a study where teachers' belief in communicative language teaching did not support their actual practice based on the grammar translation approach (Cesur & Ertaş, 2018). A course on orthographic CK and its relationship to EFL spelling may lead to overall improvement in both the pre-service and in-service group following the course and longitudinally, but not in "acquired orthographic-related content knowledge and pseudo word spelling scores" (Kahn-Horwitz, 2016, p. 147). Some authors may categorize teacher knowledge as knowledge of teaching and knowledge of language revealing that practicing teachers may value knowledge of teaching as significantly more important than knowledge of language (Yazdanpanah, 2015). The categories of teacher knowledge as stated in a key policy text may reveal the components of PCK as pedagogical, professional, personal, and social (Faisal, 2015).

Teacher cognition, conceptualized as "pedagogical thought categories" may increase among novice teachers as when assisted by a critical friend (Karimi & Nourizi, 2017, p. 40). Similarly, if adequate "apprenticeship and guided participation" are not provided in second language writing, a teacher's cognition can remain test-oriented at the end of a study notwithstanding her communicative approach to writing (Ngo, 2018). In a curriculum innovation project, while teachers' cognition may conform to practice at some stages of a project, the opposite may be true at top-down and the exam stages (Zhu & Shu 2017). Further, teachers' thought processes may not be taken into consideration in admission exams, thus failing to assess or measure the relevant component of teachers' PK (Akbari & Dadvand, 2014).

Finally, some studies explore teacher knowledge in terms of its connection to teacher beliefs arguing that beliefs are the mental aspects of teaching practices, in line with Borg's (2015b) later argument following his first publication on TC (ibid, 2001). The beliefs informed by experience or "core beliefs" may be a powerful driving force in teaching (Lemus-Hidalgo, 2017, p.

447). Professional coursework that includes reflective and experiential activities may result in significant changes in pre-service teachers' beliefs (Busch, 2010). Approaching teacher knowledge and beliefs from an indirect manner as opposed to that of classroom practice, a study found that the theoretical and impersonal teacher knowledge gained in teacher education was held in high regard and deemed appropriate (Woods & Çakır, 2011). However, it is only when this knowledge is integrated into the teacher's experience and becomes personalized through reflection that "awareness can come into experience" (ibid, p. 389). Once again, tensions between beliefs and practice exist. For example, taking TC as the mental aspects regarding instructional decision-making, a study reports that although novice teachers may believe in communicative language teaching, they may not be able to teach as such as they may be confused about the objectives of the curriculum because of its skill-specific conjecture, (Gök-Kaça & Yiğitoğlu, 2017).

Table 2 presents the list of articles under knowledge of language. As in the previous table, we see that teacher knowledge may be encompass cognition and/or beliefs; with research constructs defined differently, not defined at all or used interchangeably. For example, teacher knowledge of language may be defined as specific cognitions of language teaching with language and grammar used interchangeably in most studies. A major focus of the studies cited here is on the effects of the three abovementioned constructs on instructional decisions.

Table 2. Articles focusing on knowledge of language

Date of Publication and Author	Context and Participants	Topic	Method
2001 Borg	1 native and 1 non-native EFL teacher with 15-year- teaching experience (Malta)	Knowledge about language and instructional decisions Relationship between teachers' perceptions of KAL	Observations & interviews
2006 Saraç	Dept. of Basic English at university	Teachers' knowledge and belief on how to teach grammar	

		(Turkey)	
2009 Phipps and Borg	3 experienced EFL teachers (Turkish, British and American) (Turkey)	Tensions between stated beliefs and classroom behaviors in grammar teaching	Observations & interviews
2011 Mori	2 post-secondary EFL teachers (Japan)	Characteristics of TC regarding corrective feedback and their effects on classroom practice	Observations, interviews, letter to teachers, documents
2014 Baker	5 experienced teachers in intensive English program (North America)	Teachers' knowledge base of pronunciation-oriented techniques	Semi structured interviews, classroom observations, and stimulated recall interviews
2014 Sanchez and Borg	2 experienced secondary school English (Argentina)	PCK: Interactions between cognitions and context in grammar teaching practices	Observations and post-lesson stimulated recall interviews and semi-structured interviews
2015 Svalberg	10 International students on an MA program (UK)	Teachers' cognitions (knowledge) about grammar	Learner diaries; interviews and workshop interactions

2015 Love, Horarik and Horarik	373 English and literacy teachers (Australia)	Teachers' views on linguistic subject knowledge and linguistic pedagogic subject knowledge in terms of demands of curriculum	Survey
2015 Moodie and Feryok	Four primary school teachers teaching English (Korea)	Understanding teacher cognition by teachers' commitment to learning and teaching	Reflective writing, interviews, and classroom observations
2016 Wyatt	2 in-service English teachers (Oman)	Teachers' reported self-efficacy beliefs and their practical knowledge as teacher cognition	Surveys, interviews and comments in post-observation discussions
2016 Ahmadi and Shafiee	35 English teachers from different language institutes (Iran)	Relationship between teachers ' beliefs about teaching grammar and their actual practices in the classroom.	
2016 Zhao, Joshi, Dixon and Huang	630 elementary school EFL teachers (China)	Knowledge and skills of basic language constructs	Survey
2017 Graus and Coppen	74 undergraduate and postgraduate EFL student teachers (Netherlands)	Whether and how specific TCs of grammar instruction compared with learner-oriented cognitions	Ten focus group interviews

2017 Zhu and Shu	10 teachers teaching project classes in secondary school (China)	TC and classroom practices regarding curriculum innovation project on communicative language teaching	
2018 Önalan	75 non-native English teachers in language institute (US)	Teachers' beliefs of grammar instruction	Survey and questionnaire

In terms of teacher knowledge, attention is drawn to linguistic subject knowledge (LSK) and linguistic pedagogic subject knowledge in relation to texts revealing that teachers believed in the importance of LSK and were confident in their approaches to teaching; however, they also needed further support for their professional development (Love et al., 2015). Investigating teachers' knowledge of basic language constructs and their self-perceived teaching abilities, Zhao et al., (2016) found that the teachers could demonstrate "implicit skills" in teaching some basic language constructs, but not able to display openly "knowledge of other skills, especially sub-lexical units (e.g., phonemic awareness and morphemes)" (p.127).

Identifying knowledge of language (KAL) as a composite of knowledge of grammar (KAG), knowledge of vocabulary, phonology and discourse, Borg (2001) found that teachers' perceptions impacted their instructional decisions both generally and specifically. Student teachers' specific cognitions regarding grammar instruction in comparison with those of learners may be related to teachers' perceptions of "learner autonomy, motivation, intellectual capabilities, needs, and instructional preferences" (Grause & Coppen, 2017, p. 643). Further, the idea of cognitive conflict seems to be necessary for teacher cognition in order to enable teachers to understand complex grammatical features and their contextual meanings (Svalberg, 2015). TC is also investigated in relation to teacher commitment which is found to be a factor affecting teaching both positively and negatively as it encompasses various goals and mental processes (Moodie & Feryok, 2015). TC can also involve

more controlled practice than guided techniques in the teaching of pronunciation as part of speaking among experienced teachers (Baker, 2014).

We again see a focus on tensions in terms of teachers' beliefs and practices in grammar teaching which may be aligned with their "core beliefs" as opposed to their "peripheral beliefs" (p. 380), thereby creating tensions in inductive grammar teaching (Phipps & Borg, 2009). Similarly, tensions may be between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their practical knowledge in which case teachers need to be assisted in further professional development (Wyatt, 2015). Beliefs resulting from teachers' previous knowledge may influence teachers' corrective feedback (CF) and their use of CF according to instructional focus, time concerns and frequency of errors in addition to the personality and communication levels of students (Mori, 2011). Interestingly, although teachers' beliefs on error correction and testing procedure may change, their beliefs regarding teaching methodology may not (Ahmadi & Shafiee, 2016). Although teaching grammar indirectly may correlate with progress in academic experience and proficiency, teachers may remain uncertain about when to use direct and indirect grammar instruction (Önalan, 2018); however, in some contexts teachers favor functional teaching methods based on student-centered and contextual teaching approaches (Saraç, 2006). In fact, cognitions of experienced teachers may be affected by their perceptions of context in making pedagogical decisions (Sanchez & Borg, 2014). We are also informed that pedagogical practices in pronunciation teaching may be based on three sets of beliefs; i. listening perception is crucial in speaking, ii. kinesthetic practice is important in phonological improvement and iii. pronunciation teaching may be boring (Baker, 2014).

Table 3 presents the articles on personal practical knowledge. A general look at the table reveals that topics cover language, classroom practice, teaching skills, lesson planning and materials design, interactive decision-making, assessment and emotions. Despite these variations and overlaps in topic, however, we see an agreement on the personal and contextual nature of knowledge construction as unique to every teacher as it is the result of experience and training and may be developed through interaction with others in a particular context.

Table 3. Articles focusing on personal practical knowledge

Date of Publication and Author	Context and Participants	Topic	Method
2004 Tsang	3 pre-service non-native ESL teachers (Hong Kong)	The role of personal practical knowledge in interactive decision making using teachers' maxims	Learning/teaching autobiographies, interviews, observations and a video-based elicitation of introspective data
2008 Chou	3 English teachers in elementary schools (Taiwan)	Experiences and practical knowledge teachers developed in own contexts	Interviews, classroom observations, teachers' reflective journals and teaching materials
2009 Xu and Liu	College EFL teacher (China)	Knowledge of assessment and practice	Narrative inquiry
2010 Morton and Gray	1 teacher educator and 12 student teachers on certificate course for teaching English (UK)	PPK, identity & lesson planning conferences (LPCs) on a pre-service TESOL course	Transcripts of lesson plans, coding of utterances in LPCs
2010 Savvidou	12 English language lecturers (Cyprus)	How to support the construction of professional knowledge	Narrative (stories)
2012 Sun	1 immigrant Chinese language		Interviews, observations, field notes, and other

			relevant documents (lesson plans, worksheets, and samples of student work)
2015 Golombek	1 university language teacher educator (US)	PPK Emotional dissonance regarding mediation of reflections of teacher learner teaching ESL class	Reflection journals, retrospective interviews
2016 Chong	1 experienced secondary English teacher (Hong Kong)	Teachers' pedagogical (materials) design capacity and their underlying knowledge base in terms of reading comprehension	Semi-structured interviews, lesson observations, and analysis of curriculum materials
2018 Swart et al.	35 teacher educators' in 7 teacher training institutes (Netherlands)	Awareness of PPK of language in classroom practice	Focus group interviews
2018 Balzemao Oss	One teacher in student-initiated project (Brazil)	Development of teacher's personal practical knowledge and role of practitioners' expertise in dealing with adolescent students	

The first row's first cell reads "teacher (China)".

A frequent approach in the study of PPK is the use of stories. Savvidou (2010) emphasizes sharing of stories of teachers' personal and professional experiences in the construction of personal knowledge. The study reveals several socio-cognitive processes such as connecting, echoing, developing, questioning and constructing used by storytellers to tell their stories. Chou (2008) found that teachers generated their classroom knowledge as a result of their experiences as teachers, their reflections on these experiences with the students in their contexts and making use of scaffolding for creating a supportive environment. Focusing on teachers' assessment knowledge and practice, the three stories of a teacher shared in a study by Xu and Liu (2009) describe the two types of knowledge representing "the *you should* type of knowledge prescribed by the authority", and the other "*I should* knowledge" embodied in the teacher's practice (p.504). We also understand that the teacher constructed her own assessment knowledge not only by herself but also in cooperation with her colleague and learners.

Most studies in PPK are concerned with knowledge construction in classroom practice. A recent study adds to our knowledge of language modalities of PPK described as "interpersonally" and "pedagogically oriented" (Swart, 2018, p. 166). Teachers' pedagogical design capacity (PDC) may indicate personal philosophies of teachers in how they perceive and use curriculum materials to teach reading comprehension, for example using pictures and group-work (Chong, 2016). The construction of novice language teachers' PPK and professional identities may be investigated by shared lesson planning argued to be an effective strategy (Morton & Gray, 2010).

However, there may also be tensions in classroom practice arising from identity and cultural heritage (Sun, 2012); between decisions that teachers make during and after teaching (Tsang, 2004) and between emotion and cognition in the relationship of a teacher educator and pre-service teacher out of which "mediated and reframed understandings" may be created (Golombek , 2015, p. 470). As an alternative approach, Balzemao Oss (2018) discusses the development of the PPK of a Brazilian teacher's expertise in a collaborative effort with his adolescent students in an unsafe district. By means of the two projects developed by the researcher himself, the study shows that the development of PPK in such circumstances can be a great aid in assisting teacher education.

5. Concluding Remarks

This article has discussed teacher knowledge within GER and EFL in an attempt to unveil how teacher knowledge can justify classroom practices, beliefs and values which comprise teachers' subjective realities. The findings reveal that EFL teachers' practices are constructed out of their individual and idiosyncratic ways arising from their pre-service experiences and experiences gained in the particular contexts in which they work. This suggests that teacher knowledge seems to be a deeply complex and intertwined aspect of teaching (Borg, 2015b; Mullock, 2006; Yazdanpanah, 2015).

The acknowledgement of such a complex agenda has far-reaching and significant implications for teacher education. First of all, we need to unravel teacher knowledge in terms of its components and understand how these unfold in the personal, contextual and experiential practices of teachers. The challenge, then, is to agree on a theoretical framework which can incorporate common underlying themes that researchers will accept, acknowledge and construct future research. Responding to this challenge however, is no easy task. And yet, it is a task that, as teacher educators, we must undertake if we want to empower practicing and future teachers in a way that respects their personal, contextual and intellectual potential. This article suggests the use of a collaborative research-based approach to teacher empowerment (CORBATE) (Gül Peker, 2017) which can help teachers to reflect on their own power of knowledge respecting their unique and subjective realities.

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Chapter 8

A Review of studies on teacher efficacy: From 2000 to 2018

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Abstract

This chapter reviews research focusing on teacher efficacy. To this end, it examines the studies published in prominent journals from 2000 to 2018 and classifies them under the following three main categories: focused topics, methodological issues, and results of research. This review highlights continuing mismatches between theories and methodologies in the related literature on teacher efficacy. Furthermore, promising research directions are identified with a specific emphasis on mixed methods and qualitative research designs to enable teacher educators to benefit from insightful findings of teacher efficacy research.

Keywords: teacher efficacy; teacher self-efficacy; language teacher efficacy

1. Introduction

With the aim of meeting the requirements of the 21st century, great importance has been attached to education with a specific emphasis on teachers and their roles in education. Therefore, a number of studies with practical implications have been carried out to determine how teachers influence their students' learning by the methods they follow, the techniques they use, the materials they choose, etc. On the other hand, a recent interest among researchers towards determining how teachers' efficacy beliefs influence students' learning has been observed starting with the pioneering work of Bandura (1977). Since Albert Bandura introduced the concept of self-efficacy almost three decades ago, research, conducted in many arenas including organizational, athletic, health-promoting, and educational settings, has demonstrated the power of efficacy perceptions in human learning, performance, and motivation (Hoy & Spero, 2005).

It was again Bandura (1997) who put forward that the strength of the influences of humans' efficacy beliefs on the control they have over their lives. Furthermore, self-efficacy, which is seen as a significant factor for change in individual and organizational behaviors, was defined as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize

and execute the courses of action required to produce to given attainments" (1997, p. 3). Self-efficacy grounded in the theoretical framework of social cognitive theory, highlights the evolvement and exercise of human agency - that people can exercise some influence over what they do (Bandura as cited in Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010). The power of Bandura's theory of perceived self-efficacy lies in the fact that it integrates the origins or sources of efficacy beliefs, their structure and function, the processes through which they produce diverse effects, and the possibilities for change (Bandura, as cited in Brouwers & Tomic, 2000). The three factors bringing out variations in self-efficacy beliefs are listed by Bandura (1997) as: (1) magnitude, which refers to the level a person believes him/herself capable of performing, (2) generality, which refers to the extent to which changes in self-efficacy beliefs extend to other behaviors, and situations, and (3) strength, which refers to the resoluteness of people's convictions that he/she can perform a behavior in question.

When it comes to teachers and their self-efficacy beliefs, there have been several attempts to clarify the concept. For instance, teacher efficacy has been defined as "the extent to which the teacher believes he or she has the capacity to affect student performance" (Bergman, McLaughlin, Bass, Pauly & Zellman, 1977, p. 137), or as "teachers' belief or conviction that they can influence how well students learn, even those who may be difficult or unmotivated" (Guskey & Passaro, 1994, p. 4). For Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2010), it is based on social cognitive theory and can be conceptualized as teachers' beliefs in their ability to plan, organize, and carry out activities that are required to attain given educational goals. According to Wheatly (2005), teachers' self-efficacy is about their beliefs in their ability to influence valued student outcomes. Another contribution made by Weathly, worth mentioning here, is the fact that "teacher efficacy" is easily confused with actual teaching effectiveness although teachers' efficacy beliefs may underestimate, overestimate, or accurately reflect actual teaching effectiveness. Therefore, it was strongly claimed that "teacher efficacy remains a conceptually elusive construct" which is "difficult to assess with certainty" despite two decades of debate about the meaning and assessment of teacher efficacy (Hebert, Lee, & Williamson, 1998, p. 224).

According to Tschannen-Moran, Hoy and Hoy (1998), there are two conceptual strands which characterize teacher efficacy or self-efficacy beliefs. The first one is grounded in Rotter's (1966) locus of control theory, which highlights the teachers' control over the learning outcomes. Yet, this control is also divided into two: personal (i.e. internal control) and general (i.e. external control). Personal efficacy beliefs are associated with teachers' own efforts while general efficacy

beliefs are linked to teachers' beliefs in the impact of environmental factors on learning outcomes (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). The second conceptual strand, on the other hand, is grounded on Bandura's (1977) social cognitive theory highlighting the evolvement and exercise of human agency that people can exercise some influence over what they do.

Situating their study within Bandura's social cognitive theory, Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) examined the conceptual underpinnings of teacher efficacy and developed an integrated model of teacher efficacy. The model illustrates the ways in which efficacy judgments result as a function of the interaction between teachers' analysis of teaching tasks in context and their assessment of their personal teaching competence as they relate to the task (Figure 1).

In Tschannen-Moran et al.'s (1998) model, the significant influences on efficacy beliefs are assumed to be the attributional analysis and interpretation of the four sources of information about efficacy described by Bandura (1977, 1986). These sources are mastery experiences, verbal persuasions, vicarious experiences and psychological and emotional arousal.
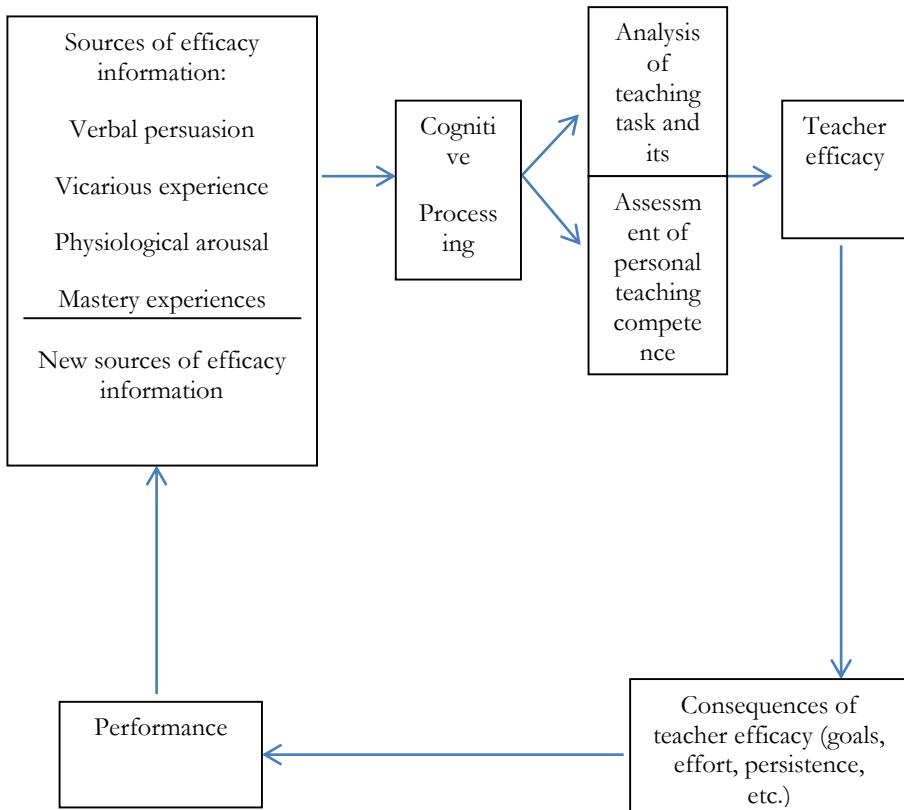
Figure 1. The cyclic nature of teacher efficacy (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998, p.228)

Teacher self-efficacy beliefs are not considered only as a reflector of previous experiences and behaviors (Raudenbush, Rowan & Fai Cheong, 1992) but also as a predictor of future behaviors in teaching (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). Furthermore, teacher self-efficacy is associated with outcomes, such as teacher burnout and job satisfaction (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000; Caprara, Barbaranelli, Borgogni & Steca, 2003; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007) as well as student achievement (Anderson, Greene & Loewen, 1988; Ashton & Webb, 1986; Caprara, Barbaranelli, Steca & Malone, 2006; for a review, see Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 1998).

In short, teacher self-efficacy beliefs have been considered as highly influential with regard to success and failure in education. Even though teachers' self-efficacy beliefs have been examined for more than four decades, the uncertainty

about what they are, how they are formed and develop, how they can be analyzed through research, and how the data gained from research can be utilized has remained (Wyatt, 2014). Indeed, this review will present the general inclination of the topics associated with teacher self-efficacy beliefs, the methodology followed, the findings of the research conducted, and the future directions in the field.

2. Method

The main aim of the current study is to review the existing teacher efficacy research in terms of focused research topics, research methodology, and the results and implications of research. To comprehensively identify relevant studies on Teacher Self-Efficacy (TSE) and related constructs, we used a criteria-based review approach to search articles from 2000 to 2018. This time span was set especially because several reviews, increasing in number after the work of the Rand Cooperation in 1976, were already carried out on previous research on TSE.

The following procedure is used to select the studies to be examined. To begin, in order to collect the potentially eligible journals, we used the following link "https://publik.tuwien.ac.at/info/sci_search.php?lang=2", which allows a search in the lists of SCI, SSCI, and A&HCI journals imported from the Thomson Reuters website. We limited our search to SCI and SSCI journals by clicking on an index that is to be searched and setting SCI and SSCI as the list. The keywords for the collection of the relevant journals are as follows: "Language", "Teacher", "Teaching", "Education", "Educational", "School", and "Psychology". As a result of the preliminary search, 35 journals were reached including *American Educational Research Journal, Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, British Journal of Educational Studies, Canadian Journal of School Psychology, Contemporary Educational Psychology, Educational Administration Quarterly, Educational and Psychological Measurement, Educational Leadership, Educational Management, Educational Psychologist, Educational Psychology, Educational Psychology Review, Educational Research Review, Educational Researcher, Educational Review, Educational Studies, ELT Journal, ESTP, European Journal of Teacher Education, International Journal of Educational Research, Journal of Education for Teaching, Journal of Literacy Research, Journal of School Psychology, Journal of Teacher Education, Psychological Reports, Review of Educational Research, Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research, System, Teaching and Teacher Education (TATE), Teacher Education and Special Education, Teachers and Teaching, TESOL Quarterly, The Australian Educational Researcher, The Journal of Educational Research and British Journal of Educational Psychology*.

Next, to reach the relevant articles published in the aforementioned SCI and SSCI journals, the following keywords were used: "Teacher Self-efficacy", "Language Teacher Self-efficacy", "Teacher Efficacy", "Self-efficacy", and "Efficacy". To further limit the articles, empirical articles in English published in peer-reviewed journals were collected. Although each journal had a few articles related to teacher self-efficacy, 50 relevant articles, out of 160 articles reviewed, were published in TATE. Following the creation of the corpus of the research, the researchers thoroughly analyzed each article through document analysis technique to obtain the relevant information from each paper.

For the thoroughly carried out process, the researchers focused mainly on three main parts of each paper including abstract, method, and findings. Yet, other parts of the articles were also examined when researchers needed more information regarding the focused topic, research methodology, findings or implications.

However, despite the careful analysis, we must acknowledge potential methodological limitations. Since researchers may fail to track and analyze all relevant research papers for this kind of reviews, some studies may have been missed or neglected. If, through methodological limitations, we have inadvertently excluded relevant research, we apologize for the inconvenience in advance.

2.1. Inclusion Criteria

Studies were required to meet three specific criteria to be included in the review. First, the study had to report results regarding teacher self-efficacy in general or specifically English language teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. The studies reporting results for other specific branches of teaching were omitted. Yet, the studies conducted with primary, secondary, or other teachers in general were included. The second inclusion criterion was that the participants of the studies were comprised of in-service teachers. Third, the manuscript had to be written in the English language.

2.2. Data Analysis

For the analysis and synthesis of the selected papers, a grounded approach was employed. The process started with initial coding, followed by focus coding, and axial coding analyses (Charmaz, as cited in Lee, Chen & Wang, 2017). In initial coding, relevant information about the topic, method, and findings from each

study were extracted and given respective codes. As for the focus coding, initial codes were sorted into different focus codes based on their relevance and similarity. Researchers scrutinized each focus code to ascertain that the initial codes confirm each focus code. Finally, for axial coding, codes attained through focus coding were grouped into themes. The last two processes were held as a discussion among the researchers with the purpose of clarity, precision, and coherency of the codes. Following the discussions, codes and themes were revised and refined according to the feedback received from each researcher.

3. Results

3.1 General Inclination in Teacher Efficacy in Terms of Study Method and Scales Used

The analysis of 138 articles on teacher efficacy indicated the inclination regarding their research design: 123 of them were empirical whereas 15 of them were state-of-the-art or review studies. While empirical studies were analyzed to determine the findings and their implications for the field, reviews and state-of-art studies were examined to reveal the gaps in the field of teacher efficacy pointed out by scholars. Overall results regarding the research design in empirical studies are presented in Figure 2.
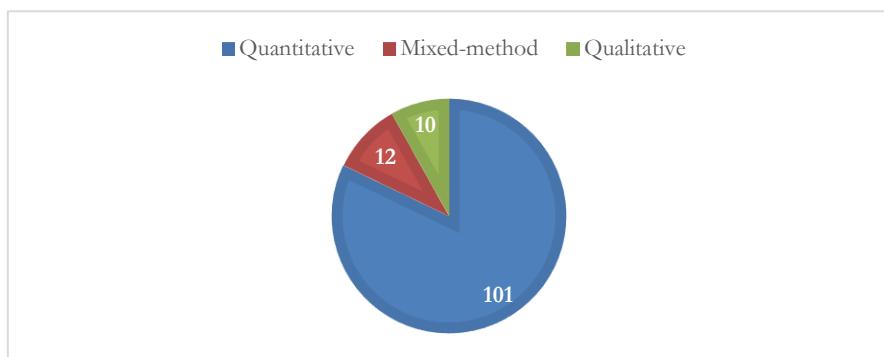

Figure 2. Results related to research design in teacher efficacy studies

The analyses carried out on the empirical studies have yielded that the majority of the studies was quantitative in nature while only ten of them followed qualitative research design. Furthermore, as it can be seen from Figure 2, the remaining 12 studies adopted a mixed-method research design.

As for the scales in those quantitative studies, 23 different scales were used in a total of 69 quantitative studies. Some of the scales (especially the ones used only once) were not used for empirical purposes by other researchers, yet by the designers for validity issues. In other quantitate studies, researchers employed questionnaires and surveys. Teacher sense of self-efficacy scale designed by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) were employed in 21 studies analyzed. In order to design an efficacy instrument having correspondence to the tasks faced by teachers at school, they started with Bandura's unpublished teacher efficacy instrument and added their own items. As a result of validity studies, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy put forward that the 18 items for the assessment of three domains of efficacy could be used. Another most frequently cited scale was Teacher Efficacy Scale comprising two factors: personal teaching efficacy and general teaching efficacy (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). Although there have been concerns regarding the measurement and validity of teachers' self-efficacy, especially the general teaching efficacy factor, 11 recent studies selected for the analysis employed this scale. On the other hand, there has been a call for increased attention to the measurement of teacher efficacy by scholars to adhere to Bandura's original conceptualization of self- and collective efficacy since the scale designed by Gibson and Dembo (1984) was modeled after the original locus of control-influenced RAND measure of teacher efficacy.

Although prominently examined through quantitative studies with scales and surveys, there has been a recent inclination towards qualitative or mixed-method research design in teacher efficacy research. There have been 10 qualitative studies embracing the call for investigative case studies and qualitative investigations with interviews and observational data to provide a detailed description of the growth in teacher efficacy. For instance, Milner and Hoy (2003) employed a case study approach to collect data with observations and interviews as data collection instruments. They pointed out the fact that the case study approach enabled them to inquire about the specifics of the teachers' experiences through oral communication and through the first author's observations of her in context.

In another study carried out by Wyatt (2010), a longitudinal qualitative case study approach was employed. The data were collected through semi-structured interviews, observations, and the analysis of tutor's written assignments, as a form of reflective writing. The researcher sought to triangulate reported cognitions with observed behaviors. Meristo, Ljalikova, and Löfström (2013) attempted to find out how teachers who have decided to continue their careers in teaching recall their own early experiences as pre-service teachers. Researchers specifically

focused on the teachers' experiences of cooperation, communication, sense of membership in their community as pre-service teachers and self-efficacy beliefs. With this aim in mind, researchers employed a retrospective approach, which acknowledges humans as competent agents who are able to reflect meaningfully on their lives. Data were collected through a semi-structured interview to enable the interviewer to adapt questions according to the situation. Other qualitative studies also followed the similar methodologies to gain in-depth understanding of the subject of teacher efficacy.

As for the studies conducted with a mixed-methods approach, data collection was carried out generally in two phases: 1) a completion of a questionnaire or scale to collect numerical data for statistical analyses and 2) interviews, observations or journals for content analysis. For example, Choi and Lee (2017) explored the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and teaching practices by using a mixed-methods approach. To collect data, they developed a questionnaire comprising three sections: demographic information, teachers' self-efficacy levels, and the frequency with teaching practices. Following the completion of the questionnaires, they held one-to-one interviews with a group of teachers. The study aimed to determine how efficacy beliefs contributed to teaching practices among secondary EFL teachers in South Korea.

In another study carried out by Schipper, Goei, Vries, and Veen (2018), a quasi-experimental mixed methods design was used. Researchers collected data before and after the intervention. The instruments employed in the study were comprised of teachers' sense of efficacy scale, international comparative analysis of learning and teaching (ICALT) observation tool, and immediate stimulated recall interviews. The main aim of the researchers was to determine whether participating in the professional development approach lesson study influences teachers' beliefs of self-efficacy and their adaptive teaching behavior. In a study conducted in the Japanese context, Thompson and Woodman (2018) employed a sequential mixed method design with the aim of examining the self-efficacy for teaching beliefs of Japanese high school teachers of English. In the first cycle, researchers held interviews to investigate the dimensions of teacher efficacy by enabling participants to evaluate teacher efficacy items used in past studies. Findings were then used to design the 25 efficacy items questionnaire with a six-point Likert scale, and as for the last cycle, the participants completed it online.

With regard to reviews and state-of-art articles, researchers were able to reach 15 studies published in selected articles. The reviews mainly focused on the sources of teaching efficacy, its impact, and the measurement tools used to collect data. The most recent state-of-art article was composed by Wang, Li, Tan and Li

in 2017 with the focus on Tschannen-Moran et al.'s conceptual model of teacher efficacy and its application on research in the Singapore education landscape. The researchers put forward that three defining features of the socio-cultural context in Singapore such as diversification of curriculum, high-stakes examinations and culture of collectivism make the model culturally appropriate for the Singaporean context.

In order to reconceptualize the sources of teaching efficacy, Morris, Usher, and Chen (2017) conducted a critical review of emerging literature by evaluating the ways in which researchers have measured and conceptualized the sources of teaching self-efficacy across 82 empirical studies. Researchers revealed that there are a number of shortcomings in the literature, which hinders understanding how teachers develop a sense of efficacy. The implications for the field are listed as determining additional sources of teacher knowledge beyond Bandura's four hypothesized sources, conceptualizing enactive mastery experiences in terms of the outcomes of teachers' direct actions rather than their mere exposure to teaching experiences, designing a psychometrically sound and theoretically based measure of the sources of teaching self-efficacy, exploring the sources of teaching self-efficacy both qualitatively and quantitatively, and identifying not only important events in individuals' lives but also the ways that the individuals reflect on their experiences.

The scope of the synthesis carried out by Zee and Koomen (2016) was determined as the consequences of TSE for the quality of classroom processes, students' academic adjustments and teachers' psychological well-being including the studies carried out following the influential work of the Rand Corporation in the late 1970s. The overall result regarding the quality of classroom processes shows that high-efficacy teachers, and especially those with more, experience, tend to effectively cope with a range of problem behaviors; use proactive, student-centered classroom behavior strategies and practices; and establish less conflictual relationships with students. Furthermore, results regarding the students' academic adjustments indicate that TSE is associated with students' academic adjustment in elementary school and beyond. TSE is found to be less crucial for middle and high schoolers' achievement. As for the teachers' psychological well-being, it was revealed that self-efficacious teachers may suffer less from stress, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and overall burnout, and experience higher levels of personal accomplishment, commitment, and job satisfaction. Researchers put forward the need for further theoretical elaboration and empirical substantiation of the outcomes of the reviewed studies to move the field forward.

3.2 Focal Points of the Studies Conducted on Teacher Self-Efficacy

As a result of the thematic analysis of the articles, the studies were categorized under five broad themes which were discussed in detail below.

3.2.1   Sources of teacher efficacy

It was pointed out by Bandura (1986) that efficacy is affected by four psychological sources of efficacy building information: enactive mastery experiences (concrete experiences of doing things), vicarious experiences (hearing, seeing or reading about others doing them), verbal persuasion (being told by others interactively how we did/will perform) and physiological arousal (getting this information from our senses) (Wyatt, 2014). Palmer (2011), on the other hand, proposed that cognitive mastery (i.e. subject matter knowledge) is an important source of TSE beliefs as well. TSE beliefs have also been distinguished by the ideas of internal–external locus of control (Rotter, 1966). Our analyses of the studies conducted on determining the sources of TSE beliefs revealed that three sources were prominent: external variables, professional knowledge, and psychological variables. Overall layout of the variables regarding the sources of teacher efficacy is displayed within the Figure 3.
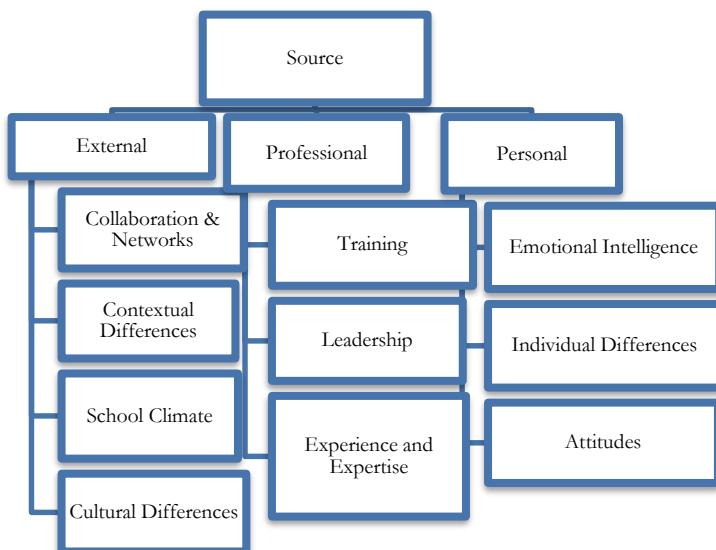
Figure 3. Source variables of teacher efficacy

3.2.1.1 *External variables as sources of teacher efficacy*

To begin with, four external variables were determined as the sources of teacher efficacy beliefs including (1) collaboration and networks, (2) contextual differences, (3) school climate, and (4) cultural differences.

Firstly, focusing on the collaboration and networks in his study, Siciliano (2016) examined the relationship between social networks and self-efficacy beliefs. The results showed that opportunities to access teaching relevant knowledge can be reached through peer interaction and so uncertainty can be diminished as a result of direct connection among peers. What one can infer from this study is the potential ways in which teacher beliefs can be shaped through social networks and collegial interaction.

Secondly, for the next external variable, contextual differences, Moradkhani and Haghi (2017) investigated how EFL teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and perceptions of their strengthening and weakening sources can be influenced by contextual differences. The findings revealed that teachers in private institutions feel significantly more efficacious than their colleagues in public schools with its attribution to both frequency and variety of exposure to sources of teacher self-efficacy. In contrast, the main factor diminishing EFL teachers' self-efficacy was seen as unfavorable educational setting. Researchers ascertained that teachers feel more efficacious if they encounter larger quantities of mastery experience (both enactive and cognitive), verbal persuasion, vicarious experience, and positive emotional states. For further research, it was recommended that researchers employ multiple data collection techniques such as field observations, interviews, reflective journals, etc.

Regarding the school climate as another external variable, induction arrangement, school-based social capital, social working environment, socioeconomic status of students, prior student achievement through school types were determined as factors affecting teacher efficacy. For example, Pas, Bradshaw, and Hershfeldt (2012) sought to investigate the impact of teacher and school-level factors on the development of both teacher efficacy and burnout. It was found out that both teacher efficacy and burnout increased over time. Another finding worth mentioning was that the intercept and growth of teacher efficacy and burnout was significantly related to teacher preparedness as well as perceptions of teacher affiliation and leadership. On the other hand, school-level factors were found to be unrelated to both outcomes.

Other studies have focused on cross-cultural differences and their impact as an external variable. To exemplify, Ho and Hau (2004) examined and compared Australian and Chinese teachers' personal efficacy in instruction, discipline, guidance, and beliefs about external influences. The study was carried out in two stages with the participation of 316 Australian teachers (108 and 208 in first and second stages, respectively) and 411 Hong Kong Chinese teachers (138 and 273, respectively). Findings indicated highly comparable factorial structures of teacher efficacy for the two groups although personal guidance efficacy was more differentiated from personal instruction and discipline efficacy among Australian teachers. The need for the incorporation of cultural factors into future teacher efficacy research was documented as a result of the study. Cheung (2008) conducted a comparative study of Hong Kong and Shanghai Primary in-service teachers' efficacy levels. The result showed that the Shanghai teachers reported significantly higher efficacy than did the Hong Kong teachers and respect and confidence placed in them by students and parents. The training they received from universities, and the experience they gained from daily teaching practice were the three most commonly cited factors for the contribution of teacher efficacy. The researcher stressed the need for a more in-depth qualitative study to understand more about the links between specific variables and teacher efficacy by acknowledging that comparing the differences between the efficacy levels of various cultures or regions is only the first step to investigate teacher efficacy. In order to reach a more holistic view of the issue, interviewing teachers and reviewing the education system and teacher education curriculum in universities are required.

3.2.1.2 Professional knowledge variables as sources of teacher efficacy

Next, three professional knowledge variables were determined as the sources of teacher efficacy including 1) training, 2) leadership, and 3) experience and expertise. In line with Palmer (2011), literature is observed to be abundant in number of studies focusing on the importance of professional development supporting in-service teachers.

Firstly, stressing the importance of training, one of the determined professional knowledge variables, Dicke, Parker, Holzberger, Kunina-Habenicht, Kunter, and Leutner (2015) investigated changes in teacher self-efficacy, burnout, and their interrelation over time. Researchers specified latent change score models of teacher self-efficacy and emotional exhaustion, using a sample of beginning teachers in Germany. They also sought to determine whether professional knowledge gained during teacher education can predict change in these variables.

Overall, the findings showed that there was an increase of emotional exhaustion and a smaller increase of teacher self-efficacy during the first year of beginning teachers' induction. It was also reported that prior emotional exhaustion predicts change in teacher efficacy. Yet, professional knowledge did not have a positive effect on professional teacher self-efficacy despite its effect on the hindrance of the increase of emotional exhaustion.

For the second professional knowledge variable, leadership, Zheng, Xin, Yin, and Li (2018) examined the relationships among instructional leadership, professional learning community components, and teacher self-efficacy in the context of mainland China with a questionnaire. The results indicated that instructional leadership had significant effects on the five professional learning community components, four of which - collaborative activity, collective focus on student learning, de-privatized practice, and reflective dialogue - positively predicted teacher self-efficacy. Analysis showed that collaborative activity, de-privatized practice, and reflective dialogue significantly mediated the effects of instructional leadership on teacher self-efficacy. Due to the principals' possible influence on individual teachers, a collaborative culture should be facilitated with a focus on student learning, and teachers' public discussions and criticism about teaching in schools should be encouraged through principals taking more responsibility for creating genuine collaborations among teachers.

As the third professional knowledge variable, expertise and experience was highlighted in the reviewed studies. For example, Tsouloupas, Carson, and MacGregor (2014) used representations associated with managing student misbehavior across disparate teaching experiences and teaching subjects to understand the development of teachers' efficacy in handling student misbehavior (TEHSM), years of teaching experience, and teaching subject. Data collected through interviews revealed 3 themes related to the development of TEHSM: (a) professional preparation and development from preservice through in-service years, (b) personal learning process, and (c) sources of support. Researchers pointed out that for the preparation and development of teachers, findings can inform the design of programs since such information may provide practitioners with the confidence to effectively handle student misbehavior themselves rather than simply ignoring students or removing them from classrooms.

3.2.1.3 Psychological variables as sources of teacher efficacy

The last theme related to sources of teacher efficacy was psychological variables including 1) emotional intelligence, 2) individual differences, and 3) attitude. In a study conducted in the Iranian context, Moafian and Ghanizadeh (2009) investigated the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' emotional intelligence and their self-efficacy in Language Institutes. The participants were asked to complete the "Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale" and the "Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire". Results revealed that there is a significant relationship between the teachers' emotional intelligence and their self-efficacy. Regression analysis was run in order to find out which components of emotional intelligence might have more predictive power in predicting teacher's self-efficacy. As a result, predictors of teacher self-efficacy were found to be emotional self-awareness, interpersonal-relationship, and problem-solving. For further research, researchers were suggested to conduct studies not only in private language institutions but also public schools to compare the results.

3.2.2 Beliefs regarding teacher efficacy

Teachers' beliefs regarding their self-efficacy were considered highly influential in determining success and failure in all facets of education (Wyatt, 2014). There have been several studies on how those beliefs are formed, how they change over time and how they are linked to other variables. The results revealed three themes: external, professional, and personal variables.

Hoy and Spero (2005) highlighted the scarcity of longitudinal studies tracking efficacy across the early years of student teaching and the induction year despite the influence of mastery experiences on the development of teacher efficacy. In their study, they reported the changes take place in teacher efficacy from entry into a teacher preparation program through the induction year. Results showed significant increases in efficacy during student teaching, yet significant declines were observed during the first year of teaching. Changes in efficacy during the first year of teaching were related by the researchers to the level of support received. Overall, it was stated that efficacy increased during teacher preparation and student teaching, but decreased with actual experience as a teacher. The researchers stressed the necessity of more studies to be carried out with novice teachers to understand how their successes and disappointments in their classrooms interact with the supports available in their school to produce enduring efficacy beliefs. The following questions were suggested to be asked for further studies:

- And what kind of support is most helpful in the early years of teaching?

- Many schools have initiated mentoring programs for teachers in their induction year. Does mentoring provide the kind of support that protects and builds efficacy? What features of mentoring have the greatest impact on efficacy beliefs?

- What structural features and supports make a difference in the formation of efficacy beliefs? For example, do teachers who start in middle schools with a team structure have higher efficacy than teachers who begin their careers in a traditional departmental structure?

- How can principals provide support? These and many other questions await investigation.

Having investigated professional variables, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007) claimed that mastery experiences can be considered as the most potent among the sources of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Therefore, other sources of self-efficacy were reckoned to be playing a larger role in early learning when fewer mastery experiences were available. Results indicated that contextual factors such as the teaching resources and interpersonal support available were much more salient in the self-efficacy beliefs of novice teachers. Among experienced teachers with mastery experiences, contextual factors played far less important a role in their self-efficacy beliefs. Researchers called for more studies, especially qualitative ones, on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their relations with vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, mastery experiences, physiological arousal, and contextual factors to equip teachers for the complex tasks of teaching. Furthermore, a significant emphasis was put on longitudinal designs to allow researchers to observe the periods of flux and stability of self-efficacy beliefs at different career stages and determine how these beliefs are formulated and sustained throughout the teaching career.

Focusing on personal variables, Putwain and Roberts (2012) examined the use of classroom fear and efficacy appeals form teachers' perspective as a first step in investigating fear and efficacy appeals form a teacher perspective. Findings revealed that teachers held mixed views towards the use of fear appeals and their domain knowledge of fear appeals, but more homogenous views about efficacy appeals, reassuring messages and domain knowledge of efficacy appeals. There were no differences in the endorsement of fear appeals or domain knowledge of fear appeals between novice and experienced teachers. The results can be beneficial to novice and trainee teachers to mind the types of messages they communicate to students and their communicational style and the possible effects

that they might have. Researchers recommended the examination of relations between endorsement of fear and efficacy appeals, along with domain knowledge of fear and efficacy appeals, with a measure of the classroom environment for further research.

3.2.3 Impact of teacher efficacy

Within the reviewed articles, the studies related to the impact of teacher efficacy on external variables, professional variables, and personal variables were classified under this theme. The following figure depicts the variables regarding the impact of teacher efficacy.
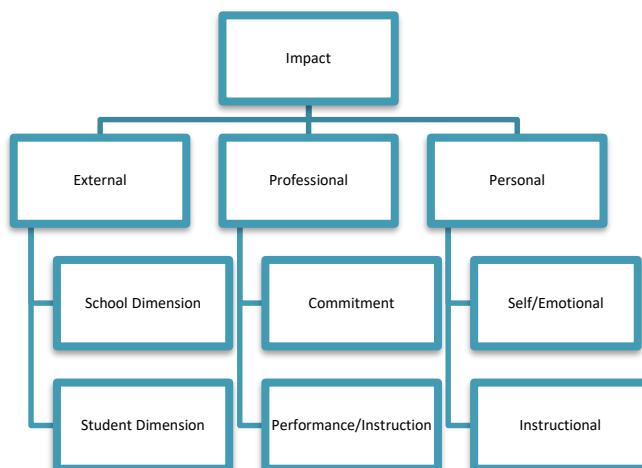
Figure 4. Impact variables of teacher efficacy

With the aim of exploring the construct of extra-role behavior in schools, and to examine the relationships between extra-role behavior and three factors: job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and collective efficacy, Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2000) worked with 251 Israeli teachers. Results demonstrated three distinctive facets of extra-role behavior, corresponding to three levels of the school system: the student, the team, and the organization as a unit. In addition, the results showed positive relations between job satisfaction and extra-role behavior at all three levels of the school system; self-efficacy was positively related to extra-role behavior towards the team and the organization; and collective efficacy was positively related only to extra-role behavior towards the team. Researchers

highlighted the importance of further research using longitudinal designs and time-lagged correlations to address the issue.

From a different angle, Tournaki and Podell (2005) examined how the interaction between student and teacher characteristics affects teachers' predictions of students' academic and social success. To collect data, three hundred and eighty-four general education teachers responded to (a) one of 32 possible case studies describing a student, in which gender, reading achievement, social behavior, and attentiveness were manipulated experimentally and (b) to a 16-item teacher-efficacy scale. Results indicated that teachers with high efficacy make less negative predictions about students and seem to adjust their predictions when student characteristics change. All teachers reported that students' inattentiveness would be tolerated more if they were friendly. All teachers made higher predictions of academic success for aggressive students reading on grade level, than for students reading below grade level even if they were friendly. Pre-service teachers are recommended to observe and apprentice with teachers who effectively address the academic and behavior problems of students with special needs in inclusive settings. Therefore, teacher preparation programs should ensure the placement of their candidates at least once in an inclusive setting. Furthermore, teacher education students should be trained to benefit from only relevant information in making predictions about students' academic and social success and to ignore the apparent tendency to use irrelevant information.

Moreover, Zhu, Liu, Fu, Yang, Zhang, and Shi (2018) investigated teacher self-concept and efficacy to detect the possibility of teacher efficacy being a mediator between teacher self-concept and burnout as well as whether such relationship remains constant across all groups of teachers with different gender and teaching experience. Results revealed that teacher self-concept influenced the burnout dimensions of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment via teacher efficacy. Also, it was found out that this mechanism worked equally across different gender and teaching experience groups. Further exploration of the integrated relationship in other cultures was recommended by the researchers. Researchers put forward the practicality of providing teachers with opportunities to experience successful or at least beneficial teaching while working with other peers or experienced teachers to prevent burnout and to promote students' learning.

4. Conclusion and Future Directions

In the current study, 138 articles on teacher efficacy published between 2000 and 2018 in prominent SSCI journals were reviewed with the aim of determining the progress made in the field, general inclination, and research focus. The following implications and future directions regarding teacher efficacy are offered as a result of the current review.

First, there need to be more studies combining quantitative data collection with the use of carefully designed scales and in-depth qualitative data collection to provide insights about teacher efficacy beliefs for teacher education programs.

Second, there is a need for broader understanding of teacher efficacy beliefs, their connections to other beliefs, and how these beliefs change and grow in time.

Third, employing accurate and specific self-efficacy measures with the aim of providing opportunities for researchers and teacher educators to determine and meet the needs of pre-service and in-service teachers is necessary. Wyatt (2014), in accordance with this suggestion put forward by several scholars, stated that the misinterpretation of the influence and the value of construct of self-efficacy and its inappropriate usage in studies brought out the development and implementation of incorrect interventions (Wyatt, 2014).

Fourth, although there have been a number of studies on the sources of teachers' self-efficacy, researchers highlighted the scarcity of research on the four sources of efficacy put forward by Bandura carried out with reliable measurement tools.

Fifth, perhaps one of the most disheartening encounters in this review is the scarcity of the research demonstrating the connection between teachers' efficacy and student outcomes. Therefore, the need for establishing a research base to clearly indicate the links between teachers' efficacy and student outcomes is in high demand, especially at the classroom level.

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Chapter 9

Review of studies into teachers' engagement with research

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Abstract

Language teachers' engagement with research is not straightforward. On the one hand, the topic of teacher research as a valuable form of teacher professional development, in which teachers are either consumers or producers of classroom-oriented research, has attracted considerable attention. On the other hand, the results show that most practitioners are reluctant to invest their time and energy into exploring their classrooms, or even read about classroom research. Arguing the need to promote teacher engagement with research, this chapter presents a principled review of a set of recent studies in order to report on different facets of teacher research. The review found that most research published in the peer-reviewed journals selected here concern four general strands: beliefs on research engagement, helping preservice teachers engage with research, practitioners' engagement with research, and examples of research-focused collaborative action, which serve as points of reference. In light of the findings, recommendations are offered for efforts to better develop the practice of teacher engagement with research.

Keywords: teacher research; teachers as researchers; language teacher education

1. Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature on language teachers' engagement with research. Although the term of *teacher research* may vary, it is generally used to refer to the engagement with research by teachers doing it or reading and using it (Borg, 2010, p. 391). Recently, the topic of language teacher research has attracted considerable attention and a full-length volume devoted to this issue was published (Borg, 2013). One possible reason for this interest is the positive impact of teacher research on teacher professional development. However, practice shows that not many teachers are willing to engage with research. They tend to either claim their inability to do it, or fail to perceive any tangible benefits for their work.

The motivation for the present review echoes Borg's (2010, p. 391-392) assumption; that is, to explore what is theoretically possible to do in terms of teacher research and to frame what the actual status of language teachers' engagement with research is like.

2. Search strategies

A few criteria were used to select studies for the present review. First of all, the studies were recent and had been recorded in data bases from 2000, were empirical, included the term *teacher research*, preferably referred to the practice of language teachers in the title, and were available for the online library system of the Pomeranian University in Słupsk, Poland. The studies were not excluded due to the researchers' perception of the quality of the research, and thus represent a broad "inclusive approach" (Ortega, 2010, p. 116).

Using the keywords, such as *language teacher research, teacher research, teachers as researchers,* two of the authors in this study conducted an extensive initial search. They identified the potentially relevant articles on the basis of the titles, independently read the abstracts and the results sections of the main texts, and conveyed those they deemed relevant to the third author who checked and made the final decision, whether to include or exclude a particular article from this review.

It must be noted that several studies are related to the general educational literature on teacher research. The reason is that the literature on language teachers' research is rather scant, whereas the studies in both language teaching and general education could offer a better range of theoretical and practical perspectives on teacher engagement.

The works identified for the review included 33 journal articles. All of them appeared in research-oriented journals. Within this broad area of teacher research, there are four groups that stand out in terms of the number of articles devoted to a particular topic. Articles that focus on teacher beliefs on research engagement form one group. A second one deals with helping preservice teachers engage with research, another one with practitioners' engagement with research, and several of them centre on research-focused collaborative action.

3. Results

3.1. Beliefs on teacher research

In the category of beliefs, nine papers were reviewed (Bai, 2018; Barkhuizen, 2009; Bartels, 2003; Borg, 2007; Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2012; Borg & Liu, 2013; Joram, 2007; Kutlay, 2012; Vrijnsen-de Corte et al., 2013). Examining what teachers think about teacher research has been motivated by the journal authors' need to learn the origins of teachers' beliefs, better explain teachers'

engagement with research, or its lack thereof, as well as understand teachers' affective and evaluative reactions to research.

Perhaps the idea of language teacher research beliefs has most been acknowledged by Simon Borg. Particularly interested in the nature of language teachers' engagement in research (2007; 2010; 2013), he has conducted a number of international studies. In his report on 62 English teachers of different teaching experience from Turkey, he points out that the teachers associate the conception of research with a 'standard' view of research, such as conducted by an academic, analyzed statistically, published, based on objectivity, hypothesis testing, control of variables and large-scale samples (Borg, 2007). The teachers also tend to perceive teaching and researching as two distinct activities, believing that the latter has no practical relevance to them. As for the role of institution in shaping teacher research engagement, the teachers claim (Borg, 2007) that research is not part of their workload, nor they have time to pursue it.

Much like Borg (2007), Kutlay (2012) investigated the conceptions of research held by 52 English language instructors from one public university in Turkey. In her study, a survey, rather than Borg's twelve scenarios, was used to elicit the data. The findings echo those by Borg (2007): the perception of research is guided by the scientific concepts and the teachers do not believe in the benefits of research for their classroom practice. The teachers in Kutlay's study also express the need for external motivation to do research.

Set in Saudi Arabia, the article by Borg and Alshumaimeri (2012) examines the research activity of 82 teacher educators who come from a leading university and are expected to conduct high-quality research. Interestingly, the Saudis' views on research also resemble those of Turkish teachers (Borg, 2007; Kutlay, 2012). The participants view reseach as experimental, statistical, large-sample based, systematic and purposeful. Yet, the levels of doing and reading research are very modest for the research culture they represent (a country's leading university) due to the participants' lack of time or knowledge. Both of the reasons are responsible for affecting the participants' self-efficacy in a negative way.

Set in China, the study by Borg and Liu (2013) adds another dimension to the notion of language teacher research. In their mixed study aimed at generating insights from Chinese English teachers' research engagement, the authors point out that the findings can be analyzed from at least three perspectives: engagement with research, engagement in research, and research cultures. As to the first, the Chinese teachers are only periodically engaged with reading

(especially before their self-evaluation for promotion) and search for the studies which would have a direct, immediate and positive impact on their classroom practices. Within their engagement in research finding, the participants point to lack of advisors, knowledge, or time, as well as difficulties with publishing, all of which seem good reasons for not doing research. As to the research cultures, there is no collaborative research ethos due to the competitive promotion system in China.

Also referring to the Chinese context, Barkhuizen's (2009) study provides evidence from a narrative frame method that was used with 83 tertiary English teachers within the framework of his course. The researcher explored the context-specific problems of English teachers that they would like to investigate, the type and aims of their research projects and possible constraints. He found that the participants would be more inclined to pursue qualitative research (interviews, observations, narratives, journals) than quantitative ones. Yet, the time constraints, lack of appropriate knowledge, students' unwillingness to cooperate with teachers in research projects, or lack of financial resources, may all have a powerful deterrent effect on teachers' classroom research.

Bai (2018) further delved into English teachers' beliefs in China in her comparative study of teachers from two Chinese tertiary institutions. On the basis of semi-structured interviews with 12 teachers from the two institutions, it transpires that the participants' beliefs about research refer to different cultures of the two institutions. For one institution, in which the teachers were not much research-engaged, research provided nothing significant, and was equal to commonsensical knowledge. In contrast, the teachers from the other institution could be considered critical thinkers. Most of them had been inducted into the research culture by their supervisors at an early stage and, in Bai's study, connected research to their personal research experience and the authority.

A study by Bartels (2003) might provide important insights into the differences between how 3 language teachers and three second language researchers view two kinds of academic texts, either researcher-oriented or teacher-oriented, and accept the other Discourse (Gee, 1990). The findings show that teachers and researchers use different ways of validating ideas and interpreting information. For example, teachers prefer experiential to empirical knowledge, rely on a shared sense of common situations to create a sense of community rather than refer to others' work, and generally do not accept the other discourse. Although the researchers in the study claimed that teachers'

lack of understanding of the academic discourse was due to their lack of training, or even "mental laziness" (p. 747), the truth might lie in teachers' different way of information processing that is more focused on practical and tangible aspects (like "What do we do on Monday?"), different professional interests and expected practices.

Joram (2007) described differences in the beliefs about research and what counts as knowledge held by preservice teachers (n=7), practising teachers (n=9) and teacher education professors (n=7). The study indicates that preservice teachers represent "the cult of the particular", according to which educational knowledge is not well received unless it is based on cases, specific teaching skills or a bag of tricks. In contrast, most professors in the study believe that general, not too specific, professional skills are needed for becoming a good teacher. The inservice teachers were in the middle of this continuum. The results indicate that the clashing epistemologies held by each group signal their different culture of thinking.

Vrijnsen-de Corte et al's (2013) article, the last one in this group, compares teachers and student teachers' perceptions of practice-based research in the settings of professional development schools (PDS) and non-professional development schools. The study included 102 participants who were surveyed with a specially developed instrument – the Questionnaire on Teacher Research (QTR). There were no significant differences between the 'school type' (PDS or non-PDS settings) with a weak trend in favour of PDS inclined to do practice-based research, but there were differences between students and teachers, especially in their references to the perception of research infrastructure, evaluating and reporting. Overall, the performance in specific research activities was low.

To conclude this part of the chapter, it can be said that teachers' engagement with research and in research is rather problematic. Most participants in the studies reported here represent modest or moderate levels of research engagement. They tend to complain about the lack of time, insufficient knowledge, poor research skills, or inadequate institutional support to carry out research projects which, in turn, negatively influence their teacher-researcher's motivation and confidence.

3.2. Helping preservice teachers engage with research

Another major strand of research into teacher research, which appears in the studies quoted here, looks into the ways of helping teacher candidates engage with research. The initiatives could, perhaps, be disseminated and copied by

other pre-service teacher educators who wish to promote teacher research. This strand is present in nine research projects (Blumenreich & Falk, 2006; Geyer, 2008; McDonough, 2006; Moran, 2007; Niemi & Nevgi, 2014; Parkison, 2009; Selvi & Martin-Beltran, 2016; Taylor, 2017, van Ingen & Ariew, 2015) that are described now.

Blumenreich and Falk (2006) examine how classroom-based research helps US teacher candidates from urban schools construct knowledge, engage in critical thinking and solve educational problems that are uniquely applicable to their own settings. Based on a year-long classroom-oriented inquiry with the employment of course documentation and 50 teacher-learners' formalized reflections, it was found that the culturally diverse or racial backgrounds of the teacher candidates influenced their interest in the selected topic (for example, problems with translation for immigrant caregivers). Their personal experience of a problem made it easier for them to develop its new understandings, affirm their own teaching intuition, transform their views of themselves as learners, modify attitudes and practices (for example, building a classroom community rather than reacting to negative behaviours in the classroom) and, finally, develop self-efficacy and confidence to teach.

The paper contributed by Moron (2007) serves as an example of a promising inquiry-based action research project conducted during an early childhood preservice teacher practice. Its aim was to describe how preservice teachers begin to think differently as a result of participation in teaching and research teams and, like researchers, how they begin to evidence change. In the project, two teaching teams (24 preservice teachers altogether) were focused on a joint task of implementing a project that would address children's needs and interests. The project contained many research components: a genuine problem, collaboration, multiple perspectives, teaching and research cycles, documentation. The findings presented in the article, which were based on only two teams and 6 participants chosen for a closer analysis, indicate that participating in the teaching and research project has developed the participants' disposition to inquire, reflect (including reflection-in-action), and collaborate. They have also increased the awareness of the value and need to share responsibility with other teammates for making their curriculum decisions as well as appreciated the role of documentation in making their thinking visible and public (which stands for knowledge dissemination).

Both McDonough's (2006) and Geyer's (2008) studies also serve as examples of action research projects, but on graduate teaching assistants. Using such instruments as a professional journal, reflectve essays, the course feedback, the

researcher's field notes and action research projects, McDonough investigates how participation in an action research seminar affects the professional development of the assistants. In Geyer's study, foreign language teaching assistants observe their own performance through two lenses: when teaching an entire class, and when teaching a targeted teacher-fronted activity. It seems that both action research projects prove valuable for the teaching assistants. McDonough's participants have changed their perception about research, collaboration and the dissemination of results, and found the presentation at a conference the most helpful outcome of the seminar. Greyer's project, in turn, presents a strong rationale for incorporating both whole-class (macro) and targeted (micro) observations into foreign language teacher education. Overall, projects of this kind seem successful in building teachers' awareness of research benefits and, undoubtedly, provide foundations for their future engagement with research. That said, the assistants in McDonough's project experienced a conflict between their action research project and institutional requirements, according to which the 'standard' idea of research is held in a higher esteem.

Parkison's (2008) study also deals with facilitating reflective professional practice of preservice teachers. The author attempted to explore the impact of field-based research on teacher candidates' professional dispositions after a scaffolded research project on early adolescence. What distnguishes this study is its democratic dimension. This is reflected in a series of assignments leading to three emergent concerns: scepticism with regard to the advice of 'experts' or instruction provided by teacher education programmes, curiosity about learning and the processes that facilitate learners' engagement which are used by professional teachers, and concern over power relations within the classroom (who holds power and authority?) (p. 799). The findings show that through preservice teachers' constructivist engagement, the connection between theory and practice can be created. The participants pose problems and questions, become active and agentic and, most importantly, move "beyond the ideology of accommodation" (p. 803). Clearly, there is a need for such programs that model reflective practice, develop engaged learning communities and contribute to future teachers' empowerment in becoming not only implementers of pre-packaged practice but also providers of new knowledge.

Niemi and Nevgi (2014) also refer to the teacher's role as a knowledge creator. In their quantitative data collected by electronic questionnaires at two Finnish universities (n=287), they aimed at finding out what student teachers had learnt in research studies (part of teacher education programme in Finland), how research studies predicted achievements in professional competences, and how

student teachers assessed the relevance of research studies. The results show that the participants value research experiences. The students scored high on their readiness to inquire, engagement in scientific research and independent thinking. Although the course in research studies was not considered leading in teacher education programme, it was perceived as valuable for designing their own instruction, cooperation, ethical commitment, and professional development. That said, the participants made a point about the importance of the quality of research studies taught at university.

An interesting research initiative which aimed at closing the research-practice gap was suggested by Ingen and Ariew (2015). The authors focused on how teacher candidates learn to access scholarly literature related to problems with teaching practice. They used an intervention for class A, and not for class B, which consisted of two workshops conducted in the cooperation with a librarian. The workshops addressed the tensions between broad and multifaceted problems of teaching practice and the narrow-scope of empirical research articles. It turned out that the group that had experienced the intervention were superior on the set of three indices: the relation of a research question to the identified problem (question index), search terms that covered major and minor problems (search index) and a choice of an appropriate article (article index). On the basis of this evidence, the authors conclude that workshops which target the articulation of the information need, the search strategies, or the match of an article to the information need are well worth the effort. Such workshops may become the foundational first step in the process of linking research to practice. The authors add that teacher educators' cooperation with librarians may strengthen preservice teachers' information literacy skills.

Selvi and Martin-Beltran (2016) investigated teacher-learners' engagement in the reconceptualization of second language acquisition knowledge through inquiry. In the study, 36 teacher learners were to prepare their focal point on the basis of pentagulation (their own autobiography, language learner interviews, a language teacher interview, research theory, and observation of a classroom). As a result, the participants challenged the SLA theory, struggled with contrasting perspectives and re-situated theory in light of past, present and future teaching and learning contexts. At all time, they positioned themselves as researchers and critical consumers of SLA theory. Thanks to this project, the students adopted inquiry as a stance, became more aware of 'scientific' look and, certainly, experienced growth and conceptual change.

Taylor's (2017) report on how 6 graduate student teachers become teacher researchers is the last article discussed in this group. The seminar course instructor adopts inquiry as a stance and positions students from the very beginning as fellow researchers (adequation). To achieve her aim, the instructor uses interaction in which she resorts to her personal experiences or recalls different 'pedagogical stories'. As a result, the potentially unattainable identity of teacher as a researcher is made student-friendly, whereas research, considered as a linear and complicated process, accessible to students. Such an attitude on the part of an educator may prove invaluable in better preparing future teachers for dealing with research.

It is obvious that all these attempts to prepare teacher candidates for engagement with research are important. The exposure to research formative contexts may, in the future, result in teachers' treatment of teacher research as a routine practice and their adoption of identities as teacher researchers. Therefore, providing as wide a range as possible of situations in which preservice teachers can interact with research and become aware of its relevance for the profession seems crucial.

3.3. Practitioners' engagement with research

While it is clear from the above discussion that engagement with research at preservice teacher education level is an acknowledged part of developing a teacher researcher's identity, practitioners' engagement with research has also been evident. Allwright (2005) made a call for inservice teachers' "exploratory practice" which would be focused on deeper understanding and then, if at all, problem solving. He emphasizes that language teachers have a right to develop their own understandings that will not copy academic patterns or lead to improvement by all means, as understanding involves "quality of life" (p. 360) rather than a mere quality of output. The articles by Berger et al. (2005), Bourke and Loveridge (2016), Rankin and Becker (2006), Rathagen (2006), Magos (2007), Reis-Jorge (2007), Sales at el. (2011), Bronkhorst et al. (2013), Meijer et al. (2013) present what the status of research is like among practitioners and confirm the ways in which inservice teachers can be engaged with research.

There exist valued ways for teachers to participate in classroom-based research so that they can understand their teaching better and develop professionally. One example of such participation could be Rathgen's (2006) article on Graham Nuthall and his research teams who regularly observed school classrooms in order to learn more about their dominant cultures. Rathgen's (2006) purpose was to explore the connection between teachers'

involvement in longitudinal classroom-oriented research projects and their professional learning, their possible modification of teaching practices, or a potential difference of the participation in Nuthall's project to their ongoing career paths. In the interviews, the teachers were full of praise for their research experience. They learnt about the hidden curriculum prevailing in their classrooms (for example, the contribution of students' own talk to their learning, students' caring more about their peers' judgement than their teachers' opinions, examples of sexism and racism in their classrooms), some of them were offered promotions and shifted their career focus, and all of them confirm that the new information on the realities of student experiences, which was gained in the project, has made an impact on their professional learning.

The article by Berger et al. (2005), much as Rathgen's (2006) contribution, also explores the impact of teacher research upon, not only the lives of individual teachers or their students, but also the culture of whole schools. Their study was based on ethnographic data involving visits to three schools recommended to the researchers for their interest in teacher research, interviews with teachers, and analyses of school documents. The results clearly indicate that, in order to have a profound impact on teachers, teacher research must be mandated, teachers must learn research skills, research must be part of the whole school culture, and research must be facilitated by an outside person.

The third research project aiming at teachers' and their school development is a contribution by Meijerr et al. (2013). Set in the Netherlands, the researchers conducted interviews with 45 teachers and 16 administrators following three school research initiatives, each lasting about one year. In their results, the authors quote Anderson and Herr's (1999) five criteria of validities which were to indicate the quality of practitioner research. What they evidence are references to the four validities: outcome validity (teachers developed research methods, skills in data collection and interpretation and, in one school, a critical attitude towards functioning in the classroom), democratic validity (students' functioning as co-researchers and the involvement of colleague teachers was rather ineffective), catalytic validity (teachers did not report a better understanding of research problems although their transformation of attitude could imply that it had happened), and dialogic validity (they all disseminated results outside schools presenting them at conferences and in journal articles).

Two other articles considered in this group (Magos, 2007; Sales et al., 2011) make a link between educational research and teachers' intercultural professional development. Magos's study describes an action research project in Thrace, a North-Eastern Greece, which aimed at developing teachers'

empathy for their minority pupils from a neighbouring Turkey. The results show that the training process challenged the teachers' former perceptions and attitudes with regard to otherness, their teachers' roles and classroom practice. Sales et al's (2011) contribution, in turn, reports on a case study conducted in a Spanish school over one academic year which aimed at explaining how action research methodology influences an intercultural and inclusive approach. The results of this research also indicate that the teachers' training brought changes to their previous deficit theory perspectives. It also empowered them as school leaders for change who could reflect critically and implement strategies for collaborative work and community participation in school.

Another insight related to the role a teacher's immersion in research can play on his or her views is that of Reis-Jorge's (2007). It is a two-year case study on 9 overseas teachers attending an in-service B.Ed. degree in TEFL run by a British university. The data were garnered via questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and direct observation. The results of the study suggest that although, after the course, the teachers gained more information about particular aspects of the classroom, became more cognizant of research methodology in terms of scope and focus of inquiry, the criteria imposed by academic regulations upon doing and reporting research may not be easily transferable or perceived as relevant by practitioners.

Rankin and Becker's (2006) emic study on a FL teacher's growth through reading research on oral corrective feedback enters the discussion of whether reading the research makes a difference on a teacher's practice. The teacher's initial treatment of errors and his final implementation of ideas in his own action research study reveals a series of conceptual changes that emerge and evolve in actual classroom use, after reading research about error correction. It transpires that what produces change is the teacher's own reflection that is linked to the findings and recommendations from the literature.

A somewhat related issue to the aspects considered in this group is Bourke and Loveridge's (2016) qualitative study on inservice teachers' treatment of research findings. The study was based on so called 'student voice', that is students' feedback on their teachers' work. The results show that, on hearing students' feedback, teachers interpret it through formal pedagogical lenses, either re-orientating the focus towards the curriculum, or the key competencies written in the documents. The authors suggest that teachers could be more challenged by their own students' voices rather than research data, especially if the voices in the data do not reflect their own views on their teaching.

Finally, a contribution by Bronkhorst et al.'s is an interesting account that explores 2 female teacher educators' experiences in a research design, as compared to other resarch designs. The results suggest that the educators' position in this research changed from being an instrument (as often portrayed in various research projects) to being an agent, from whose expertise researchers could clearly benefit. In the study, the educators desired to be perceived as creators, not users of knowledge, whereas the researcher exhibited several moments of learning from the educators' interpretations of some of the data. The study could be an example of a role reversal in teacher research. Teacher educators, who are practitioners, refuse to be treated as objects of research, but desire to be considered as those whose knowledge is equal to that of the others in the study.

By examining the articles that focused on the examples of practitioners' engagement with research, this part of the review has revealed several notable, and occasionally contradictory, findings. Inservice teachers can appreciate the value of engagement with research (Rathagen, 2006), which could even lead to the teachers' change in thinking (Magos, 2007; Rankin and Becker, 2006; Sales et al., 2011). Yet, they experience tensions related to the dilemma of teaching and doing research, consider the requirements of formal research difficult or the reports from research as practically irrelevant (Reis-Jorge (2007), especially if their self-views are dfifferent (Bourke and Loveridge, 2016). A more promising picture of the practitioners' engagement with research appears in the conceptions of teacher educators who claim ownership to some aspects of teacher knowledge. Perhaps they are the mediators that should be addressed to start inservice teachers' engagement with and in research in earnest.

3.4. Collaborative action

Although most reviewed papers described in this chapter were based on partnerships, so far the focus on the collaboration in teacher research has not been explicit. Active teacher involvement in a research process, the appearance of a zone of proximal development, building trusting relationships, or providing opportunities for a focused dialogue on teaching and learning are but a few examples of the benefits of collaboration. To address the issue of collaboration, the articles by Atay (2006), Brown & Flood (2018), Cornelissen et al., (2011), Henson (2001), Ponte et al., (2004), and Smith et al., 2009) have been reviewed, all of which taking the position that collaboration determines teacher research. The reference is made to only three of them in which the collaboration was particularly interesting.

Most collaborative projects are based on school-university partnerships in which university teachers assume the role of facilitators or experts whereas school teachers agree on examining their own practice (e. g. Cornellisen et al., 2011; Henson, 2001, Ponte et al., 2004). A somewhat unusual approach was employed in Smith et al.' s (2009) university-school project in which 6 teacher-researchers were used as ethnographers to gather data not directly related to their own practice, but on novice school teachers, first in their own schools, and then in other schools. The idea behind this was the facilitation of data collection from someone who has an 'insider' status. Results indicate that a new team ("community of enquiry") at school was formed and the study outcomes were communicated by teacher-researchers at workshops and mini-conferences involving teachers independently from those disseminated by academics. The study may illustrate a real partnership between academics' knowledge of research and the teachers' 'insider' knowledge. The teachers were not subjects in the data, but presented their own 'takes', developed their own identity as a coherent group (a sub-community within a community), which also made them more confident.

Another example of a unique university-school collaboration is Brown and Flood's (2018) account aimed at helping teachers develop and scale up research-informed practices. The teachers from a federation of three small schools took part in the project initiated by the federation principal, in which university provided the role of support. It was believed that teachers' engagement with theories of action (TOA) would aid teachers with translating available research evidence into their teaching practices. The academics organised four workshops, used pre and post intervention surveys as well as post in-depth teacher interviews. The findings of the project show that teachers' use of research tends to be conceptual rather than instrumental, that follow-up educational interventions result from adaptive translation rather than literal adoption of research outcomes, that effective scale-up is less related to the replication of existing strategies but more to the teachers' understanding why some solutions are more successful than others, and that the fidelity to a TOA is superior over the way it is operationalised.

In contrast to the previous research in this group, Atay's (2006) study involves a partnership between 6 Turkish preservice and 6 volunteer inservice teachers. This collaboration is noteworthy as preservice teachers are not normally permitted to research inservice teachers' classroom whereas inservice teachers have no sufficient time or training to conduct research. The purpose of the study was to explore how this collaborative project affected the professional competence of both preservice and inservice teachers. In the study, inservice

teachers identfied a research problem, both groups of teachers designed the study together, and then the preservice teachers collected and analyzed the data. The informal talks with inservice teachers, journals kept by preservice teachers and the researcher's field notes reveal that there are changes in the participants' perception about research. The practitioners' have increased the awareness of their own teaching and the appreciation of theoretical knowledge. The preservice teachers, in turn, have learnt a valuable lesson in which they 'struggled' over time along the experienced teachers.

Clearly, as the above articles suggest, teachers are after building their own capacity in a collaborative research project. As researchers, they can themselves discover how theoretical their work is and, via experiential knowledge, take ownership over it (Atay, 2006). They would also like to be acknowledged by academics as equal partners who impart valuable knowledge (Smith et al., 2009), have a choice and, then, create the most effective educational practice for their students (Brown & Flood, 2018).

4. Concluding remarks and recommendations

In the introduction, the dichotomy between the benefits of classroom research for the improvement of language teaching and learning and the teachers' actual attitudes towards research was noted. Indeed, teaching continues to be valued differently from research. Most teachers have been educated to accept the division between theory and practice, and what they know has usually been defined by others. In order to shift teachers' thinking away from considering teacher research as the purview of university experts, the understanding of what teacher research is, perhaps, needs revising. Therefore, in light of the articles reviewed here, the following recommendations are offered:

As for the change of teachers' beliefs on research, it seems worthwhile to:

- learn the teachers' rationale for (not) engaging with research,

- learn how teachers conceptualize research,

- scaffold discussions on teacher research and promote the 'culture of thinking',

- specify what counts as research and allow for more forms of teacher research,

- start with focusing on those teachers who are interested and eager to perform research activities,

- have teacher research applicable to the teachers' teaching contexts,

- have explicit expectations of teacher researchers,

- offer transparent statement of (for example, institutional) support: physical, financial, training, encouragement, recognition, provision of time,

- consider the 'washback effect' of teacher research.

As for initiatives on helping preservice teachers' engage with research, it seems worthwhile to:

- have language teacher education programmes that model refective practice and develop 'engaged learning communities',

- build awareness of research (for example, challenging SLA theory workshops, presenting evidence-based research practice),

- reinforce preservice teachers' information literacy skills,

- have a course in research studies an integral part of preservice teacher education programmes,

- give preservice teachers' a voice in terms of formulating research questions, generating data or drawing conclusions,

- take care of the quality of the course in research studies (for example, having instructors with a research orientation)

- promote 'inquiry' as a stance (for example, using adequation to position students as fellow researchers.

As for the promotion of inservice teachers' research, it seems worthwhile to:

- make teachers aware of their responsibility for challenging the existing *status quo* (for example, dealing with neoliberal educational reforms),

- address practically relevant questions and make a study a new tool to solve problems,

- collaborate with strong school principals who will champion the change,

- provide practitioners with support in terms of research skills (for example, looking at a problem from various perspectives),

- provide space and time for research, collective reflection, etc.,

- promote dialogical and democratic rules in a research project,

- perhaps start with quantitative methods which do not involve a paradigm shift and can be easier and faster for teachers to use,

- use teacher educators as facilitators, mediators or critical friends, and/or consider an outside actor (for example, a university teacher) to help,

- create new opportunities for teachers to affect the culture of the school, once teacher research is introduced to schools,

As for teachers' collaborative research projects, it seems worthwhile to:

- foster a collaborative research ethos,

- have collaboration based on dialogue and shared leadership, without teachers' feeling of being researched,

- position teachers as partners whose practical 'insider' knowledge is as relevant as academics' theoretical knowledge

- stress the importance of sharing responsibility with other research teammates,

- solve real educational problems *in situ*,

- encourage teacher educators to adopt inward looking perspective,

- build teacher-researchers' capacity through giving them a choice (TOA).

In conclusion, it can be said that skills of research are the same skills that make up good teaching. It is beyond doubt that those teachers who are competent in questioning, observing, reflecting, analyzing, evaluating, or connecting new understandings to prior knowledge, help students with

language learning. Therefore, it might be assumed that teachers' engagement with and in research is likely to affect their language teaching expertise in positive ways.

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Reflective Teaching in the field of Foreign Language Teacher Education:

Studies from 2000 to 2018

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Abstract

This article reviews a selection of research done in the field of reflective teaching within the framework of foreign and second language teaching and language teacher education. To this end, 40 studies related to reflective teaching were reviewed aiming to reveal the diversity of research done in the area of reflective teaching. This review includes the studies published in several prestigious journals from 2000 to 2018, and reflective practice is discussed with reference to four main categories: reflection in pre-service, reflection in in-service teacher education, reflection and action research, technology and reflective practice. As a result, this principled review offers insights in understanding the place of reflective practice in foreign language teaching and teacher education and suggests future studies enlightening the untouched areas of reflective practice.

Keywords: Reflective practice; teacher education; teacher research

1. Introduction

Mainstream educational research in the last two decades has attached great importance to reflective practice since it has a great impact on teachers' professional lives (Bailey, 2009; Brandt, 2006, 2008; Farrell, 2008; Mann, 2005; Mann & Walsh, 2017). Many researchers have championed reflective practice as an indispensable tool for teacher education (Larivee, 2008; 2010; Lee, 2007; Hepple, 2012; Waring, 2013) whereas there has been great dispute between researchers about its definition, implementation and measurement (Hobbs, 2007; Copland, Ma, & Mann, 2009; Makinster, Barab, Harwood, & Anderson, 2006).

The rising trend in reflective teaching is considered to be one of the natural consequences of the post method debate (Kumaravadivelu,

2006). Abkari (2007) summarizes the crisis in language education and teacher education as the underestimation in procedural and practical knowledge in language teaching, the need for a change in teacher qualifications and teacher competencies, and finally the need to hear teachers' voice more regarding their classroom practices. Therefore, such an effective principle that leads to better performance in classrooms, teacher development and professional growth would have various benefits.

Research indicates that reflective practice results in an increase in job satisfaction, an improvement in interpersonal skills underpinning collegial interaction, and teachers' sense of self-efficacy (Braun & Crumpler, 2004)

There are several studies supporting these benefits; however, there is no solid evidence indicating the practice of reflective teaching results in better student learning in classrooms. Better learning outcomes are considered as a matter of faith without any empirical evidence (Akbari, 2007). This is one of the pitfalls of the studies conducted on reflective practice. Another gap about the reflective practice in teacher education is the rarity of genuine reflection and good quality dialogic feedback (Copland, Ma, and Mann, 2009). Waring (2013) also highlighted the rarity of actual mentor-teacher interaction.

The aim of this review is to highlight the contemporary status of reflective teaching in foreign language teaching and teacher education reviewing the studies which claim the positive and negative impacts of reflective practice and exhibiting some critical perspectives in the literature and to explore the gap between what is theoretically possible and what is neglected in research for reflective teaching.

Key questions which guided this review include the following:

1. What are the common frameworks in the articles which reflection is studied in?
2. Are there any differences between the results of the studies conducted within the same framework?

3. Is there any gap or untouched area in the research area of reflective practice?

2. Method

Reflective practice in relation to foreign language teaching and teacher education is examined in articles, book chapters and books, notes/letters to the editor, responses to previous studies, conference proceedings, discussion articles, dissertations. Among these published works, articles which indicate empirical research with qualitative and quantitative studies conducted with participant teachers, guided by research questions, used data collection tools, and reported analysis and discussion were scanned in terms of study context, participant teachers, framework within reflective practice is studied, methodology, and results. The excluded published works include discussion articles, unpublished dissertations, notes/letters to the editor, responses to previous studies As a result, related articles published in *TESOL Quarterly, RELC Journal, Australian Journal of Teacher Education, ELT Journal, Reflective Practice, Teaching and Teacher Education, The Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research, Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language, Journal of Teacher Education, Mediterranean Journal of Educational Studies, Journal of Education for Teaching, International Journal of Technology in teaching and Learning, Publishing of IATEFL special interest group, Social and Behavioural Sciences, Teaching Education, and System* were selected to be analyzed comprehensively.

As a result, 32 studies published between 2000 and 2018 were identified for this review.

3. Results

3.1. Study Context, Participants, Frameworks and Methodology Reviewed

Table 1 displays the study context, participant teachers, frameworks within the reflective practice is studied and methodology in the studies

included in this review. The table shows the diversity of research on reflective teaching.

Table 1. Results related to some studies in Reflective Teaching in teacher education research

Study Context	N*	Participant Teachers	N*	Framework	N*	Method	N*
Asia		**In-Service**	**7**	Pre-service	12	**Mixed Method**	**3**
Far East	4	K12 Teachers	3	In-service	5	Qualitative	26
Middle East	11	University Lecturers	3	Action Research	3	Quantitative	3
Europe		Course Trainees	1	Technology	9	Total	32
Western Europe	3	**Pre-Service**	20	Reflective Tools	2		
Northern Europe	1	Undergraduate Ss	15	Feedback	1		
Southern Europe	1	MA Ss/Certificate Prog	5	**Total**	**32**		
North America		**Teacher educators**	1				
USA	7	**Both** (In & pre-service)	3				
Canada	1	**Both** (teacher educators & pre-service)	1				
Australia	3	**Total**	**32**				
Africa	1						
Total	**32**						

N*: Number of the Studies

In terms of study context, the results display that most of the studies in Asia belong to the Middle Eastern study contexts of Turkey and Iran (n=11). The remaining four studies were conducted in Thailand, Hong Kong and Japan. Majority of the studies in the European study context were conducted in Western European countries (n=3) such as United Kingdom, Ireland and Netherlands. Only one European study context

belonged to Finland and one from Cyprus. There were eight studies conducted in North America; USA (n=7), and Canada (n=1). The remaining study contexts were from Australia (n=3), which was followed by Africa (n=1).

Participant teachers varied in terms of their status. According to Table 1, majority of the studies were conducted with pre-service teachers, 15 of whom were undergraduate students and 5 of whom were MA students or trainees of certificate programs. In the in-service study contexts, K12 teachers (n=3), university instructors/teachers (n=3), and course trainees (n=1). There were three studies with both in-service and pre-service teachers and only one study that incorporated the contributions of teacher educators and pre-service teachers.

The frameworks within the reflective practice were analyzed also highlighted the diversity of research. The major inclination in researching the theory of reflective practice was towards the area of pre-service teacher education (n=12). There were more studies conducted with pre-service teachers as mentioned in the above paragraph; however, some of them were evaluated in other frameworks such as technology and action research. Nine studies were conducted to display the integration of technology in reflective practice. There were only five studies analyzed in in-service teacher education. The remaining frameworks were reflective tools (n=2) and feedback (n=1). Although there were several studies regarding feedback, the researcher included the one who made a direct relation to reflectivity.

According to Table 1, among the selected studies there was an inclination in using qualitative research design to explain the use of reflective practice in teacher education ((n=26). The qualitative studies used reflection papers, observation/field notes, course documents, video recordings and interviews to explore language teachers' attitudes, beliefs or experiences in reflective practice. The number of the studies which employed quantitative research method and mix-method research design were equal (n=3). In the studies which utilized mix-method, the

researchers first gathered data through surveys and supported their data with interviews or reflection journals. Finally, quantitative studies reported on the findings of the survey conducted with teachers to display their level of reflectivity or attitudes and beliefs in reflective practice.

3.2. Analysis of the frameworks within reflective practice

Thirty-two studies with empirical evidence were analyzed and studied from many vantage points; pre-service teacher education, in-service teacher education, technology, action research and the frameworks requiring much more attention as research areas.

3.2.1. *Reflective practice within pre-service teacher education*

A considerable number of studies was analyzed to investigate the place of reflective practice in pre-service teacher education. As inexperienced practitioners, pre-service teachers are unlikely to construct explicit personal theories about language teaching, and they often find it difficult to reflect critically on classroom practices (Akbari, 2007; Alger, 2006). However, most research advocates the benefit of the use of reflective practice in pre-service teacher education as through reflection, they can develop their pedagogy, draw conclusions from their teaching practice which can then shape their future teaching. Hepple (2012) conducted a study with preservice teachers from Hong Kong taking part in teacher education program in a transnational school in Australia. Participant teachers found the discourse in language classes in Australia different from their own context as in the former one, pupils were verbally more active and initiated the questions in the classrooms, which was an unfamiliar experience for the participant teachers from Hong Kong. Through analyzing participant teachers' dialogues, it was found that they could recontextualize classroom encounters which were dissimilar to their own teaching/learning context. Another study conducted with pre-service teachers from Hong Kong was Lee's (2007) research. Lee (2007) investigated the impact of reflective practice on pre-service teachers teaching experiences by dividing the participant group into two groups. One group wrote dialogue journals and the other group wrote response journal. According to the research, dialogue and response journals enabled pre-service teachers to engage in reflective thinking, and all the

student teachers found the experience of journal writing beneficial. From a different angle, Luk (2008) investigated the impact of reflective journals on pre-service teacher education. The study explored the discourse features affecting the quality of reflective journals, and it was suggested that professional preparation programs trained the novice teachers in terms of discourse of reflections so that trainees could write reflections more effectively. The last study from Far-east context regarding the pre-service teacher education explored that student teachers in Taiwan context mentioned practical journals in their reports (Liou, 2001). However, student teachers did not indicate great development in the area of critical reflection within six-week period. Therefore, it was suggested that teacher candidates be provided a lower affective state and collaboration within large groups to promote reflectivity.

From American context, Alger (2006) displayed the growth of reflection in pre-service teacher education highlighting both positive and negative remarks. First, undergraduate students valued reflection and developed the reflection as a skill during the process of writing narratives about their teaching experiences. Second, student teachers changed their mindset regarding the teacher-centered classrooms and moved to a more learner-centered classroom. Leaving the positive impacts of reflective practice aside, some important remarks were highlighted in the same study; first, without a cooperating teacher, supervisor or a colleague who would examine the strengths and weaknesses of a lesson, critical reflection done by the student teachers would remain scarce. Besides, without collaboration student teachers' efforts would remain as personal endeavor. Similarly, Uzum, Petron and Berg (2014) studied the impact of reflective practice in pre-service teacher education assigning student teachers reflective essays about their initial classroom experiences within a sheltered instruction at a local middle school in the US. The researchers concluded that reflectivity helped student teachers explore diverse educational contexts. Loughran (2002) highlighted the significance of reflection on experiences and reported that experience itself did not lead to learning; nonetheless, reflection on experience was essential.

Writing reflection reports was used as a tool in the study carried out by Yeşilbursa (2011) applying a mixed method approach to explore what and how pre-service teachers at a Turkish university reflected upon their micro teaching sessions at a campus-based course. Students teachers were expected to write a reflection report upon watching his/her video-recorded micro-teaching sessions. It was found in the study that student teachers could reflect on potential future problems, in other words some of them engaged in an activity what Freese (2006) called '*anticipatory reflection*' (in Yeşilbursa, 2011, p. 57). Students teachers could also do positive and negative evaluations with respect to their micro teaching sessions. The other conclusions were about student teachers' perceptions of 'self' through video-recorded micro-sessions. These discoveries were about word choice, classroom management, voice quality and self-image. Yeşilbursa (2011) found the use of reflective practice beneficial and suggested that teacher education programs should tap into student teachers' reflectivity.

Among the studies on the framework of pre-service teacher education, there is only one African context where the scene at practicum teaching is displayed. Degago (2007) criticized the practicum teaching at their context and reported that the program did not enable student teachers to think critically and creatively. To this end, student teachers wrote guided reflection journals after each experience. The biggest challenge for the student teachers was to identify the strengths and weaknesses and to show evidence from the classroom events proving these strengths and weaknesses. Another challenge was to discuss these weaknesses as their supervisor was the researcher of the study. All in all, student teachers concluded that they improved teaching skills and they learned complexities involved in teaching. Hobbs (2007), from European context, investigated the teachability of reflective practice, which supported the challenges of the previous study. Hobbs claimed that reflective practice could be examined in various forms such as reflective journals, an essay, an autobiography or a group discussion. Albeit this diversity, the common feature of these documenting was the fact that they were all required assignments. The researcher attended a teacher education course at Trinity College with an insider status, which made it possible to obtain insights into course participants' experiences and

genuine feelings and thoughts. The researcher concluded that the implementation of reflective practice for assessment purposes restricted its effectiveness and authenticity as the course participants reflected strategic beliefs and opinions. To conclude, Hobbs (2007) suggested that course participants chose the format of the reflection assignment and ended up with an idea that reflectivity should not be assessed in the early stages of a teacher. On the contrary, assessment of reflective practice should be considered only when the teachers gained confidence and awareness in a non-threatening atmosphere.

Among the reviewed studies, the ones in the European context investigated the reflective practice using different tools. In Finland, Husu, Toom and Patrikainen (2008) used guided reflection as a tool to reveal the impact of reflectivity among pre-service teachers. Stimulated recall interviews were carried out to reflect on student teachers' videotaped lessons. Critical incidents were chosen to discuss by the student teachers. After a week period, with the help of the researcher, student teachers tried to evaluate the incident from different points and in wider context. Student teachers reported professional growth as a result of guided reflection in their practicum. Contrary to many previous studies, wherein student teachers often relied on self-related concerns in their reflective practices, various kinds of reflection were used when analyzing their teaching practices. It was also highlighted in the study that although student teachers questioned their practices, they found it difficult to address long-term inquiries in their profession. With the aim of integrating the use of portfolio in reflective practice, Mansvelder-Longayoux, Beijard and Verloop (2007) did research in a teacher education course aiming to examine the learning activities of student teachers while compiling their portfolios. 25 student teachers and apart from the researchers 8 supervisors from university staff were selected. At the end of the study, it was found that guidance and supervision of the production process of the portfolios were extremely important to help student teachers develop an understanding about learning activities. Additionally, the tendency of the student teachers was to inquire 'what

works' and 'how can I', so through portfolio supervision, student teachers should gain a habit of asking 'why' question.

3.2.2. *Reflective practice within in-service teacher education*

Fewer studies were conducted with in-service teachers compared to the studies with pre-service teachers. The studies examined in the previous section demonstrate that writing reflective journals enabled pre-service teachers to express themselves deeply. Likewise, there are some studies that investigate the use of reflective journals in in-service teacher education. Abednia et al. (2013) found that writing journals contributed to the in-service teachers' self-awareness and reasoning skills. Teachers of English could think critically thanks to the reflection journals as they could identify their strengths and weaknesses while reflecting and writing. This indicated the effectiveness of writing journals since teachers had enough time to reflect, write, reconsider and revise the writings. It was drawn from the study that teachers gained autonomy as they could find the opportunity to restructure the process of learning and teaching. What was remarkable about teachers' reflections was early journals were reflecting experts' views rather than their own thoughts; however, as they developed their reflection skills through writing journals, they could construct their own understanding in the light of their personal experiences (Abednia et al., 2013).

In Canada context, Farrel (2016) conducted a study that investigated three novice English teachers' reflection journey with the assumption that novice teachers had to survive without support in their first year of teaching. Weekly discussions were held to enable teachers to *reflect on* their teaching experiences and interviews were carried out before and after the group discussions. Results of this qualitative study showed that novice teachers found a disconnection between the teacher education programs and real ESL/EFL learning environment, which led teachers of English to feel disillusioned and question their career. As a result, it was suggested that programs which trained pre-service teachers should design such courses integrating the framework of *reflection on practice* so that prospective teachers could face many challenges in their first years. It is of significance to note that this study highlighted the necessity of

the integration of the reflective practice in courses at pre-service teacher education with a counter argument to Hobbs (2007), who claimed that reflection done at undergraduate level did not indicate any signs of genuine reflection as most of the reflective practices were presented as course requirements which led to misleading results about reflection, and also to Akbari (2007), who pointed out that reflection with novice teachers could be dangerous as it might lead to insecurity among teachers.

Quantitative studies were also held in reflective practice with in-service teachers (Afshar & Farahani, 2015; Noormohammadi, 2014). These studies utilized teachers at Iranian EFL teaching context. Afshar and Farahani (2015) investigated the relationship between reflective teaching and reflective thinking practices of Iranian EFL teachers with respect to gender and teaching experience. English Language Teaching Reflection Inventory (Akbari, 2009, 2010) and Teachers' Reflective Thinking questionnaire (Choy & Oo, 2012) were used as survey tools. The researchers implemented two different survey tools with the assumption that a teacher able to think reflectively might not necessarily able to teach reflectively. 233 in-service EFL teachers participated in the study, and the results indicated that there was a positive relationship between these two issues. The study also displayed that male teachers outperformed their female counterparts with respect to reflective teaching and reflective thinking. Besides, there were differences between the participants regarding their teaching experience. High-experienced group was found to be the best practicing group in terms of reflectivity whereas low-experienced teachers were the weakest group among their counterparts to apply reflective teaching. A similar study was conducted by Noormohammadi (2014) who investigated the relationship between teacher reflection and teacher efficacy and autonomy. English Language Teacher Reflective Inventory (ELTRI) (Akbari et al., 2010) was utilized to measure reflective teaching of 172 EFL teachers. To measure teacher efficacy, Tschannen-Moran & Hoy's Teacher Efficacy Instrument (2001) and to measure autonomy Pearson and Moomaw (2006) teacher

autonomy inventory was used. It was concluded that reflective teaching is closely related to teacher efficacy issues and being reflective enabled teachers to become more autonomous. In line with the results of the study, Noormohammadi suggested that teacher educators and administrators organize training sessions to familiarize the EFL teachers with theoretical and practical basis of reflective practice and EFL teachers who got feedback about their reflective practice would get more committed to teaching, which would naturally increase their efficacy level.

3.2.3 *Reflective practice and action research*

Action research has been used as a tool in EFL context as it brings different components in language teaching and learning together. Researchers of reflective practice also utilized action research which targets a real classroom problem and integrates the data coming from language learner, language teacher, in some cases, mentor teachers and teacher educators.

Out of 32, 3 studies focused on the relation between action-research and reflective practice. Atay (2006) conducted collaborative action research at a school in Turkey with an assumption that through collaboration both prospective teachers and experienced teachers would become more reflective. 6 pre-service and 6 in-service English teachers were brought together in a professional developing setting at university. Data collection tools were informed talks with in-service teachers, journals kept by pre-service teachers and researcher's field notes. At the end of the collaboration process, teachers could observe, evaluate and reflect on their L2 teaching practices. Furthermore, both pre-service and in-service teachers appreciated this mutual work (Atay, 2006).

A similar study was conducted at a Turkish university by Kırkgöz (2017). The researcher, acting also as the mentor teacher, collaborated with five English teachers working at three different schools at primary level. Teachers of young learners detected a common classroom problem at first, which was the fact that young learners of English forgot what they learned very quickly so learning did not become permanent. Kırkgöz (2017) as the co-researcher helped teachers apply the four stages

of action research. They discussed the present situation and their teaching practice at the time of research. Then participant teachers read the literature on this issue which the researcher of the article identified. Then the teachers planned their lesson with various activities selected from a list of activities. The next step was putting their plan into action. The teachers taught the vocabulary items making associations with real objects and adding some kinesthetic activities appealing to young learners. In the next step, teachers observed the effectiveness of the action and checked the learnt material using different activities at intervals. Participant teachers' written reflections showed the positive impact of action research engagement, the researcher's help, guidance and support and they thought the involvement in this research contributed to their professional development. The results of the study are remarkable as it is concluded in the study that how effectively mentoring nurtures and facilitates the process of professional growth in teachers.

From a different angle, in Australian context, Edwards and Burns (2016) studied action research as a reflective practice highlighting the sustainability of action research through time. 16 experienced teachers participated in the study and both interviews and a Likert type scale were used as research instruments. Therefore, a mixed study approach was used in the analysis of the study. The results of the study yielded that between one and four years of completing AR (Action Research) program, majority of the teachers adopted a research perspective sustained over time. Those teachers became more confident, reflective, and flexible in their approach to teaching, adopted a research framework for other tasks, and felt recognized and valued by their managers and colleagues.

The three different studies mentioned here justifies the benefits of conducting action research by contributing to teachers' professional growth.

3.2.4. Use of Technology in Reflective Practice

Use of technology has been highly appreciated by the EFL/ESL teachers and teacher educators and researchers and various research has been carried out to display the effective use of technology in language teaching. The practitioners of reflective teaching did not keep distant to this area and conducted many studies about the use of technology in reflective teaching. To this end, studies mentioned in this framework investigated the implication of technology to promote reflection.

It is obvious that reflective journal writing is widely used to promote reflective teaching. The easy access to technology in language learning and teaching led to the use of computer-based journal writing. In the USA context, Lai and Calandra (2007) investigated whether computer-based scaffolds could promote pre-service teachers' reflectivity. To this end, both teacher educators and pre-service teachers participated in the study. With one-on-one interviews, the researcher aimed to examine the challenges pre-service teachers encountered while writing journals and the strategies that teacher educators developed to solve pre-service teachers' problems.

With the aim of connecting technology use with reflective practice, Yang (2009) conducted a qualitative study with pre-service teachers of English in Taiwan. Using blogs which teacher educators designed, pre-service teachers critically reflected on their learning process. The researcher analyzed this process through posted messages, comments on the blog and group reflection dialogs. As a result, participants found this platform useful for reflecting and communicating with each other.

The technique of video recording the teaching has been used to support reflection in pre-service teacher development programs worldwide (Baecher et al., 2013; Eröz-Tuğa, 2013; Güngör, 2016; Kourieos, 2016; Susoy, 2015). Güngör (2016) detected the problems and weaknesses in teaching skills for young learners using video-recorded micro-teaching techniques. The diaries and video-recorded discussions revealed that pre-service teachers of English had some problems about classroom management issues such as giving instructions, material adaptation for young learners, too much concentration on teaching

stages in the lesson plan. Additionally, self and peer reflection revealed that pre-service teachers of English had problems regarding the use of language skills, particularly in speaking skills during storytelling in micro-teaching sessions. The study indicated that prospective teachers developed a critical eye on their own teaching, they gained awareness about the nature of a young learner classroom and they could easily come up with solutions to the problems they encountered, which facilitated problem-solving process. All in all, the whole procedure helped them develop observation and decision-making skills, self-reflection and critical thinking and helped them become autonomous learners. Similarly, Kourieos (2016) integrated the reflective component in the learning and teaching process to bridge the gap between theory and practice in the English Language Teaching department at a university in Cyprus. To reach substantial results, recordings of videotaped micro-lessons, a classroom discussion, a pre-observation self-reflective form, and a post-observation evaluation form were used in the study. The incorporation of video into the microteaching practice had a positive impact on pre-service teachers' awareness of the theoretical aspect of English language teaching at primary level through observation and reflective feedback. A very similar study was conducted by Susoy (2015) investigating the impact of video-recordings in pre-service teachers' reflectivity. Both qualitative and quantitative data analysis tools were used to measure the reflectivity of the participants. In addition to video recordings, the researcher used reflective journals and open-ended questionnaire. Similar to the previous studies, gaining awareness about their weaknesses was the most striking result. For instance, pre-service teachers gained insight into their insufficient L2 use.

Harford (2008), one of the researchers investigating the impact of video-records on reflective teaching, highlighted the disadvantages of using this technology as well as the advantages. 20 pre-service teachers at a teacher education program in an Irish School participated in Harford's (2008) study. The impact of peer-videoing on classroom practice and collaboration was investigated. It was revealed that the peer-

videoing both contributed to their reflective skills and increased the quality of critical discussions between the teacher candidates. However, the problems about technical and logistical issues in using technology; the feeling of under scrutiny as a result of peer-videoing, the sense of artificial atmosphere the recorded lesson created, and students hesitant to interact were raised as disadvantages by the pre-service teachers.

With the aim of helping pre-service teachers to develop self-awareness about their teaching potential and shortcomings, Eröz-Tuğa (2013) incorporated video-recorded lessons into the practicum. The researcher assumed that video-recorded lessons would not only facilitate pre-service teachers' reflectivity but also reduce the tension pre-service teachers had due to the assessment by the supervisor at the end of the practicum experience. Reflective teaching practice which the researcher offered to 11 participants involved two video-recorded lessons accompanied by feedback sessions before their assessed teaching. The feedback sessions were designed in a way that both the trainee himself made critical reflection and the peer gave feedback on classroom sessions after watching the video of the recorded lesson. The results obtained by qualitative analysis of the data indicated that watching their videos enabled pre-service teachers to have a critical perspective on their own teaching and become more conscious of weaknesses and strengths regarding classroom issues. Feedback sessions also contributed to the reflective practice of pre-service teachers as they could constructively criticize their partner's performance and consequently, they depended on each other more. The study conducted by Baecher et al. (2013) was similar to the study carried out by Eröz-Tuğa (2013) since Baecher investigated how video recordings influenced the self-evaluation process of the teacher candidates in their early developmental process. Both the supervisors and teacher candidates (n=31) evaluated 20-minute lessons using an evaluation rubric presented by the researcher. The reflections made by the participants revealed that focused video analysis was an effective tool to transform the course design and promote teacher candidates' self-awareness of their classroom practice. Additionally, teacher candidates not only appreciated pre-rated model cases of teachers who were ahead of them in their coursework, but also, they

were more reflective about the assessment tool and how video contributed to their continued teacher development.

Contrary to the previous studies which utilized the pre-service teachers as the participants, Horasanlı and Ortaçtepe (2016) investigated the impact of online reflections on in-service teachers attending a master program at a foundation university in Turkey. The in-service teachers were assigned to read articles and answer the reflection questions on MOODLE. This computer program enabled teachers to write a post or reply on each other's comments. The researchers used discussions and interviews besides online reflections and drew conclusions about reflection-on-action, in-action and for-action. Researchers claimed that the online reflections contributed to the participants' learner and teacher identities. The in-service teachers developed their teaching practices as they learned new strategies and techniques used by their classmates. Within the framework of reflection-in-action, in-service teachers shaped their teaching practices according to the teaching context and students' needs. Finally, preparing plans for the future such as improving teaching practices, developing students' learning, and contributing their institutions were the conclusions drawn for reflection-for-action.

The last study within the technology framework presents the negative sides rather than the positive ones. With the aim of comparing the effects of electronic portfolio and pen/paper portfolio on reflective thinking ability, Koçoğlu (2008) conducted a study with 10 senior EFL student teachers. 5 students used Hyperstudio authoring tool to create their electronic portfolios to write reflections about classroom observation tasks, evaluation papers, and narratives of everyday events while the other 5 EFL student teachers continued to develop their portfolios using pen/paper. The results indicated that preparing a pen/paper portfolio was found useful as it contributed to professional development in terms of reflective thinking and self-confidence. On the contrary, preparing an electronic portfolio did not facilitate reflective thinking as the student teachers were more concerned about the technicalities and the layout of

the electronic portfolios rather than the content. Consequently, critical reflection in the electronic portfolios was mostly absent (Koçoğlu, 2008).

2.2.5. *Areas that need further attention about reflective practice studies*

Many researchers have championed reflective practice as an essential tool for teacher education despite the differences of its definition, implementation and assessment (Coulson, 2013; Farrell, 2008; Larivee, 2008; Mann, 2005). Furthermore, most research examined the reflective practice qualitatively; however, very few studies concentrated on developing quantitative tools to measure reflectivity of teachers.

Akbari, Behzaadpoor, and Daadvan (2010) claimed that there was not any published research indicating the positive or negative effect of teacher reflection on L2 learners' achievement or efficiency due to the unexplored components of reflective practice, which hindered the quantification of reflection. Therefore, Akbari et al. (2000) designed an instrument to provide a model for reflection in applied linguistics. Besides, allowing for the quantification of reflection, which would lead to further empirical research was their secondary aim. With the contribution of 300 EFL teachers who provided statistical data, the researchers designed a 29-item instrument. The factors in the tool were *practical, cognitive, affective, critical, and moral* factors that identified reflective teachers' dispositions and behaviors. Likewise, Larivee (2008) designed an instrument (Tool for Assessing Development as a Reflective Practitioner) with the aim of establishing the level of reflection of a teacher candidate or a practicing teacher. The instrument consisted of four levels: Pre-reflection, practical reflection, pedagogical reflection, and critical reflection. Larivee (2008) suggested that establishing the level of a teacher candidate or practicing teacher, the mentor teacher or the supervisor develop intervention strategies to promote the higher levels of reflection. Therefore, with strategic scaffolding teachers could be encouraged to reflect on and modify their classroom practices.

The other area that needs further attention from the researchers of reflective practice is the 'feedback', which nourishes the reflective practice. Despite the great emphasis on reflection, Copland, Ma, and Mann (2009) note the scarcity of genuine reflection and highlight the

necessity for a dialogic approach to feedback. Similarly, Waring (2013) mentions the rarity of actual mentor-teacher interaction, which makes it difficult to bridge the gap between the theory and practice. Therefore, Waring (2013), in his qualitative research conducted with two mentor teachers, highlighted the significance of quality of post-observation conference in supervision where the practicing teacher was given space to explain problems and find solutions along with the help of mentoring and claimed that mentor's assessment or advice could function as triggers for teacher reflections.

4. Conclusion and Implications

The reviewed research shows that reflective practice is diverse in application, interpretation, documentation and implications. The experience of teachers, supervisors, mentors and the contexts where reflective practice is applied presents several variables for each study. Four main categories were deduced as a result of critical review of diverse studies: Reflection in pre-service and in-service teacher education, reflection and action research, technology and reflective practice. Developing tools to measure reflectivity of teachers and the effect of dialogic reflection through feedback are considered as the areas that need further research.

There is an argument that reflection is not appropriate for pre-service teachers since reflective practice might not catch pre-service teachers' attention as pre-service teachers are in the early stages of their careers, so they are more concerned about their self-image and approval rather than improving students' learning (Akbari, 2007). However, it is obviously seen that majority of the reviewed studies conducted to investigate the impact of reflective practice utilized the pre-service teachers as the participants and most of them yielded positive remarks about the insightfulness of teacher candidates into self-awareness and the ability to detect their weaknesses and strengths due to the reflective practice. Most of the studies imply that pre-service teachers have stepped on the path of autonomous teachers. Furthermore, the reviewed studies

display that reflective teaching is sought in practicum teaching as it introduces prospective ELT professionals to the real world of teaching where they can have the opportunity to observe experienced teachers and put their theoretical knowledge into practice. Thus, through practicum teaching, trainees can become insightful about their own teaching practices, discover their own weaknesses and strengths in teaching and find ways to improve their classroom performance (Eröz-Tuğa, 2013).

One of the most striking conclusions drawn from the reviews is the widely used reflection journals within the frameworks of pre-service teacher education, in-service teacher education, action-research, and even use of technology. Coulson and Harvey (2012) suggest that effective reflection requires a capacity for critical self-awareness of values, beliefs and assumptions as well as openness to challenging perspectives. Hence, higher order cognitive processes are required effective critical reflection and metacognition; therefore, assigning reflective journals is not sufficient to support reflective teaching practice; indeed, effective scaffolding is vital to achieve reflective goals.

The rarity of the studies investigating the reflective practices of in-service teachers is another issue to ponder. Very few researchers targeted the practicing teachers and most of them concentrated on promoting reflectivity of pre-service teachers. Moreover, only three researchers facilitated the collaborative study of the two groups (Atay, 2006; Kırkgöz, 2017; Waring, 2013). This may stem from the ease and accessibility of pre-service teachers training at undergraduate level and teacher education programs as most of the researchers were professors working at the same contexts. To this end, bureaucratic procedures might be eased to make the schools available for such studies and encourage researchers to work with practicing teachers. Furthermore, Akbari (2007) claims that better learning outcomes are taken as faith without any empirical support and little evidence shows reflection will result in higher student achievement. Through the studies conducted with in-service teachers, researchers might reach empirical data that indicate genuine student performances as a consequence of teachers' reflective practice.

The ease, affordability, and accessibility of digital video records of teaching has made video an increasingly essential educational tool. Videoing was found to be a powerful catalyst for reflection and critical dialogue among student teachers (Harford, 2008). Furthermore, video recordings enable trainees and trainers to see the teaching practice in a different way, through an 'objectifying' lens (Copland, Ma, & Mann, 2009, p.21). Video recordings are also regarded as opportunities as they store the critical incidents for further discussion. Besides video-recordings, online reflective journals, blogs and online discussion groups, digital program Moodle were the technological instruments researchers used to assess teachers' reflectivity. All of them except one (Koçoğlu, 2008) yielded positive remarks about using technology in reflective practice. It is of significance to note that except for the study of Horasanlı and Ortaçtepe (2016), who benefit from in-service teachers' views, all the studies are conducted with pre-service teachers studying at undergraduate level or training at a teacher education program. Therefore, more chance can be given to practicing teachers to use technology in reflective teaching process and more research can be carried out to incorporate technology into practicing teachers' reflective environment.

Finally, the areas that need further attention in the research field of reflective practice are mentioned above. The number of studies that utilize the quantitative tools to measure the reflection level of teachers can be increased and these tools can be applied in different countries evaluating the level of reflection from educational, social and ideological perspectives of language teachers. Furthermore, critical feedback integrated dialogic reflections can be studied more since the significance of mentor scaffolds are harshly advocated by researchers in the field of reflection (Copland, Ma, & Mann, 2009; Coulson & Harvey, 2013; Waring, 2013).

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Chapter 11

Assessment and Evaluation in English Language Teaching: Review of the Research Articles from 2000 to 2018

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Abstract

This study aims to review the research articles about language assessment and evaluation which were published between 2000 and 2018. To this end, the research articles that appeared in twenty-four academic journals were listed, and then they were meticulously examined according to the criteria given in the method section below in order to determine the twenty-six research articles to be reviewed in detail. The main findings of these articles were summarized in seven assessment-related themes: assessing language skills, alternatives in language assessment, assessing young EFL learners, teacher-based assessment, language assessment literacy, language assessment policies and washback effect. This review not only presents an overall picture of language assessment and evaluation studies carried out between 2000 and 2018 but also provides thought-provoking perspectives for the researchers of EFL/ESL assessment.

Keywords: Research on English language testing, English language assessment, evaluation in ELT

1.Introduction

Language testing and assessment, which have gained increasing importance in research studies over the years, contribute to the educational developments in the field of teaching English as a foreign language (EFL). Providing feedback on the dynamics of instruction (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 8), language testing and assessment perform an active role in the specifications of teaching-related practices and decision-making processes about language attainment. According to Madsen (1983), language testing not only presents EFL learners with opportunities to develop "positive attitudes" towards learning and to "master the language" but also enables EFL teachers to recognize teaching strengths and weaknesses (p. 4).

In the relevant literature, "measurement" "test", "assessment" and "evaluation" are the terms which are commonly employed to describe "collecting information" (Bachman & Palmer, 2010, p. 19). Specifically, Bachman (1990) defines the

measurement in social sciences as "the process of quantifying the characteristics of persons according to explicit procedures and rules." (p. 18). As a part of the aforementioned process, a *test* in language teaching is used as a tool to measure the constructs specified in language teaching (Douglas, 2010). As for the *assessment*, it refers to "a systematic procedure for eliciting test and nontest data for the purpose of making inferences or claims about certain language-related characteristics of an individual" (Purpura, 2016, p. 191). Finally, *evaluation* requires making decisions or judgments on language performance on the basis of the collected information (Bachman & Palmer, 2010; Brindley, 2003).

Assessing a language performance is a purposeful practice (Fulcher, 2010). There is a variety of classifications of language assessment according to the different purpose(s). For example, McNamara (2000) makes a distinction between achievement and proficiency tests in accordance with their purposes. Also, language test types are discussed as dichotomies such as direct and indirect tests, discrete-point and integrative tests, norm-referenced and criterion-referenced tests (Hughes, 2003). Apart from these test types, Carr's (2011) "two interpretive frameworks", namely, summative and formative assessments prove very practical in language assessment practices (p. 11). According to Brown (2004), summative assessment is used to measure what objectives have been attained at the end of a program. On the other hand, "assessment is formative when teachers use it to check on the progress of their students, to see how far they have mastered what they should have learned, and then use this information to modify their future teaching plans" (Hughes, 2003, p. 5). Holistically speaking, assessment purposes largely shape the decisions made on language learning.

When the history of language assessment in the EFL teaching is examined, three basic stages are highlighted by Madsen (1983) as intuitive, scientific, and communicative eras. There is an obvious shift from more form-focused traditional assessment methods to more communicative assessment practices. That is, the assessment activities based on more communication have come into prominence in the foreign or second language teaching settings. In relation to the communicative aspects of the assessment, Norris, Brown, Hudson, and Yoshioka (1998) placed importance on the alternatives in language assessment such as performance assessments, portfolios, conferences, self- and peer-assessment (p. 3). Characteristically, *performance assessment* covers a wide range of assessment practices in which the students are expected "to accomplish approximations of real-life, authentic tasks" (Brown & Hudson, 1998, p. 662). With respect to portfolios, Carr (2011) defines them as "collections of student work from a course, and useful for showing a student's development and improvement" (p. 42). Accordingly, *portfolio assessment* exhibits language learning outcomes to the

stakeholders. As for *conferences*, they refer to the interaction between learner and teacher in order to develop an understanding of language learning process (Geneese & Upshur, 1996). They provide learners with opportunities to recognize learning strengths and weaknesses during the assessment procedure. In *self- and peer-assessment*, language learners get involved in the assessment process "with enhanced awareness of learning goals and criteria for judging the quality of their own learning" (Douglas, 2010, p. 75). As the explanations given above suggest, alternatives are mostly built upon the instructional concerns like the promotion of authenticity and autonomy in the EFL assessment.

In the last couple of decades, there have been dramatic changes and developments in the field of language testing and assessment. This study aims to review such research studies carried out between 2000 and 2018 from a descriptive point of view.

2.Method

In this study, a descriptive research design was adopted on the basis of the qualitative research methodology. Descriptive studies are mostly related to elucidating the existing phenomena (Best & Khan, 2006). Accordingly, this study reviews the research articles and describes the focal findings presented in these articles. In order to collect data, three basic steps were closely followed. First of all, the academic journals in which the research articles are published in the field of "Language and Linguistics" on the website "Scimago Journal & Country Rank were selected in view of the impact factor. The cut-off point for the impact factors in journal selection was defined as 0.75, and totally 70 journals whose impact factors were higher than 0.75 in 2017 were successively listed. Out of these 70 journals, 24 field-specific journals were specified for data collection since 46 of them were basically related to other aspects of language such as society, literature, and psycholinguistics.

Secondly, the key words "assessment", "evaluation", "testing", or "language assessment", "language evaluation" and "language testing" were used to search for the research articles published in these twenty-four journals between 2000 and 2018. From a multitude of the research studies that emerged as a result of this search, 308 research articles which complied with our review focus were selected. These selected articles were evaluated on the basis of some criteria. Particularly, the articles on psychometric considerations (e.g. validation, blueprints or scale development), region or country specific assessment practices, large-scale exams, psychological factors (e.g. anxiety, personal traits, rater background), investigation into foreign languages other than English (e.g. Spanish, German or French) or other dimensions (e.g. rater severity/leniency, test-taking strategies, software

applications) were excluded from the study. Instead, the main emphasis was placed on the articles which had empirical results or researched into the methodological aspects of English language assessment. Accordingly, in the third step, 26 research articles published in nine journals were finally chosen for our purposes. The academic journals in which these 26 articles appeared, and the number (frequencies) of the articles taken from these journals are shown in Table 1 below:

Table 1. Frequencies of the research articles selected from the academic journals

	Academic Journals	*f*
1.	Journal of Second Language Writing	2
2.	Applied Linguistics	1
3.	Language Teaching Research	2
4.	The Modern Language Journal	1
5.	Journal of English for Academic Purposes	2
6.	System	1
7.	Assessing Writing	2
8.	Language Assessment Quarterly	6
9.	Language Testing	9
	TOTAL	**26**

3.Results

The research articles reviewed in line with the study aims were presented and discussed in this section according to seven research themes which emerged from the categorization of the articles. These commonly embraced themes are identified as assessing language skills, alternatives in language assessment, assessing young EFL learners, teacher-based assessment, language assessment literacy, language assessment policies, and washback effect. The research articles are illustrated and interpreted in each theme according to their aims, methodology, and basic findings.

3.1.Assessing Language Skills

Assessment of English language skills as the fundamental components of language teaching is investigated from various perspectives in the research articles. Whereas the major focus is on assessing writing skills in some studies (Becker, 2016; Cumming, 2001; Neumann, 2014; Warschauer & Ware, 2006), it is on the oral skills in some other studies (May, 2011; Read, 2002).

In 2001, Cumming shed light upon the assessment practices for writing skills carried out by EFL/ESL (English as a Second Language) instructors working in different countries. The assessment practices which were elicited from the interviews were examined according to two main contexts: specific-purposes and general-purposes. Some remarkable findings highlight that the instructors in specific-purpose classes generally set the objectives in consideration of the need analysis, and rarely made use of the initial assessment except for forming groups of students. On the other hand, it is seen that the instructors employed a number of assessment practices including record-keeping, proficiency tests, and portfolios in assessing writing especially for general purposes. Also, it is holistically pointed out that writing assessment in the general-purpose orientation "focused on individual learners and their personal development" with a variety of assessment methods and criteria whereas the specific-orientation "focused mainly on the form of written texts" with fewer criteria and expectations (p. 222).

In another study, Warschauer and Ware (2006) focused on automated writing evaluation (AWE) and reviewed the research studies to investigate AWE. It was the aim of this study to provide "a classroom research agenda" for the use of automated scoring in writing assessment. The review was carried out according to three domains: "product, process, and process/product" (p. 166). Some research findings indicate that AWE was comparatively more mechanical than the classical methods. On the other hand, it can be deduced from the study findings that assessing learners through automated practices facilitated their progress in writing skills, and both automated and humanized evaluation of writing gave similar results. It is supposed that this study will inform the stakeholders about how automated software programs are used in writing assessment. In connection with assessing the second language writing, Becker (2016) drew attention to the student involvement in generating rubrics to score the ESL writing ability. In the study, there were four groups which performed pre- and post- writing tasks (summarization). After the pre-task was administered, the first group took an active participation in the development of scoring rubric criteria, the second group utilized the scoring rubric, the third group only saw the rubric, and finally the last (control) group did not have any experiences with the

rubric. Then they completed the post-task. The findings indicate that these groups significantly differed in terms of their writing scores in the post-task. More specifically, the first group involved in the ESL writing rubric development had higher scores in the post-task. The research study shows that the students' engagement in the design and administration of the scoring rubric improved the "overall writing quality" (p. 22). In Neumann's (2014) research, there is emphasis on the assessment of grammatical ability in the second language writing. In an ESL context, the students' essays were examined through text-based analysis, and the indicators for grammatical ability and washback effect were investigated in light of student and teacher interviews. The results show that the students were not willing to produce risky and sophisticated structures because the grammatical errors might arise from the use of complex structures, and these errors would result in lower writing scores. This illustrates the impact of the assessment criteria on the students' L2 writing development. This study also paves the way for further research on the operational definition of the grammatical ability in consonance with teacher responses.

Read (2002) worked on the development of an EAP (English for Academic Purposes) listening test with two different input types and examined each input type according to the students' test scores and questionnaire responses. As two different listening input types, monologue-based scripted listening input and discussion-based unscripted listening input were separately presented to two groups of the EAP learners during the administration of the listening test. The study findings show that the scripted monologue-based test had a significantly higher mean score value, and it was less difficult than the unscripted discussion-based test. Also, the study provides insights into the operational aspects of listening tests in the design and administration phases. Regarding speaking skills, May (2011) investigated the interactional competence in a paired speaking test in the EAP context. It was attempted to make explicit the aspects of interactional competence which were "salient" to the raters and uncover the dimensions of "mutual achievement" specified during the assessment of the interaction between the students (p. 127). A wide range of data collection methods were used to gain deeper understanding about the salient features taken into account in the rating process. According to the raters' notes, comments and discussions, the findings reveal that the operational features of interactional competence were provided on the basis of "understanding the interlocutors' message", "responding to a partner", and "using communicative strategies" (pp. 134-138). Understanding interlocutors' message, responding to a partner, cooperation, contribution to authenticity and interaction were regarded as the pairs' mutual achievements. It is

also suggested that these salient features may be taken into account in the development of a speaking rating scale to assess paired speaking performance.

3.2. Alternatives in Language Assessment

This section documents the research studies carried out in order to investigate the alternatives in language assessment. Self-assessment and peer-assessment (Babaii, Taghaddomi, & Pashmforoos, 2015; Chen, 2008; Chen & Warren, 2005; Patri, 2002), portfolio assessment (Lam, 2017; Song & August, 2002) and dynamic assessment (van Compernolle & Zhang, 2014) are the main points which shape the process of formulating the research aims and methodology.

Self- and peer-assessment are the methods in which the students themselves take an active role in the assessment process. According to Brown (2004), self-assessment draws upon the principle of "autonomy" while peer-assessment is established on "cooperative learning" (p. 270). In respect of self-assessment, Chen (2008) paid attention to the engagement of EFL students at university level in assessing oral performance in English and examined their development of self-assessment by making comparison with teacher-assessment. The study findings show that the students improved in assessing their oral skills. The findings also indicate that participating in the assessment process made the students more "independent" and "critical" thinkers (p. 253). In a similar vein, Babaii, Taghaddomi, and Pashmforoos (2015) investigated the consistency between student assessment and teacher assessment in assessing the EFL speaking by focusing attention on self-assessment. The students assessed their speaking skills before and after the scoring criteria were introduced, and the scores obtained from these two occasions were compared and correlated with the teacher assessment. The study results point out that there was a decrease in the assessment scores assigned by the students in the second phase, and this difference was statistically significant. In addition, it is stated that the second phase scores had a significantly higher correlation with the teacher assessment scores. It can also be deduced from this study that the students' involvement in their own speaking assessment after getting familiarized with the scoring criteria is more compatible with teacher assessment.

Patri (2002) carried out a research study about the agreement among teacher, self- and peer-assessment of "oral presentation skills". The focal point of the research was the impact of peer-feedback on self- and peer-assessment scores. The study findings obtained from the experimental and control groups illustrate that peer-feedback influenced peer-assessment scores, but self-assessment practices were not affected by this variable. In the experimental group, in which the peers gave feedback on the oral performance, the correlation between peer-

assessment and teacher-assessment scores was higher than the correlation between self-assessment and teacher assessment. That is, when peer-feedback is provided, an oral performance is assessed by the peers in consistency with teacher assessment. In relation to peer-assessment in the EFL teaching, Chen and Warren (2005) touched upon the peer-assessment of oral and written performances within the EAP context. The study findings report that the peers were less comfortable and confident in assessing "language proficiency" in comparison with other assessment criteria like organization and preparation (p. 101). Considering the agreement between peer-assessment and teacher assessment, it can be concluded that peer scores were not exactly the same as teacher scores although there was a level of agreement in some criteria.

With regard to portfolio assessment, Song and August (2002) elaborated on the role of portfolios in the ESL writing at university level. In one group, the students' writing ability was assessed with portfolios along with the administration of a high-stake written exam; in the other group, the students took only in this high-stake exam. The research findings show that portfolio assessment enabled more students to be successful in the ESL writing, to achieve the course objectives, and to enroll in the next ESL program. Also, this study indicates that portfolio assessment was a good predictor of English writing achievement in the following levels, and this assessment might be utilized to make decisions on the students' ESL writing proficiency. In connection with the first and second language portfolio assessment procedures, Lam (2017) carried out a meticulous analysis of the research studies mostly based on in-class portfolio implementations. In this analysis, the study findings highlighted three research dimensions: (1) supporting portfolio assessment in view of "portfolio models, affective advantages, pedagogical alignment"; (2) inhibiting portfolio assessment in terms of "grade fixation, fairness, learner agency", and (3) investigating further about portfolio assessment with respect to "documentation of learning evidence, role of assessment training, acculturation of portfolio programmes" (p. 88). Lam's (1997) study thus provides the researchers and practitioners with a window to witness both theoretical and practical developments in the portfolio assessment.

Dynamic assessment is theoretically based on Vygotskian perspective and asserts that "human abilities emerge through participation in activities in which individuals are guided and supported by others and through the use of available cultural resources" (Poehner, & Lantolf, 2013, p. 324). In respect to dynamic assessment, van Compernolle and Zhang's (2014) study centered on developing, employing and scoring a dynamic tool in order to assess the ESL grammatical morphology. In that sense, an elicited imitation test was "dynamically administered" through mediation and guidance (p. 395). The mediated scores

show that there were grammatical gains in each test factor. Put differently, mediated and guided assessment, which was conducted dynamically in accordance with the response given to test items, provided a thorough picture of the learner abilities and offered an opportunity to improve the target structures.

3.3.Assessing Young EFL Learners

Assessing young language learners is a field in which the assessors should familiarize themselves with two types of knowledge: knowledge of young learners' general characteristics and knowledge of young learners' language learning (McKay, 2006, p. 26). In this field, some research studies focus pivotal attention on the self-assessment procedures in young learner classrooms (Butler, 2018; Butler & Lee, 2010) in terms of different methodological and instructional contexts. Assessment and evaluation of the pupils' productive skills are also discussed in some other studies carried out in this field (Bae & Lee, 2012; Butler & Zeng, 2014).

Butler and Lee (2010) researched into the self-assessment of young EFL learners in two different learning contexts by taking into consideration the anxiety, confidence, motivation and language improvement. Drawing on a variety of data collection tools (i.e. various scales, tests), the research study points out that when compared with the control group, young learners' ability to assess themselves accurately improved in the treatment group after the regular implementation of the unit-based self-assessment for one semester; self-assessment had "marginal positive effects" on the pupils' language learning and confidence (p. 18). Also, it can be understood from the findings that some contextual and individual aspects (e.g. educational settings, teacher standpoints) were influential in how self-assessment was regarded, placed and conducted in the instructional environments. In another study, Butler (2018) questioned the role of context in the pupils' self-assessment processes by offering them two conditions in which they assessed their language abilities in both "a decontextualized fashion" (a generic condition) and a specific task setting (an after-task condition) (p. 243). Also, it was the aim of this research to explore how self-assessment items were responded to according to the age group of young EFL learners. For data collection, self-assessment tool including nine items (listening, speaking and reading skills) and interviews were employed. The results of the study show that young learners considered their experiences, goals, and expectations in responding to self-assessment items in the generic condition, and there were also other variables which had impact on their responses. The comparison between different age groups shows that the older pupils' judgments varied less in terms of the individual differences. The results also indicate that

there was a higher correlation between the after-task self-assessment and task-performance.

In Butler and Zeng's study (2014), task-based paired assessments were used to assess young EFL learners' interactional competence. In the process of data collection, young learners, who were divided into two groups as the fourth and sixth grade learners, performed in both information-gap tasks and decision-making tasks. The research findings show that two groups followed different interactional patterns, and more specifically, "the fourth graders' interaction patterns were less stable across the tasks compared with the sixth graders" (p. 55). Young learners in the sixth grade employed more formulaic turn-takings during interaction, and mutual topic development was less observed in this grade. In addition, it is pointed out that there was a smaller variety of interactional functions employed in the fourth grade when compared to the sixth grade, and the fourth graders had some difficulties in "taking their partners' perspectives" during the task performance (p. 68). Holistically speaking, it is considered that such kind of assessment may have "limited application" for EFL learners who are "younger than 10 years old" (p. 70).

In their longitudinal study, Bae and Lee (2012) put emphasis on the evaluation of young EFL learners' writing ability according to five components (grammar, content, coherence, spelling, and text length). Data were collected at three different times and analyzed with the statistical tests. The results were interpreted from a comparative perspective according to English language teaching contexts in Korea and the USA. It can be understood from the findings that young learners holistically improved their writing ability. The findings show that "there were statistically significant differences in the writing means, varying among the three points of measurement" (p. 360). According to the comparison, Korean learners had higher mean scores in spelling and text length whereas native learners' grammar scores were relatively higher. Also, it is pointed out that there has been a change on the correlations between these components over time.

3.4. Teacher-based Assessment

Teacher assessment in language-related fields covers all attempts made by the language teachers to fully understand the degree of objective attainment in a language course by monitoring the students (Gipps, 1994). On the basis of teacher-assessment, Rea-Dickins (2001) proposed a framework including processes and strategies used in the classroom-based assessment of language learning. According to the findings obtained from a rich source of data which were gathered from the elementary education, assessment stages were specified

sequentially as "planning", "implementation", "monitoring" and "recording and dissemination" (p. 435). Besides, "the different identities of classroom-based assessment" are discussed in terms of bureaucratic, pedagogical and learning aspects (p. 451). In another study, Edelenbos and Kubanek-German (2004) investigated the diagnostic competence in teacher assessment. They aimed to explicate the instruction-related behaviors of language teachers in teaching EFL in primary education, and develop an understanding about whether the learners were monitored in terms of their production in the target language. The study findings throw light upon the recognition of eleven diagnostic activities such as "checking whether the material/content of the lesson has been understood", "questioning", and "monitoring systematic errors" (pp. 264-265). Moreover, the research provides a comprehensive definition of diagnostic competence in teacher assessment and explains the levels of this competence in detail.

3.5. Language Assessment Literacy[1]

Terminologically, assessment literacy involves "an individual's understandings of the fundamental assessment concepts and procedures deemed likely to influence educational decisions" (Popham, 2011, p. 267). In the EFL context, the research studies are conducted for the purposes to conceptualize language assessment literacy (Fuclher, 2012), to investigate language teachers' needs of assessment training (Vogt & Tsagari, 2014), and to uncover the mediating factors in assessment literacy (Yan, Zhang, & Fan, 2018).

In 2012, Fulcher calls attention to the needs of language teachers' assessment training by operationalizing the assessment literacy through the development of a research tool. Sampling from the participants in different continents, the study put forward four psychometrical factors for the components of assessment literacy as "test design and development", "large-scale standardized testing", "classroom testing and washback", and "validity and reliability" (p. 121). In light of the research findings obtained from the responses of language teachers, it was attempted to conceptualize the assessment literacy from a broad perspective by elaborating on the practices, principles and contexts of language assessment. In another study, Vogt and Tsagari (2014) examined the assessment literacy and assessment training needs of foreign language teachers working in different countries in Europe. Mixed-method design was employed by administering questionnaires and interviews. According to the study findings, "teachers express

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[1] These studies include a wide range of the partipants who are language teachers in various countries. Due to the possibility to include English language teachers' needs of assessment training, they were taken into consideration in the review of the research articles.

a need for basic or more advanced training in almost all areas covered in the questionnaire" (p. 385). In addition, it is seen in the findings that teacher training programs (pre-service and in-service education) were not entirely adequate to "prepare teachers for their tasks in LTA" (language testing and assessment), and teachers attempted to improve their language assessment skills by "learning on the job, particularly model learning from mentors and colleagues" (p. 391). This research also depicts the training needs of language assessment in selected countries (i.e. Greece, Germany, and Cyprus) with respect to their educational backgrounds.

Yan, Zhang and Fan (2018) focused their research on contextually and experientially mediating factors in the development of language assessment literacy. On the methodological basis of grounded theory and inductive approach, the results show that "educational landscape and policies", "institutional mandates", and "local instructional context" were regarded as the contextual factors; on the other hand, "assessment development" and "item analysis and score use" were marked as the experiential factors (pp. 162-163). Also, it is pointed out that language assessment skills may be "inductively" developed in accordance with teachers' reflections and experiences in the practice of assessment (p. 167).

3.6. Language Assessment Policies

Language assessment policies play a leading role in the design, administration and dissemination of assessment practices. The Common European Framework (CEFR), which is a tool describing the levels of language proficiency and "enhancing communication among language practitioners" (Harsch & Hartig, 2015, p. 333), may be regarded as theoretical and practical bases which drive language assessment policies across the board. In connection with the alignment of assessment with the CEFR, Harsch and Hartig (2015) conducted a research study in order to explicate how the CEFR descriptors were utilized by the judges in listening test alignment, to investigate the other criteria used in the alignment process, and to examine "the feasibility" of modified item-descriptor-matching method (p. 336). The findings mainly indicate that judges did not display "recurrent patterns" in matching the items to the scales. It can be understood from findings that except for the CEFR, there were other different criteria taken into account in the alignment process, and it brought about the issue of validity in test alignment, use and interpretation. Finally, it is stated that judges believed that the performance of the modified item-descriptor-matching method was adequate and appropriate to the relevant task.

In another study, Green and Andrade (2010) mentioned the implementation of a language assessment reform in a collaborative process. The basic constituents of this reform were specified as "stakeholders, context, test development, and agent(s) of reform" (p. 325). In consideration of these constituents, test reform processes were explicated according to the data collected from a variety of sources. During the reform processes, test specifications were templated for language teachers; course objectives were operationalized in a measurable way; reform expectations were clearly identified; required support was provided; and collaboration among the stakeholders was facilitated. Overall results show that some difficulties were experienced in the reform process; however, positive outcomes have been obtained.

3.7. Washback Effect

Washback is a term defined as "the impact of testing on language teaching" and it can be categorized as "positive" and "negative" (Hughes, 2013). In relation to positive washback effect, Muñoz and Álvarez (2010) conducted a study to examine the impact of an oral language assessment system on the EFL teaching and learning at university level. In order to investigate positive washback effect of this system, a wide range of quantitative and qualitative data collection methods were employed. Experimental and comparison groups were also generated to observe the effect of teacher training, discussion and rubric use as a self-assessment tool. The study findings show that there was a statistically significant difference in the score gains, and the experimental group had significantly higher gains in mainly communicative effectiveness, pronunciation, and grammar than the other group. Also, it is seen that the experimental group received feedback about all aspects of the rubric whereas the comparison group had an overall score about their learning. Holistically, it is explained that "among the different aspects of teaching and learning observed a degree of positive washback occurred" (p. 46). Specifically, it is stated that familiarizing the students with the rubric aspects helped them to develop an understanding about the assessment criteria, to become aware of their own progress in language components, and to get better marks, and therefore it promoted positive washback. Similarly, the findings point out that the use of the rubric as a self-assessment tool and the connection between assessment and instructional goals may support positive washback effect.

The longitudinal study carried out by Ross (2005) drew attention to the comparison of the EAP formative and summative assessment methods according to their effect on the growth of language proficiency. This research was conducted with a large sample including "eight cohorts" of the students (p. 321), and various statistical analysis techniques were employed to examine the data

comparatively. The results highlight that formative assessment had a "substantive" influence on the growth of academic listening skills (p. 335). In addition, it can be deduced from the results that EAP students attained almost the same level of reading proficiency in both assessment methods.

4.Conclusion

In this study, it is attempted to review the research articles published between 2000 and 2018 in the field of English language assessment and evaluation. From among the hundreds of articles, twenty-six research articles were selected and comprehensively reviewed. The basic findings of these studies were summarized according to seven research themes: assessing language skills, alternatives in language assessment, assessing young EFL learners, teacher-based assessment, language assessment literacy, language assessment policies and washback effect.

In *assessing language skills*, writing assessment was thoroughly examined in some research studies in terms of the different variables such as automated scoring, purpose of teaching, rubric involvement, and assessment criteria. Interactive aspect of communication was also investigated in the assessment of oral skills through listening input and speaking assessment criteria. As for the *alternatives in language assessment*, the studies generally centered upon self- and peer-assessment. In addition, portfolio assessment and dynamic assessment were researched in respect to the gains in language teaching. Within the domain of *assessing young EFL learners*, some research articles focused on self-assessment in different instructional contexts. The assessment of the pupils' productive skills was also emphasized. For example, in a speaking assessment setting, young learners' interactional competence was investigated through task-based assessment. In *teacher-based assessment*, diagnostic competence was discussed, and the classroom assessment processes were accentuated. Studies on the *assessment literacy* basically attempted to operationalize the concept of the language assessment literacy and to explore the assessment training needs of language teachers. The factors mediating the language assessment literacy were also investigated from different perspectives. *Language assessment policies* included the research articles about the alignment of language tests with the CEFR and the implementation of a language testing reform. Lastly, *washback* studies reviewed mostly focused on the students' growth in language learning.

We can conclude that the review of the research articles published between 2000 and 2018 introduced the major research trends and developments in the field of English language assessment and evaluation. The basic findings of this review

may help the researchers of language assessment to be familiarized with new research perspectives.

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Chapter 12

Theoretical Issues in Identity in ELT Classroom Interaction Research

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Abstract

This article focuses on theoretical issues in identity in ELT classroom interaction research across four prominent journals. The purpose of a theoretical focus is to shed some light on the contributions of major thinkers and researchers into the theorization of identity in the field of SLA, a relatively novel field of study. Analyses of the theoretical sections of the selected articles are guided by keyword search around the frequently cited authors and thinkers in order to reveal their effect in the particular field of ELT classroom interaction. Findings reveal a range of novel conceptualizations that have become effective in research in this field that have come to date.

Keywords: identity; classroom interaction; ELT; research synthesis

1. Introduction

The identity turn in SLA (Second Language Acquisition) and its related disciplines took its course in the mid-1990s with the pioneering work, in particular, of Norton-Peirce (1995). In this framework, there has been continuous expansion in research in terms of research base, paradigmatic scope, and methodological diversity (see De Costa and Norton, 2016). In the first place, as a research construct that exceeds beyond classroom boundaries since its outset, identity has come to be studied in a wide range of contexts, such as multilingual work places, focusing on a large variety of English learners across the globe. Research on identity has also contributed to, and benefited from, the extension of the paradigmatic boundaries of traditional SLA to include more constructionist epistemologies and post-structuralist research orientations (cf. Firth and Wagner, 1997; 2007). In the end, identity is a social construction that is fluid, multiple, and hybrid, and positivistic research orientations fall short of explaining this construction. Finally, this paradigmatic expansion has brought a large set of new methodologies into identity research in SLA ranging from conversation analysis (CA) to digital ethnography. These additions have had important consequences in approaching linguistic data, as in the case of more

articulate interpretations of interactions, a major tool in classroom-based analyses, compared to 20 years ago.

While they are often coined with SLA, these changes must be understood within the larger framework of changes in the field of applied linguistics at large. In a recent review of applied linguistics research output across 42 journals between the years 2005-2016, Lei and Liu (2018) argue that although many of the topics remained popular, and some, like traditional phonology or grammar, have been studied less in time, there is a clear increase in sociocultural issues analyzed across the journals in the course of these 12 years. They list some of these issues as follows: "the impacts of socioeconomic class, ideology, and globalization on language use/learning and identity in various local contexts, the development and use of ELF, the practice and effects of multilingualism, and corpus-based investigation of field-specific discourse and literacy practices and variations" (p.18). As another major finding of their study, Lei and Liu (2018) write that the field of applied linguistics has become more open to "incorporating theories and practices from distant disciplines" (p.18). Taken together, then, the discipline of applied linguistics has not remained indifferent to the developments in social sciences in general following the massive societal changes in the context of globalization, transnationalization, and technology. Within this framework, the future of SLA has been continuously discussed (e.g. Ortega, 2013) and implications of issues such as identity for learning and teaching are drawn.

Against this background, research in identity processes in ELT classrooms has been steadily growing, as well. In fact, as reviews such as Martin-Jones (1995), or Mukul-Saxena & Martin-Jones (2013) demonstrate, bilingual classrooms in ESL contexts have long been under the focus of researchers in education taking more ethnographic perspectives (e.g. Watson-Gegeo, 1988). In the context of the identity turn, however, studies such as Toohey's (2000) in-depth treatment of ESL students' identities have brought a more critical perspective to the field. This line of research has come to date, particularly in immigrant contexts, as some studies reviewed in this paper will demonstrate below. Meanwhile, research in bilingual literacy has steadily focused on English classrooms in North American contexts, and has revealed many insights into the language and identity practices through linguistic lenses (e.g. Bailey and Nunan, 1996; Hornberger and Johnson, 2007). The following multilingual turn (May, 2014) has resulted in the representation of multilingual classrooms more often in ELT classroom identity research. In this framework, multilingual students in English classrooms across Europe have been studied in their multilingually produced interactions including English.

The purpose of this paper is to analyze the theoretical background to the identity processes as studied in the ELT classrooms across contexts. As a research construct that has been borrowed from other disciplines, identity is often

theorized with respect to these disciplines. However, it is now at a stage as a field that has procuded its own theoretical basis. This paper surveys the range of these bases, and how they contributed to the research findings and conclusions drawn from studies on identity in the ELT classrooms.

1.1. Research Questions

This paper reports on a review of research on identity as studied in the ELT classrooms published across four journals. Two research questions guide the study:

1. What kind of theoretical issues are discussed in ELT classroom research published between 2010 and 2018?
2. What kinds of implications are drawn from these issues?

2. Method

The analyses in this paper were conducted across four journals in the field of applied linguistics: *Applied Linguistics (AL), TESOL Quarterly (TQ)*, *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education (JLIE)*, and *Linguistics and Education (LE)*. Due to space requirements and the nature of the paper, only four journals were targeted for inclusion in analyses. Thus, for example, many journals in Lei and Liu's (2018) list of 42 were left outside the scope, such as MLJ. Journals with a particular focus, such as Journal of Second Language Writing, were not considered for selection, either.

In the selection of these journals, the first step was to attend to those that focus on and/or include research located within the sociocultural paradigm and adopting qualitative orientations. Thus, journals with a strict cognitive/psycholinguistic orientation and those that do not regularly include qualitatively designed studies have been outside the scope of this paper. The reason for this scrutiny is epistemological: the journals that were excluded from the analyses publish research exclusively situated within objectivist, positivist paradigms. Identity, as a social construct, as studied in applied linguistics is not a product of these paradigms. Although journals with a mixed orientation, such as the International Journal of Bilingualism publish issues on emotions or aptitude, they still do so through psycholinguistic lenses rather than interactional or any other forms of naturalistically retrieved data.

Another criterion for selection of journals was methodological. A clear emphasis on close interactional analyses in the data was set as a requirement at the outset, as the main focus of this article would be on interactional data. This made the inclusion of Linguistics and Education a necessity besides AL and TQ, which have presented interactional data in their articles for a long time. Last but not

least, a survey of identity in applied linguistics would not be complete without a close analysis of the JLIE, which has been steadily gaining prominence in the field. As its title suggests, this journal takes identity as its central object of analysis in educational settings, and has published a wide range of studies centering on interactions.

2.1. Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

After the four journals were determined, the following criteria have been adopted in the selection of articles for analyses in this paper:

- Full-length articles indexed in SSCI reporting on empirical research with qualitative orientations that are published between January 2010 and October 2018.
- Research that takes place in institutionalized EFL/ESL classroom settings

Meanwhile, the following criteria were adopted in the exclusion of articles:

- Any publication before January 2000
- Any other publication other than research articles (e.g. reviews, essays, reports, summaries)
- Any publication focusing on language classrooms other than ELT
- Any publication focusing on types of identity rather than learner identities (e.g. writing/reading/literacy identity, HL identity, teacher identity etc.)

A word of caution must be added here such that the initial purpose of the article was to focus on mainstream primary and secondary education, therefore, studies conducted in higher education settings were excluded from analysis at the outset. Yet, there were a couple of articles that focused on teenagers in language schools that are affiliated with the universities. Those were accepted for analysis.

In the light of these criteria, a simple word search with the term *identity* has been conducted across the electronic portals of the four journals. Although this survey specifically focuses on identity research in classroom contexts, "classroom identity" or any other coinage with the term "identity" was not adopted not to influence the consecutive filtering process. Inevitably, the term yielded hundreds of results across the selected four journals. Following the inclusion and exclusion criteria depicted above, a total of 39 research articles were identified for analysis. This list was composed of 8 articles from AL, 7 from TQ, 12 from LE, and 12 from JLIE. With such tight amount of turnout, a chronological analysis was not

adopted in this paper, as the results would not be sufficienct to conclude in a change or development. It is important to acknowledge, however, that in addition to a very selective filtering process in content, the mechanics of filtering adopted might have yielded to a very low total of articles on such a steadily growing field of study. The search engines of portals mostly allowed for a keyword search in the title and abstract of the journals, which was the adopted approach in this survey to understand the prominence of the construct of identity for the study under consideration. Yet, there might have been other terms replacing identity in related fields such as 'translanguaging' or 'gender' that did not show up in the search process. Still, the point of this paper is to analyze whether the term identity is in circulation, is theorized, and operationalized in terms of ELT classroom research.

2.2. Data Collection and Analysis

After determining the set of articles for analysis, the following information about each was tabulated: article ID (author, year of publication, pages, etc.), definition of participants, definition of research setting, data collection method(s), and major findings of the study. These data were summarized in section 3.1 below in order to help locating the articles better. A second round of keyword search was conducted across the entire set of articles to base the theoretical analyses of the paper. This will be explained in section 3.2 below.

3. Results

3.1. Methodological Overview of Studies Under Focus:

Out of the 39 studies selected for analysis, 23 were conducted across various school contexts in the USA, while the rest were conducted across 11 other countries ranging from Canada to China. The flaws in the design of this survey withstanding, one reason for this unproportionate distribution might be found in the fact that since the identity turn, identity as a separate research construct is more readily embraced in the American-based applied linguistics in general. Other reasons might include the popularity of the selected four journals in American academia more than in other parts of the world, or the exclusion criteria set at the beginning of this paper delimiting the studies conducted on language classrooms other than English.

Focusing on qualitative methodologies was one of the criteria set for inclusion in analysis in this paper. A more detailed methodological survey demonstrates that 6 out of 39 studies are described as ethnography, and 4 as case study. These methodologies are further detailed through giving information about the multiple methods employed in the studies. The rest of the articles under consideration

(n=29) employed single methods, or combined two-three that they report separately. An overwhelming majority of these papers (n=21) focused primarily on audio- or video-recorderd classroom interactions. This is followed by articles that have interview (n=10) and observation (n=9) components, as well. The rest of the studies have adopted complementary methods besides interaction, such as students' self-reports (n=2), photo-narratives (n=1), school documents such as policies or classroom materials (n=2). The inclination toward using audio- and video-recordings of classroom interactions as the most frequently employed data collection method in studying identity within the context of EFL classrooms should be analyzed with respect to various calls in the field of SLA for more local meaning making processes (Firth and Wagner, 1997, 2007), the expansion in the methodological base concerning CA (Ortega, 2013), and the attention to studying identity through minutely constructions of discourse rather than employing large categories.

3.2. Theoretical Issues in Studies Under Focus

The identity turn in the field of SLA has opened up new spaces for theoretical developments that are new to set the framework for empirical research. The articles selected for analyses in this paper reflect a diversity of these theoretical orientations. In order to analyze these issues more closely, a survey of theories employed in these articles was conducted alongside the methodological review above. This survey was a second round of keyword search across the selected journals. The keywords selected this time were the names of major identity scholars that often get cited in SLA literature. The reason why such an approach was adopted was simply to ease the process of focusing on major theories in the area that were proposed by certain researchers. Starting from Norton, a number of other scholars' names were sought: Bucholtz and Hall, Pavlenko and Blackledge, Duff were the first three search keywords. Besides though, the two philosophers who often get cited in identity-related articles, Bakhtin and Bourdieu have been inspected across these articles, as well. Based on the findings, the review below was organized around three sections. In the first section, research using Norton's theoretical framework is presented, and in the second section research research adopting Bucholtz and Hall's theorization of identity is reviewed. In the final section, research adopting a range of other scholars is briefly summarized and reviewed. It must be noted at the outset that most of the articles selected for analyses appeared in more than one of the keyword searches. In those cases, the article was analyzed under the section in which the particular keyword (scholar) is taken up in more detail.

In response to the keyword search, the theoretical background section in every article that turned up in the results was analyzed closely in terms of their treatment of the works of the scholars under focus. Rather than work that only cites or

briefly touches upon the respective scholars' work, those that problematize, quote, and treat them in detail were included in analyses for sake of saving space.

3.2.1. Norton

A total of 18 articles across the journals were identified as a result of the keyword search *Norton*. Majority of these articles only cited various works of the author without inclusion in analyses. These include Cummins, et al., 2015; Duff, 2002, 2004; Flores, 2015; Morita, 2004; Stroud and Lee, 2007; Talmy, 2008. As an established scholarly line of work by now, Norton's framework of identity is often treated alongside others' (e.g. Blackledge & Pavlenko, 2001; Gee and Clinton, 2001) without being much elaborated. It is also often cited alongside other research constructs, such as community of practice (Wenger, 1998). As a commonly followed path in these studies, multiple theories are adopted in constructing the theoretical framework in approaching identity issues. Chen's (2010) paper exemplifies this mix well in analyzing the case of an English as a New Language (ENL) student's situated identities across multiple contexts at school. As one finding of this ethnographic study, Chen (2010) reveals how Norton's (2000) approach to subjectivity plays out in the identity negotiation of the young student in her study, although subjectivity itself is one of the constructs analyzed in this study.

Meanwhile, some articles in the selection solely focus on Norton's approach to identity, and provide in-depth treatments of her basic notions. Among those, Norton (-Peirce)'s (1995) notion of *investment* has received considerable attention. García-Mateus & Palmer (2017) focus on investment through translanguaging lenses, and demonstrate how the translanguaging pedagogy in the classroom can be seen as a safe space for learners of English in which they can truly invest. While investment as a research construct still receives attention decades after the original 1995 article, Norton has also inspired research detailing various identity trajectories. In an ethnographically informed study, MacPherson (2005) traces five different identity patterns among Tibetan learners of English using Norton's conception that second language identities are multi-faceted, contradictory, and hybrid. These are, rejection, assimilation, marginality, bicultural accommodation, and intercultural creativity. Apparently, these notions further detail Norton's framework of identity by specifying their construction through detailed linguistic analyses.

3.2.2 Bucholtz & Hall

9 articles out of 41 cited and/or used Bucholtz and Hall (together) in their approach to identity. While some of them only cited the two authors in their reviews of identity theories (e.g. Lo-Phillip & Park, 2015; Poza, 2018), others used

it alongside other frameworks, as in the case of Norton above. García-Mateus and Palmer (2017), for instance, while analyzing investment, also cite Bucholtz and Hall (2005) and argue, "[i]t is through the use of tools, or linguistic resources, that individuals negotiate the meaning of their social positions and emerging identities" (p. 247). Meanwhile, some of the reviewed studies adopted certain concepts from the two authors in their analyses. These include Kerfoot and Bello-Nonjengele (2016) who employed the notion *linguistic ownership* (Bucholtz and Hall, 2005), Godley & Loretto (2013) who referred to *common truths* in the sense that Bucholtz and Hall (2005) use it, or Lee (2011) who adopt the framework of *co-construction of identities* as in Bucholtz and Hall (2004). Like Norton, Bucholtz and Hall provide good theoretical background in terms of identifying certain linguistic behavior and practices in EFL classrooms.

Focusing on teenage students in an English course in Tehran, Shahri (2018) uses Bucholtz and Hall's (2005) framework alongside Fairclough's (2003). His data come from classroom observations and interviews with two students. The analyses center on indexicality alongside the notions of *distinction, adequation, authentication,* and *delegitimation* that Bucholtz and Hall (2005) conceptualize. Shahri (2018) concludes, through these means, learners construct authentic voices in their second-language-mediated identities that are in line with their envisioning of and engagement with English. His study is a detailed treatment of the two authors' model through close linguistic lenses. In another ethnographically-informed study, Corella Morales and Lee (2015) focus on narrative-based speaking assessment of Spanish-English bilingual children. One component of their theoretical framework is agency as Bucholtz and Hall (2005) view it, which centers on the co-construction of social action including "habitual actions accomplished below the level of conscious awareness" (p. 606). Their findings demonstrate how students' agency in responding to oral assessment is kept exempt from scoring or simply get evaluated as as deficits. These empirical studies demonstrate the interactional, power-differential, and situtional dimension of Bucholtz and Hall's concepualizations of identity.

3.2.3 Other Scholars

Alongside Norton and Bucholtz and Hall who get cited frequently, a few other scholars of identity have repeatedly appeared in the theoretical background of the articles selected. Among these, Pavlenko, for instance, appeared in 8 articles, which cite, quote, or briefly touch upon the author's various papers (Chen, 2010; Giroir, 2013; Lo Phillip and Park, 2015; Menard-Warwick, 2008; Morita, 2004; Shahri, 2018; Stroud and Lee, 2007; Vasilopolous, 2015). Blackledge and Pavlenko (2001) is one of the sources that are often cited in this realm in terms of establishing the concept of *negotiation of identities*. Interactional analysis has been a useful methodological tool to study this concept. Likewise, Duff has appeared

in 10 keyword searches besides her own two articles (2002, 2004). She has been mostly cited, or quoted in the framework of language socialization issues, as in teachers' positioning of ESL high school students in class in certain ways, as Menard-Warwick (2008) depicts. The other articles that Duff appeared include Handsfield & Crumpler (2013), Hawkins (2005), Liang (2006), Corealla Morales and Lee (2015), Morita (2004), Talmy (2008), and Vasilopoulos (2015). One can briefly conclude, then, that the pioneers of identity research in SLA since Norton-Peirce (1995), that is, Bucholtz and Hall, Pavlenko, and Duff, have each contributed to research in the EFL/ESL classroom from their own unique perspectives, bringing into light the crucial aspects of classroom identity processes, coining new concepts to ease understanding, and surviving in effect to date.

The article search for this paper yielded a number of other theories that have been adopted. Among these, Davies and Harré's (1990) positioning theory has been used in analyses in a series of papers. Focusing on how failure in an ESL classroom is constructed through analyses of interactions in a 5th grade classroom, for instance, Anderson (2009) proposes a model in which he combines three ways of positioning: the micro, meso, and macro scale-levels. These refer to local/immediate, institutional/intermediate, and structural/distal scales, respectively. Similar scalar analyses have been the primary tool that Wortham (2008) and Wortham and Rhodes (2013) have used in his approach to American classrooms. Rather than theorizing positioning, Wortham adapted the notion of scales (Lemke, 2000) into classroom social identification processes. Bartlett (2007), meanwhile, focused on scales as a tool to understand the construction of certain identities, such as 'good student' in the classroom in time. Likewise, Brown (2006) adopted a scalar perspective while looking into classrooms as micro-markets in a Bourdieusian sense of the word. These findings suggest how English classrooms in identity research are approached through much wider theoretical angles in order to understand the interactional processes more comprehensively.

Like Bourdieu, Bakhtin has also been cited multiple times across the articles. Lo-Phillip and Park (2015) focus on Bakhtin's notion of dialogic imagination and argue that students accomplish their imagined self in contact with voices of others as much as self. They write, "students are already deeply engaged in reflective activity throughout their everyday lives, and it seems a reasonable pedagogic strategy to focus on this agentive work of the students and the diversity of ways in which bilingual identity is conceptualized as a way of bringing such metadiscursive work into the classroom" (p.203). As another article in the selection, Handsfield & Crumpler (2013), merge Bahktinian dialogism with Wortham's (2006), as cited above, and demonstrate how Wortham's

operationalization of identification is a good application of Bahktin's focus on individual agency in the articulation of identities across time.

A few articles in the selection have used novel concepts that they borrow from education or linguistics in analyzing identity. Catalano (2016), for instance, adopted Wadsworth et al.'s (2008) Communication identity theory (CIT) and Lakoff and Johnson's (1980) conceptual metaphor thery in his analyses of interviews with American and South African students. His findings reveal similarities between metaphorical conceptions of immigration across the two contexts, and between perceptions of "us versus them" mentality that affects adaptation strategies in their respective contexts. Meanwhile, some studies adapted certain methods into theory in their analyses of identity in the classroom. Among these, Eskildsen & Theodórsdóttir (2015), for instance, took the approach *CA for SLA* and focused on two different data sets collected in an EFL classroom and the Icelandic as a second language non-classroom setting. They argue that while both of the contexts provide learning spaces, they each require different resources in the accomplishment of these spaces, as is revealed by close analyses of conversations. Another study under focus, Welch (2015), adopted an interactional analytic perspective (Gumperz and Cook-Gumperz, 2005) into a bilingual classroom in the US, and revealed how the teacher has allowed for bilingual interactional spaces in which "children are in a position to make the necessary connections among their funds of knowledge, their bilingual identities, and their linguistic repertoires" (p. 92). Lastly, ESL classrooms have been the center of attention for providing spaces for off-task interactions. Waring (2013) demonstrates through close analyses of video-recorded interactions how participants ascribe, display, or invoke situational, relational, and personal identities, as a result of which they are able to enter an "alternative universe."

4. Conclusion and Discussion

In the context of the theoretical and the methodological expansion in the field, certain scholars have received continuous attention in theorizing identity in SLA. In the first place, Bonny Norton's work has set the groundwork for approaching identity in second language learning circumstances, and introduced the field to notions such as investment to better capture the learners' struggle. Although Norton did not particularly target classrooms, her research inspired many classroom studies focusing on identity. The very basic review presented in this paper revealed that almost half of the selected papers (18 out of 39) reporting on studies in classroom interaction and identity align with Norton's perspective in some way. The same can be said for Bucholtz and Hall, who did not particularly target classrooms in theorizing identity. However, their detailed approach to the multiplicity of identities, to the co-construction among participants in interaction, and the complex relationship between language and self have led this perspective

into being frequently employed in ELT classroom identity research. Not only scholars from the field, but philosophers like Bakhtin and Bourdieu are regularly cited in this field of study. More evidence from classroom research demonstrates how issues related to power, or those involving the market-like quality of classrooms permeate across contexts. These scholars and thinkers, then, have shaped the way identity has come to be studied in ELT classrooms since the 1990s.

The review above spans 18 years and 4 journals, but compared to this wide range, a total of 39 articles have been identified for analysis in this paper. Apparently, this is a very conservative sum, and as has been explained above, it is basically due to the strict selection criteria employed at the screening. It must also be added that exclusion of ESL classrooms from analysis, where a considerable amount of data on interactions are collected because of practical reasons, has an important role to play in this sum. Among the four journals, *TESOL Quarterly,* which specializes in the teaching and learning of English as an additional language, regularly publishes work on classrooms. However, it seems that identity issues have only occupied limited space in this journal as far as students' classroom interactions are considered. *Applied Linguistics,* meanwhile, concentrates not only in classrooms or English, but a range of contexts and other languages as far as they are taught and learned as additional languages. Thus, it is natural that this mainstream journal has provided limited focus on ELT classroom interactions and identity. *Linguistics and Education* and *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education* regularly publish work on classroom interactions, and they both approach identity as a sophisticated tool to understand and interpret interactions. As their focus is not limited to English classrooms, they also yielded limited results with regard to ELT classrooms. Thus, it can be concluded, any journal selected for inclusion would bear its own limitations against the highly narrow inclusion criteria in this paper. Still, the range of contexts, methods, and research topics across this selection gives us a satisfactory scope of issues under discussion in classroom interaction research. Detailed analyses of interactions illuminate how identity issues lie at the center of classroom processes (cf. Wortham, 2006), and how learning is inherently related to these processes. Most importantly, these issues have been studied since 1990s without losing pace, as the distribution of the selected articles across the 18 years indicate.

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Chapter 13

Motivations for teaching English: A review of journal articles on L2 teacher motivation

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Abstract

This review aimed to go over the research conducted in L2 teacher motivation with a concentration on the journal articles published in peer-reviewed academic journals. As a result of the thorough inspection of the articles selected with certain criteria in mind, various themes have emerged. Firstly, the overwhelming majority of L2 teacher motivation studies targeted in-service teachers of English. Secondly, L2 teacher motivation research was found to have spread around the globe with the rich variety of countries serving as the settings of such studies. Thirdly, studies reviewed revolved around certain concepts such as factors affecting teacher motivation, job satisfaction, entry motivations, and motivation change along with alternative interpretations of L2 teacher motivation. Finally, the research methodologies adopted in the studies in the review showed that qualitative methods finally caught up with quantitative methods in L2 teacher motivation research.

Keywords: second language teacher education, L2 teacher motivation

1.Introduction

Motivation has been a topic on which vast amounts of ink has been spilled in language learning and teaching. An elusive concept to pin down (Kleinginna & Kleinginna, 1981) in psychology, motivation has stayed under the influence of various theoretical perspectives morphing into a phenomenon that is based on cognitive processes from "deep-seated unconscious drives, emotions and instincts shaping human behavior" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 4). With the latest trends, motivation is now framed within more dynamic, social, and contextual perspectives (Dörnyei, MacIntyre & Henry, 2015; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Ushioda, 2003). Regardless of the framework it is placed within, motivation can be defined as the reason behind people's decision to do something, the length of time for their willingness to continue with it, and their persistence in doing it (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

Being of key importance to successful language learning (Dörnyei, 2001; Gardner, 1985; O'Malley & Uhl Chamot, 1990; Williams & Burden, 1997), the concept of language learning motivation has undergone various changes and evolved in its own right. The fact that student motivation is profoundly

influenced by teacher motivation and motivational practices has remained the same, though, and it is an issue on which scholars seem to have reached consensus (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Bernaus, Wilson & Gardner, 2009; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Moskovsky, Alrabai, Paolini & Ratcheva, 2013; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012). As Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) put it succinctly, "if a teacher is motivated to teach, there is a good chance that his or her students will be motivated to learn" (p. 158).

Despite its prominent role in student motivation and success, teacher motivation has been at the center of "a Zeitgeist of interest" (Watt & Richardson, 2008, p. 405) only for the last decade. In addition to the inclusion of teacher motivation studies in leading journals, the special issue of the journal Learning and Instruction on teacher motivation can be counted as a milestone in research on teacher motivation, whose position as "an overlooked area" (Woolfolk Hoy, 2008, p. 492) has started to shift from then on.

The reason for this surge of interest can be attributed to worldwide educational policy reports' which establish that there is a certain set of problems in need of further attention about teacher policies in almost all countries (OECD, 2005; UNESCO, 2014, 2015). Firstly, teacher shortages have started to become an issue because teaching workforce has started to age and there is a high turnover of teachers in education systems. Quality is another concern since the profession seems to mostly attract individuals that have a lower level of academic skills, which is corroborated by the PISA data: Out of the 44% of 15-year-old students who desire to follow a professional career requiring a university degree, only 5% envision a teaching career for themselves, and these students are academically at a lower level in terms of literacy and numeracy than the rest (OECD, 2015). Hence, recruiting quality teachers, in other words, making teaching attractive to new entrants and retaining them have gained importance. That is why it is crucial to unearth the underlying reasons behind the choices of teaching as a career and staying as a teacher, which, in short, stands for teacher motivation.

In line with the attention mainstream teacher motivation has attracted, research on language teacher motivation has gained momentum as well (Rahmati, Sadeghi & Ghaderi, 2018). Nevertheless, the burgeoning interest in L2 teacher motivation has made it clearer that there was a theoretical void in its conceptualization, which Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) claim that Kubanyiova (2012) filled with her framework based on Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System. In this framework, Kubanyiova (2009) identifies different selves of a language teacher, i.e. Ideal, Ought-to, and Feared Selves, and motivation plays a central role in this

framework of possible selves, for conceptual change in teachers' development can only be possible by discovering what motivates them in the first place.

With this vitality of research on L2 teacher motivation, several scholars have taken up the task to provide reviews on it in order to capture its current status. Some of these reviews are more of a general nature, employing a mainstream lens (Han & Yin, 2016), whereas some others adopt a more specific perspective handling it with a special reference to Vygotskian Activity Theory (Kim & Zhang, 2013) or to sociocognitive trends (Bier, 2014). Hiver, Kim and Kim (2018) follow a slightly different path and review certain studies both from mainstream education and language teacher education with predetermined themes such as teacher development, classroom dynamics and practice. What is missing in the literature in terms of reviews of L2 teacher motivation research is lack of specificity in focus. That is, there is no specific review of articles that solely addresses L2 teacher motivation and that are published in peer-reviewed journals. Due to the renewed interest in teacher motivation, and thus in L2 teacher motivation, the number of such publications is on the rise, too. Hence, this principled review aims at providing a compact, specific, and up-to-date examination of what has been done in that regard so far.

2.Method

In order to give a full picture of the current status of L2 teacher motivation research in this review, there were several procedures followed for the journal and publication selection processes.

2.1.Journal Selection Process

As the first step of this phase, two lists of journal rankings were obtained from SCImago, an online portal which provides journal rankings based on their impact factors in the Scopus database, for the year 2017. Since L2 teacher motivation is a topic that is at the intersection of education and applied linguistics, one of the lists was themed 'linguistics and language' while the other was of journals on education. A total of 1025 results came up in the education journals ranking, and it was 711 journals for the linguistics and language category.

The second step was to prepare shortlists for both rankings in order to make the selection process more manageable. So, in the education ranking, the first 500 journals were taken into consideration, and those with very specific scope such as research methodology, technology, evaluation, science/math education etc. were omitted. The final version of the shortlist for the education ranking

consisted of 47 journals. As for the linguistics and language ranking, a similar path was followed. That is, journals purely on linguistics and on specific sub-topics such as reading, writing, and CALL were omitted, which left 21 journals to go through among the first 50 in the original ranking. It is worth noting that 19 of these journals were already in the education ranking. At the end of the journal selection procedure, the total number of the journals that were to be reviewed amounted to 49.

2.2. Publication Selection Process

The selection process for the publications in the selected journals, too, was done with certain criteria in mind. To keep the review more compact, publications with the following qualities were excluded from the review:

- book reviews, commentaries, editorials, technical reports, working papers, conference proceedings, book chapters, theses and dissertations

- publications of a conceptual nature, i.e. reviews or state-of-the-art articles

- publications focusing on teacher motivation in mainstream education, with a mixed sample of pre-service teachers (PSTs) of different majors

In other words, the scope of this review was the empirical research studies conducted on L2 teacher motivation and published in peer-reviewed academic journals in the form of articles.

In the first round of online searches for the right articles to choose for the review, keywords such as "L2 teacher motivation", "language teacher motivation" and "second language teacher motivation" were used. The search brought up only 11 results, 6 of which did not fit the above-mentioned criteria. So, additional searches were run on databases such as Google Scholar and EBSCO Host with the same keywords to make sure that all has been done for the sake of a comprehensive review. The final round of online searches yielded 49 articles in 38 journals, all of which met the criteria adopted for the review. It was found that the articles spanned a period between 1991 and 2018 and that only 4 of them were published in 1990s. The majority of them were published in the last decade. The distribution of the articles according to the databases they are indexed in can be seen in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Distribution of articles according to indexing information

Index	SSCI	AHCI	ESCI	ERIC	EBSCO HOST GOOGLE SCHOLAR	Not Provided	N
Journals	9	1	5	5	10	8	38
Articles	15	3	5	6	11	9	49

2.3. Data Analysis

Following the journal and article selection phases, a review sheet was prepared for each article prior to data analysis. The information noted on this sheet was as follows:

- name of the author(s), title of the article, year of publication

- name of the journal and its indexing information

- aim of the study

- context of the study (pre-service or in-service teacher education)

- setting of the study (the country where the study was carried out)

- method (research design, participants, data collection instruments)

- findings

After the thorough analysis of all the content in the selected articles (n=49) with the previously mentioned features in mind, the optimum way to report the findings was determined as grouping them in terms of context and settings of the studies, their themes and findings, and the research methods employed in them.

3. Findings

3.1. Context and Settings of the Studies

As mentioned earlier, one of the criteria adopted in the review of 49 studies was their context, i.e. the level of teacher education in question, and the setting, which refers to the country of the study.

As for the context of the L2 teacher motivation research, studies conducted in-service teacher education contexts seem to dominate the field totaling 40. Only 9 studies were carried out with pre-service English teachers.

The countries where the research studies were done present variety in that 19 countries were identified for 49 studies, 10 of which took place in Turkey. Another country where L2 teacher motivation research was found to be popular was Iran. Japan, China, and South Korea followed these two countries, and the others that were listed for the setting criterion were Spain, Hong Kong, Greece, Jordan, United Kingdom, USA, Sri Lanka, Malaysia, Indonesia, Palestine, Thailand, Brazil, Mexico, and Nigeria.

3.2. Themes and Results of the Studies

A close scrutinization of the articles chosen for the principled review revealed that while some studies zeroed in on more or less on the similar and well-known aspects of L2 teacher motivation, some others were carried out on singular themes that pave the way for future research.

3.2.1. Factors Influencing Teacher Motivation and Causing Demotivation

As a major theme in L2 teacher motivation, factors affecting language teachers' motivation or causing their demotivation were frequently studied; that is, 17 out of 50 studies looked into this dimension.

A wide range of factors that motivate English teachers were identified in the articles reviewed. Some of these factors were about the teaching profession itself (Erkaya, 2013; İpek & Kanatlar, 2018; Ng & Ng, 2015; Ölmezer Öztürk; 2015), whereas some others were related to students in that their motivation, success, and enthusiasm were reported to be motivating for teachers (Erkaya, 2013; Hettiarachchi, 2013; İpek & Kanatlar, 2018; Johnson, 2001; Kurtoğlu Eken, 2014; Ölmezer Öztürk; 2015; Pourtoussi, Ghanizadeh & Mousavi, 2018). Another finding in the reviewed studies was that teachers tended to be motivated rather by altruistic or intrinsic motivators than the extrinsic ones (Alavi & Mehmandoust, 2011; Erkaya, 2013). In addition to the altruistic motivation sources, job security was another important motivator for English teachers (Dweik & Awajan, 2013) along with positive relationships with colleagues and the administration (İpek & Kanatlar, 2018; Kurtoğlu Eken, 2014; Ng & Ng, 2015; Ölmezer Öztürk; 2015).

Within the category of influential factors on teacher motivation, factors causing demotivation hold a prominent place, too. In his case study of a Turkish EFL

teacher working at a public school, Aydın (2012) identified a great demotivating factors, some of which were related to the teaching profession, curriculum and working conditions. Limited opportunities for language learning and teaching such as lack of equipment and of comfortable physical conditions were presented as other demotivating factors (Christopher, 2012; Fattash, 2013; Hettiarachchi, 2013; Yaghoubinejad, Zarrinabadi & Nejadansari, 2016). Overcrowded classes (Fattash, 2013; Johnson, 2001; Yaghoubinejad et al., 2016), heavy schedules (Thornburn, 2016) and problems with administration were also frequently described as demotivating in various contexts (Aydın, 2012; Kim & Kim, 2015; Yaghoubinejad et al., 2016). Interestingly enough, lack of support and opportunities for teaching English at schools along with lack of social recognition of and respect for the teaching profession in the society were demotivating factors provided both by Korean and Iranian EFL teachers (Kim & Kim, 2015; Yaghoubinejad et al., 2016).

In addition to traditional studies as mentioned above, some researchers took other paths to study these factors. For instance, Gu and Lai (2012) compared the PSTs from Hong Kong and China in terms of their commitment to teaching and the factors they identify as effective for their commitment. The data revealed that two groups of PSTs differed extensively. In another comparative study, Alavi and Mehmandoust (2011) compared the motivational factors of teachers in the public and private sectors and found that they had different types of motivations.

The majority of the demotivating factors overlap with motivating factors indeed, for as Johnson (2001) accurately asserts, motivating factors identified by teachers transform into demotivating factors when they are not existent in teaching settings. In this line of thought, according to İpek and Kanatlar's findings, (2018) "student-induced factors" (p. 31) cause demotivation for Turkish teachers of English just like Johnson (2001) identified "apathetic learners who don't care if they learn" (p. 57) as a demotivating factor based on Mexican EFL teachers' views, which was also the case in Kurtoğlu Eken's (2014) multinational study.

3.2.2. Job/Work Satisfaction

Researching L2 teacher motivation through the lens of job/work satisfaction was another recurring theme among the articles reviewed although there is no clear-cut distinction between factors influencing teacher motivation and job satisfaction and they usually overlap. However, among the studies reviewed, 8 of them included specific research questions for job/work satisfaction.

It is now established that Pennington (as cited in Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011) pioneered L2 teacher motivation research with her study with TESOL members, who turned out to be basically satisfied with their jobs especially in terms of its moral values and social contribution to the society. What was found to be least satisfying by the teachers was insufficient rewards and the lack of attention toward their ideas and opinions in their workplaces.

Doyle and Kim (1999) conducted another study on job satisfaction and found that in both EFL and ESL contexts, intrinsic motivation increased job satisfaction for English teachers, and its first representation was students' reactions and feedback in the process. Other factors were autonomy in teaching and assessment, proper physical conditions and appropriate working hours and schedule. The study was a different one in that it aimed to compare teachers from an ESL context (USA) and an EFL context (Korea).

In her comprehensive study of Greek EFL teachers, Karavas (2010) unveiled the fact that Greek EFL teachers were mostly satisfied with the responses they got from their students and with holidays and educational leaves in terms of extrinsic reasons. Teachers were intrinsically satisfied with the teaching profession itself. What dissatisfied them the most, on the other hand, was the government's policies for the improvement of the profession, which was a common finding in other studies, too (Fernández-Costales & Gonzalez-Riaño, 2018; Kazerouni & Sadighi, 2014). In Kazerouni and Sadighi's (2014) study with Iranian female EFL teachers, factors causing dissatisfaction were physical conditions, benefits, and working hours. Afshar and Doosti (2016) revealed no different results than other studies in that Iranian teachers in their study were very satisfied with certain aspects of the teaching profession such as helping students learn and serving the society. Their dissatisfaction, though, stemmed from financial problems such as inadequate salary, the low prestige teaching has in Iran, administrators' inattentiveness, and students' lack of motivation in learning English. Baleghizadeh and Gordani (2012) adopted a slightly different perspective and looked into the quality of work life in relation to career motivation, which turned out to be related after all. That is, the higher the quality of a teacher's work life is, the more motivated the teacher is in terms of his or her career. Tsutsumi (2014) provided findings from the Japanese university context where basic factors ensuring satisfaction seem not to have changed; that is, Japanese EFL teachers opined that intrinsic factors were more at play with their satisfaction. As for extrinsic factors for job satisfaction, job security took the first place.

Regardless of the context of the studies, what remains constant after the analysis of the related literature is the fact that English teachers are motivated intrinsically

rather than extrinsically and interestingly enough, the former is so powerful that the latter cannot cause a weakening in their commitment to the profession and job satisfaction.

3.2.3. Motivations for Entering the Teaching Profession

The mindset of an English teacher when s/he decides to become one is another dominant theme in the studies selected for this principled review. Tagged as 'entry motivations', this phenomenon was researched in 7 studies, and 7 more studies categorized with other themes included a research question on it as well.

Research in this category can easily be divided into two in terms of their participants, for some of them looked into working teachers' motivations to become English teachers back when they were at the start of their career (Gao & Xu, 2014; Hayes, 2008; Igawa, 2009; Karavas, 2010; Kazerouni & Sadighi, 2014; Kim & Kim, 2015) while some others investigated those of PSTs, who made such a decision not long ago (Barnes, 2005; Erten, 2014; Gu & Lai, 2012; Lee & Yuan, 2014; Tustiawati, 2012; Yuan & Zhang, 2017; Zehir Topkaya & Uztosun, 2012; Zhao, 2008). However, what motivates either party at the very beginning stages of the profession does not seem to change much since the reasons for choosing a teaching career are more or less the same with both PSTs and teachers in they are mostly intrinsic and altruistic.

Some examples of altruistic reasons for choosing a teaching career were listed as being beneficial for people, influencing other people, working with young people, contributing to society, and shaping future generations (Erten, 2014; Igawa, 2009; Karavas, 2010; Kazerouni & Sadighi, 2014; Kim & Kim, 2015; Lee & Yuan, 2014; Tustiawati, 2012; Zehir Topkaya & Uztosun, 2012; Zhao, 2008).

An intrinsic source of motivation for the career choice of PSTs or teachers of English was the love of the subject, being English in this case (Barnes, 2005; Erten, 2014; Hayes, 2008; Igawa, 2009; Karavas, 2010; Kazerouni & Sadighi, 2014; Lee & Yuan, 2014; Yuan & Zhang, 2017; Zhao, 2008). In addition to the positive attitudes toward English, in some studies participants' perceived success and aptitude in English were also mentioned as valid reasons to go for teaching English (Barnes, 2005; Erten, 2014; Hayes, 2008). Some participants, on the contrary, opined that they did not think themselves as proficient in English, and chose a teacher education program to be more competent in the language (Gao & Xu, 2014; Yuan & Zhang, 2017). Another source of motivation related to language was the global influence of English and its popularity, which served as a motivation for entering teaching in some participants' accounts (Erten, 2014; Gu & Lai, 2012; Kim & Kim, 2015).

Another frequently mentioned intrinsic reason was identified as liking teaching (Erten, 2014; Igawa, 2009; Tustiawati, 2012; Zehir Topkaya & Uztosun, 2012), which was accompanied with the inspiration PSTs and teachers found in their own teachers in the past (Hayes, 2008; Tustiawati, 2012; Yuan & Zhang, 2017).

There were also extrinsic motivation sources at play for PSTs and teachers in the reviewed studies. The most popular one was job security (Hayes, 2008; Kazerouni & Sadighi, 2014; Kim & Kim, 2015; Lee & Yuan, 2014; Tustiawati, 2012; Zhao, 2008) identified in the studies from Thailand, Iran, South Korea, China, and Indonesia. Another feature that made teaching attractive for the participants in the first place was the flexibility the profession offered in that it provides long holidays and makes it possible to spend more time with one's family (Gu & Lai, 2012; Kazerouni & Sadighi, 2014; Lee & Yuan, 2014; Tustiawati, 2012).

One final motivation listed was more of a societal nature; that is, in several studies, teaching profession's being found more suitable for females in their family and society was given as one of the reasons for the participants' choice of career (Hayes, 2008; Igawa, 2009; Kazerouni & Sadighi, 2014).

Other noteworthy examples of motivations were the social mobility a teacher education program and the teaching profession offer (Gao & Xu, 2014) and inadequate university entrance exam scores being sufficient for enrollment in a teacher education program (Gu & Lai, 2012).

3.2.4. *Motivation from Different Perspectives*

Among the studies chosen for this review, there were some identified to be divergent interpretations of L2 teacher motivation. For instance, Hildebrandt and Eom (2011) looked into the motivational factors for foreign language teachers' professionalization and found that improved teaching and financial gain were listed as the two most important motivations for professional development. In another study, Sönmez Boran (2018) investigated whether English teachers were motivated as teacher researchers after they took a course on research. The data demonstrated that the component was effective in helping them feel motivated for conducting research in their own classrooms. Bernaus et al. (2009) questioned whether there was a relationship between constructs teacher motivation, student motivation, teachers' strategy use in the classroom, and students' achievement, all of which were found to be related to each other. Another study that had opened a relatively new avenue of research for the EFL/ESL context back in its time was Pennington and Ho's (as cited in Kassagby et al., 2001) work on the burnout of English teachers, which revealed no indication of burnout with ESL teachers after

the administration of the well-known Maslach Burnout Inventory to ESL teachers.

3.2.5. *Studies with Recent Theoretical Trends at Play*

There were 16 studies which were grouped within this category. A sub-theme was also identified among these 13 studies; that is, 6 of them focused on the change in L2 teacher motivation across a timeline.

In this ever-changing field of L2 teacher motivation, the number of studies with the possible selves of a language teacher in the center is on the rise. Hiver (2013) examined teacher development choices through possible selves and concluded that language teachers' developmental decisions are dependent on the self that is dominant in their working self-concept. In Rahmati et al.'s (2018) study, too, possible selves were the centerpiece in that they investigated whether language teachers had visions of themselves in the future and whether they have the components to complement those visions. However, most of their participants did not have any visions for the future, and even if they did, they were not very clear. Ribas (2012) also investigated L2 teacher motivation in light of the self-theories and found out that a teacher's self-images can increase and decrease his or her motivation.

Zarrinabad and Tavakoli (2017) aimed to "investigate the validity of the DMC theory" (p.159) conceptualized by Dörnyei and his colleagues by looking for the traces of DMC in their highly motivated participants' accounts of their becoming English teachers and found that theory worked in these participants' circumstances. Kavanoz and Yüksel (2017) researched PSTs' professional identity through motivations and concerns and concluded that identity is dynamically changing with the teacher education program acting as a mediating factor. Tardy and Snyder (2004) inquired about the concept of flow, a term coined by Csikszentmihalyi, researching how teachers experienced it. They found out that teachers really experienced it during several instances. In their study Eren and Tezel (2010) looked into something entirely different, questioning PSTs' future time perspectives' role in their career choice, motivations for teaching, beliefs about the profession, and professional plans. It was revealed that PSTs' future time perspectives were influential indeed in the mediation of the aforementioned constructs.

As mentioned earlier, 6 studies aimed to delve into motivation change in PSTs or teachers. For instance, Yuan and Zhang (2017) questioned whether PSTs' motivation to teach changed throughout a four-year teacher education program and reached the conclusion that it did with certain ups and downs. A similar study

was conducted by Lee and Yuan (2014) in Hong Kong this time round, and it was found that some PSTs' motivations to teach remained constant while others' showed certain patterns of change.

Several other studies inquired about the changes in working teachers' motivations to teach. Building their study on possible selves, Gao and Xu (2014) looked into the motivation of English teachers working in the underprivileged parts of China and discovered that it was in continuous change due to the negotiations the teachers conducted with their ideal selves and actual selves. Similarly, Kumazawa (2013) studied novice teachers' motivation to teach, concluding that the clash between the possible selves caused a decrease in it, but in the end the reflection phase they went through helped them to regain their motivation. On a slightly different note, Song and Kim (2016) investigated the shifts in the teaching motivations of two teachers with an Activity Theory perspective and found that L2 teacher motivation is subject to change due to "the dynamic interactions between the agents and contextual factors in an activity system" (Song and Kim, 2016, p. 134). Sampson (2016) investigated the same concept through a complex systems lens and presented how motivation evolved and adapted as a result of interactions with identity and affect across a timeline.

3.3. Research Methods of the Studies

An examination of 49 studies in terms of the research methodologies yielded the following results: 22 studies quantitative data collection methodologies, and various questionnaires were predominantly used as data collection instruments. There were instances where scales were used with inferential statistics although the common tendency was toward the use of descriptive statistics.

The number of studies with qualitative orientations was not few; researchers preferred qualitative methodologies in 18 studies in this review. Interviews of varying types, i.e. one-on-one, focus or group interviews in a semi-structured manner or in the form of life history interviews/narratives were the most common data collection instruments for the qualitative researchers. Additional instruments were classroom observation notes, written reports, reflection papers, journals and diaries. Practices specific to qualitative data collection procedures such as member-checking, ensuring inter-rater reliability and such were noted in the reviewed studies, too.

The remaining 9 studies were the ones that employed mixed methods as their research design. The majority of them typically followed the first-quantitative-then-qualitative procedure to explain the results of the quantitative phase in

further detail while some of them employed qualitative data collection first, following it up with a quantitative phase.

4.Conclusion and Suggestions

This principled review aimed to present a full picture of a recently popularized concept in the field of second language teacher education: L2 teacher motivation. Brought to the foreground due to teacher attrition and retention rates in addition to its profound effect on L2 learning motivation and achievement, L2 teacher motivation research has been experiencing an exponential rise in interest especially for the last decade. Thus, this review emerged as a means of informing scholars and teacher educators from all levels and varieties of academic study about the past and current status of L2 teacher motivation with its close inspection of 49 journal articles that fit certain criteria.

The review revealed that the majority of L2 teacher motivation studies were conducted in in-service teacher education contexts. As for the countries where the studies were carried out, their variety has to be underlined since 19 countries provided the settings for the studies within the scope of this review. The themes that were researched in these studies were some regular concepts such as the factors (de)motivating teachers or PSTs, their jobs satisfaction and entering motivations. Furthermore, a considerable number of studies particularly zeroed in on alternative representations of L2 teacher motivation like possible selves, and others integrated novel research frameworks in pursuit of recent SLA theories such as Activity Theory and Complexity Theory. Finally, the research methodologies the studies employed were investigated, and it was found that there was almost an equal distribution of quantitative and qualitative studies with some mixed method studies thrown in in between.

All in all, this principled review can serve as a point of departure for outlining what the future holds for L2 teacher motivation research. Due to the rising importance of recruitment and retention of qualified teachers around the world, L2 teacher motivation, too, is bound for further attention, and the direction this attention will take is currently toward the above-mentioned latest trends in SLA along with concepts such as vision, directed motivational currents, and identity. As a suggestion for future research, it would not be wrong to point out the need for more studies on PSTs with a lot more concentration on teaching English and for studies of longitudinal nature at larger scales. As Woolfolk Hoy (2008) aptly puts it, teachers can be altruistic in their career choices, but it does not change the

fact that "the realities of teaching can be disheartening" (p. 497). So, perhaps, the ultimate goal here is hidden between those lines: preparing teachers for the harsh realities in such a way that the motivation that made them choose this profession will not cease to exist and they will keep practicing teaching with 'unwavering' motivation.

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Chapter 14

A review of comparative evaluation studies in language teacher education from 2000 to 2018

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Abstract

This study presents an exhaustive review of comparative studies that focus on the evaluation of English language teacher education programs. Therefore, it attempts to identify the general tendency in the comparative evaluation of language teacher education programs by looking at twelve papers that have been published in notable journals over the past eighteen years. The review reveals that there is little research about the comparative evaluation of language teacher education programs and concludes by suggesting a possible future agenda for comparative evaluation studies in language teacher education.

Keywords: Comparative evaluation, English language teacher education programs

1. Introduction

It is undeniable that the emergence of English as a global language has had a profound impact on educational policies and practices all over the world (Nunan, 2001) and boosted the demand for qualified English language teachers. Thus, much emphasis has been laid on training competent English language teachers and the onus, at this point, falls on teacher education programs to generate well-prepared teacher candidates. In order to ensure the effectiveness of these programs, it is of paramount importance to undertake program evaluations (Musset, 2010). Similarly, Armstrong (2007) underlines the importance of evaluating teacher education programs as follows:

> "Effective teacher education programs must provide sufficient coursework in teaching methods, balance theory and practice, and instill in candidates the importance of professional conduct. With these areas identified as components of quality teacher education programs, it then becomes the task of education departments to evaluate their programs and determine if they are meeting the needs of their teacher candidates."(p.13)

Although the evaluation of language teacher education programs in terms of how well they prepare teachers is important, previous studies (e.g. Martinez

Agudo, 2017; Coskun and Daloglu, 2010; Peacock 2009) have reported that far too little attention has been paid to the overall evaluation of these programs. Martinez Agudo (2017) states that studies on the evaluation of language teacher education programs, which are rare to find in literature, are "context-specific and mainly concerned with the implementation of such programs in their own settings" (p. 62).

Besides context-specific studies which evaluate teacher education programs, it is also possible to evaluate these programs through comparisons. As Gathara and Wolhuter (2013) state, "In education circles, reformers and educationists have been comparing their system with that found in other countries in order to improve their own" (p.1). Hence, these studies might contribute to the development of educational practices and to establish generalized statements regarding educational systems in different countries. Adamson (2012) emphasizes the role of comparative studies in policy making and notes that policymakers can find novel solutions for their local problems through these studies. He adds that authors can cultivate an awareness of their contexts by situating their study in an international context and international audience can resonate with international comparative studies. Although comparative studies have lots of benefits, Kosmützky (2015) states that "international comparative outlook seems to become outdated in a world where national spaces become more and more global" (p.354).

Comparative studies are important in comparative education which is mostly defined as "a fully established academic field of study that examines education in one country (or group of countries) by using data and insights drawn from the practices and situation in another country, or countries" (Gathara & Wolhuter, 2013, p.1). Kandel (1955) states that "comparative education seeks to discover underlying causes to explain why the educational systems of different countries differ from each other, what are their motivating aims and purposes, what their sources are, and what general principles emerge" (p. 5). The scope of comparative education is broad as it can cover all the areas in the realm of education (Adamson, 2012). Adamson (2012) lists units of analysis covered by the field of comparative education as follows:

"locations, systems, policies and policymaking processes, times, cultures, values, conflict resolution and citizenship, educational achievements, international indicators and student performance, curricula, educational organisations, governance and accountability, ways of knowing and learning, ways of teaching, economics of education, assessment, teacher education and professionalism, ideologies, goals and purposes of education, social equity and access to education, language in education" (p.642).

Adamson (2012) mentions three approaches to comparative education. The classical approach consists of country-based comparisons, which are "usually in the forms of a two-location study" (p.642). The second approach is to place the education of one context at the centre of analysis and then make comparisons with other context(s). In the third approach, equal treatment is given to several contexts. Apart from these approaches, Adamson (2012) states that "articles that focus on a single context are implicitly comparative because they invite the audience to make their own comparisons between the context described in the paper and another culture that is familiar to the readers" (p.642). Similarly, Carnoy (2006) claims that this type of research falls within the field of comparative research and he labels single-country research implicitly comparative research. Kosmützky (2015) also raises a similar argument and argues that single-country studies are implicitly comparative because they allow scholars to interpret their findings by comparing what they learn with what is known about other countries.

2. Method

This study primarily aims at reviewing the existing comparative studies that focus on the evaluation of English language teacher education programs. Therefore, it attempts to identify the general research tendency in the comparative evaluation of language teacher education programs. For this aim, journals that are indexed in Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI), Emerging Sciences Citation Index (ESCI), British Education Index (BEI) and Australian Education Index (AEI) were selected. As a result of this delimitation, these seven notable journals were included for the review: Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, Australian Journal of Teacher Education, European Journal of Higher Education, Journal of Education for Teaching, Journal of Teacher Education, Language Teaching Research and RELC Journal.

While selecting the studies for the review, we started by writing the keywords "comparative", "comparative evaluation", "evaluation" "language teacher education" and checked the titles of all articles published in selected journals since 2000. We compiled a list of papers that evaluated language teacher education programs. We also included articles that focused on a single context as they are "implicitly comparative by inviting readers to make their own comparisons between the context described in the paper and another culture that is familiar to the readers" (Adamson, 2012, p.642).

The literature review has shown that there have been several teacher education studies which make comparisons with other countries. The focus of

most of the studies is not on primarily language teacher education programs, but rather teacher education in general. For this reason, these studies were excluded. There have been other comparative studies which are related to language teaching and teacher education. However, as they do not primarily focus on the overall evaluation of language teacher education programs or the evaluation of a component of them, they were also excluded. Intra-national comparison studies are also beyond the scope of this review. So, the final list of articles is limited to twelve papers in total.

3. Comparative Evaluation Studies in Language Teacher Education

This review subsumes the studies in the corpus under two main headings, namely international comparative studies focusing on the evaluation of language teacher education programs and single-country studies focusing on the evaluation of language teacher education programs. Only one paper uses international comparison whereas eleven of them are single-country studies.

3.1. International comparative studies focusing on the evaluation of language teacher education programs

In the corpus of this study, only one out of twelve studies is found as compatible with this category. In her comparative study, Nguyen (2013) aims to analyze the variation across and within the curricula for English Language Teacher Education in Australian and Vietnamese Universities. In her analysis, she focuses on the content and structures of Second Language Teacher Education (SLTE) programs and contextual factors that shape the development of the curricula. The choice of Australia and Vietnam for the comparison is based on the difference in speaking background and setting. Most pre-service teachers in the Australian program have an English-speaking background but those in the Vietnamese program come from a non-English speaking background. The other reason is that the English Language Teacher Education (ELTE) program in Australia is implemented in an English as a Second Language (ESL) setting while the Vietnamese program is in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) setting. The study uses a mixed method research. Relevant literature, policy and curriculum documents and interviews are used as data collection tools. Qualitative data is analyzed using content analysis and weighting of domains within the curriculum is calculated in the form of percentages. Domains of knowledge that constitute the English Language Teacher Education programs and contextual factors that underlie the structures of these programs are revealed. It is found that there is a great difference in the

structure of the content of the two curricula. Strengths and weaknesses within each curriculum are also revealed. For example, the curriculum at the University in Australia is strong in terms of contextual and pedagogical knowledge. However, it does not cover any unit developing subject matter knowledge. The curriculum of the university in Vietnam devotes most of its load to English proficiency and subject matter knowledge but little attention has been paid to contextual knowledge. The study suggests the need to look into the curriculum and contexts of SLTE programs in various contexts.

3.2. Single-country studies focusing on the evaluation of language teacher education programs

Single-country studies focusing on the evaluation of language teacher education programs comprise the big part of the corpus produced. While some of the articles in the corpus deal with the overall program evaluation, some others focus on the evaluation of some components in the language teacher education program.

The primary goal of studies which primarily concentrate on the overall evaluation of English language teacher education programs is mostly to determine the strengths and weaknesses of the program from various stakeholders' perspectives. For example, Martinez Agudo (2017) carries out an exploratory study in order to reveal the strengths and weaknesses of an EFL teacher education program in Spain. For this purpose, both qualitative and quantitative research methods are followed. As data collection tools, questionnaire, several open-ended questions and semi-structured interviews are used. The participants believe that the Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) program mostly prepared them well for EFL teaching, so they evaluate it positively in general. According to them, the strengths of the program are pedagogic competence and promotion of reflection. On the other hand, they highlight the need for more input on proficiency. Participants also suggest that more emphasis be placed on theory rather than practice and the amount of practice teaching be increased.

In another study that focuses on the overall program evaluation in language teacher education, Peacock (2009) proposes a new procedure to be used in evaluating foreign language teacher education programs. He also tests the procedure by evaluating a TEFL program in Hong Kong. To this end, he gathers the views of 166 third- year students, 8 programme teachers and alumni about the whole programme. The research design includes qualitative and quantitative research methods. As data collection tools, he uses interviews,

questionnaires, essays and programme materials. Strengths and weaknesses of the programme as well as to what extent it meets students' needs are determined. It is revealed that the programme has some strengths such as promoting reflection. Most of the students find the programme practical and acknowledge the program design. Participants suggest that practice teaching be increased and input in some areas such as classroom management be provided.

By using the model developed by Peacock (2009), Coşkun and Daloglu (2010) attempt to shed light on pre-service English teacher education program components that require improvement. They collect data from teachers and senior year students through questionnaires and interview. Participants believe that student teachers' linguistic competence is neglected in the program and suggest improving the pedagogic part. They also underline the lack of practice teaching in the program. The study heightens the need for similar program evaluation studies in English language teacher education.

Unlike the abovementioned studies, some studies in the corpus deal with the evaluation of a specific unit in the language teacher education program. For example, Seferoglu (2006) examines student teachers' reflections on the methodology and practice parts of an English language teacher education program carried out in Turkey. In this qualitative study, she collects data from 176 teacher candidates through reports and analyzes them to find common patterns and themes. The participating candidate teachers' comments reveal that they couldn't establish a connection between the course materials and practice in real classrooms. Moreover, they raise their concerns about having not sufficient opportunities for micro-teaching and practice teaching and suggest that the program should offer more opportunities for them.

In another study that evaluates a specific unit in the language teacher education program, Larzen-Östermark (2009) examines student teachers' perceptions about how effectively their teacher education program incorporates cultural aspects into their training. In this quantitative study, data are collected through a questionnaire. It is revealed that the program promotes familiarity with target language culture but cultural aspects such as lifestyles, beliefs, norms, paralinguistic are not addressed enough in student teachers' training. Moreover, they do not learn strategies about how to teach language and culture in an integrated way. The study underlines the need for culture-teaching methodology courses in language teacher education programs.

Moreover, Zein (2015) explores the views of English teachers and teacher educators about the language teacher education program to better train student teachers for teaching English to young learners in Indonesia where English

Language Education Program is not specifically designed for teaching English at the elementary level. Semi-structured interviews are used to gather the data. Participants are asked to make suggestions in order to improve pre-service education in training elementary English teachers. The study heightens the need for designing the curricula again and specific preparation for English teachers who would work in elementary schools.

In Manalingappa and Polat's (2013) study, curriculum frameworks in English language teacher education programs are analyzed by considering international second language teaching standards and Turkey's Higher Education Council (HEC) mandates for these programs. Program directors' perceptions concerning the existing situations of their programs about those standards and mandates are also examined. Eight ELTE curricula, interviews with program directors, student admission test scores and manuals for standards constitute the data collection tools of this qualitative study. It is revealed that a homogeneous curriculum is offered in Turkey by comparison with international education standards for Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). ELTE programs in Turkey are found to have some weaknesses in language, culture, instruction, assessment and professionalism domains when compared to TESOL standards. Program directors state that the quality of teacher education programs is negatively affected by adherence to the strict HEC mandates and they also raise their concerns about the faculty profile and teacher candidates' admission to ELTE programs with insufficient English language proficiency.

In their qualitative study, Barners and Smagorinsky (2016) examine what teacher candidates in three different language education programs in the USA learn about teaching and to what they attribute their learning. They attempt to understand what pedagogical tools affect teacher candidates' conceptions of how to teach. Data are gathered through interviews to find out the influences teacher candidates identify. It is found that there are a number of factors that affect teacher candidates' developing conception of teaching and teacher education program is among them. It is also underscored that there exist different factors that are not under the control of teacher education programs contributing to the novice teachers' preparation for the classroom.

Apart from the studies that evaluate language teacher education programs, some studies in the corpus trace the influence of program on different aspects. For example, Yook and Lee (2016) examine the impact of English as a foreign language teacher education program on the classroom practices of Korean teachers. Data are collected from six in-service teachers through semi-

structured interviews. It is revealed that most of the participating teachers were not satisfied with their pre-service education as it is mostly theory-oriented. They also state that observing other teachers' practices during practicum affected them positively. Participants raise their concerns about their low English proficiency and washback effect of Korea Scholastic Aptitude Test and claim that they are not enthusiastic about trying out the ideas, methods, or activities they learned from training programs because of these factors.

Macalister (2016) examines the effect of the transnational language education program on the language teaching practices of pre-service teachers in their practicum. The researcher tries to find the evidences of impact from a two-year transnational program in New Zealand in language teaching of Malaysian fourth- year students during their practicum in Malaysia. Interviews, field notes and documents are used as data collection tools. He could identify some influences of the time spent in New Zealand to some extent but not with absolute certainty because of the challenges in identifying the sources of impact on practices.

In another study, Macalister (2017) analyzes how transnational education contributes to English language learning of pre-service language teachers. He uses the interview as a data collection tool in order to get the views of two pre-service language teachers who spent two years in New Zealand as a part of their teacher education program in Malaysia. It is revealed that two years spent in New Zealand do not contribute to their English proficiency as much as they expected.

4. Units of analysis in comparative evaluation studies in language teacher education

In this section, units of analysis in comparative evaluation studies in the corpus are given (See Table 1). These units of analysis show in what aspects evaluations in language teachers education programs are carried out. As aforementioned, the final list of articles in the corpus is limited to twelve papers in total. While one paper uses international comparisons in language teacher education, eleven of them are single-country studies. Three of the single country studies focus on the overall evaluation of the language teacher education program. On the other hand, four of them deal with evaluating some components in a language teacher education program. Apart from the studies evaluating a language teacher education program, three studies trace the impact of the program.

Table 1.

Contexts and units of analysis in the studies

	Author (s); Year	Context(s)	Unit(s) of analysis
International Comparative Studies	Nguyen; 2013	Australia and Vietnam	Curriculum
Single-country studies	Martinez Agudo; 2017	Spain	Overall evaluation of the program
	Coşkun &Daloğlu; 2010	Turkey	Overall evaluation of the program
	Peacock; 2009	China	Overall evaluation of the program
	Barnes& Smagorinsky; 2016	The USA	Pedagogical tools
	Seferoglu; 2006	Turkey	Methodology and practice
	Larzen-Östermark; 2009	Finland	Incorporation of culture
	Mahalingappa &Polat; 2013	Turkey	Curriculum frameworks
	Zein; 2015	Indonesia	Teaching English to young learners
	Macalister; 2016	Malaysia	Impact of the transnational program on classroom practice
	Macalister; 2017	Malaysia	Impact of the transnational program on language learning
	Yook & Lee; 2016	Korea	Impact of the program on practice

In the international comparative study in the corpus (Nguyen, 2013), the curriculum is the unit of analysis. In the studies by Martinez Agudo (2017), Coşkun and Daloğlu (2010) and Peacock (2009), the focus in on the overall evalution of the language teacher education program. Pedagogical tools (Barnes & Smagorinsky, 2016), methodology and practice (Seferoglu, 2006), incorporation of culture into the program (Larzen-Östermark, 2009), curriculum frameworks (Mahalingappa & Polat, 2013), teaching English to young learners (Zein, 2015) are the units of analysis in studies which analyze a specific unit in language teacher education programs. When it comes to the studies tracing the influence of the program, the impact of the program on classroom practice (Macalister, 2016; Yook & Lee, 2016) and on language learning (Macalister 2017) are the units of analysis.

5. Methodological trends of international comparative studies in language teacher education

When the studies in the corpus of this review are examined in terms of their research methods, it is found that the number of qualitative studies outnumbers the mixed method and quantitative method studies. Seven out of twelve studies in the corpus employ the qualitative method. While four of them use a mixed-method approach, only one of them is purely quantitative.

As for the data collection tools used in the studies, it can be said that interviews, questionnaires, documents related to policy and curriculum, essays and field notes are preferred. Among these data collection tools, interviews are used in ten out of twelve studies. In six of them, researchers utilize documents about the programs. In four of them, questionnaires are used. In two of them, student teacher essays are considered. One of them makes use of field notes.

6. Conclusion

In this study, twelve articles, conducted on the comparative evaluation of English language teacher education programs and published in seven prominent journals from 2008 to 2018, are reviewed. The review reveals that there is little research about the comparative evaluation of language teacher education programs. It has also been reported by previous studies (e.g. Martinez Agudo, 2017; Coskun and Daloglu, 2010; Peacock 2009). Realizing the gap in the existing literature, more research is needed especially for international comparative studies.

It is revealed that only one paper in the corpus uses international comparisons in language teacher education. As abovementioned, Kösmützky (2015) states that "international comparative outlook seems to become outdated" (p.354). It seems to apply to studies in the evaluation of language teacher education programs as well. Eleven of the studies in the corpus are single-country studies. This finding also corroborates with what Martinez Agudo (2017) states. He reports that studies on the evaluation of language teacher education programs are "context-specific and mainly concerned with the implementation of such programs in their own settings". While three of the single country studies focus on the overall evaluation of the language teacher education program and four of them analyze a specific unit in a language teacher education program. Apart from the studies evaluating a language teacher education program, three studies trace the impact of the program.

When it comes to the units of analysis in language teacher education program evaluation studies, the overall evaluation of the program is the most prefered one. The other units of analysis are pedagogical tools, methodology and practice, incorporation of culture, curriculum frameworks, teaching English to young learners, the influence of the program on language learning and on classroom practice. It appears from the aforementioned studies that most attention has been paid to evaluating the strengths and weaknesses of English language teacher education programs. Student teachers and other stakeholders' views are gathered in order to reveal them.

When the studies in the corpus of this review are examined in terms of their research methods, it is found that the number of qualitative studies outnumbers the mixed method and quantitative method studies. Seven out of twelve studies in the corpus employ the qualitative method. The reason for the popularity of qualitative research methods seems to be related to the nature of data collection tools in program evaluation studies. Since the studies are related to the evaluation of English language teacher education programs, getting the stakeholders' views and examining the documents about the program are mostly preferred. While four of them use a mixed-method approach, only one of them is purely quantitative. As for the data collection tools used in the studies, it can be said that interviews, questionnaires, documents related to policy and curriculum, essays and field notes are preferred. Of all these data collection tools, interviews stand out as they are used in ten out of twelve studies.

Inquiry focusing on the evaluation of English language teacher education programs will enable us to gain insights into what these programs offer to student teachers and how this process influences their perceptions as second language teachers. It is pointed out in the study that research on comparative evaluation of English language teacher education programs has been remarkably absent from the literature. Efforts should be made to contribute to the relevant literature. For example, strengths and weaknesses of language teacher education programs in two different contexts can be revealed, as Nguyen (2013) did. It is also possible to look into the curriculum and contexts of SLTE programs in various contexts as Coşkun and Daloglu (2010) suggested. Moreover, language teacher education programs can be evaluated by using the model developed by Peacock 2009. As Peacock (2009) puts it, "There seem to be very few detailed descriptions of how to conduct overall evaluations of FLT education programmes" (p.261). Hence, new procedures can be created to assess language teacher education programs and they can be tested by evaluating the effectiveness of these programs. Furthermore, studies that

provide an in-depth examination of the various elements of language teacher education programs can be undertaken. Specifically, studies focusing on exclusively different pedagogical tools used in these programs can help us broaden our understanding of factors that profoundly affect the teaching practice.

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Chapter 15

A Review of Research on Professional Identity of Novice Language Teachers from 2005 to 2018

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Abstract

This chapter reviews a selection of research from the field of foreign language teaching into what is referred to here as novice language teacher identity – the early career teachers' dynamic self-conception, which is constructed and developed through active participation in different communities, interaction with other individuals through language and discourse, and positions in social contexts. Therefore, language teacher identity, being the recently emerging theme in the second language teacher education, plays a determining role in a wide array of issues, ranging from how teachers learn to enact their profession, how they educate their students, and how they interact and socialise with their colleagues in their social contexts. Framed by sociocultural theory, this chapter discusses the interrelationship between novice language teacher identity and these core constructs: teacher emotions, their previous pre-service education, the way their professional knowledge is built, and their professional development. Future directions in second language teacher education have been suggested in the last part of this review.

Keywords: language teacher identity; sociocultural theory; teacher emotions; novice teachers

1. Introduction

Many researchers have found that identity plays a major role in teachers' teaching practices, professional development and beliefs (Gallchoir, Flaherty, & Hinchion, 2018; Pitt & Britzman, 2003). Therefore, teacher identity has recently caught the attention of scholars in the field of second language teacher education (Flores & Day, 2006; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Kanno & Stuart, 2011; Miller, 2009; Mockler, 2011; Singh & Richards, 2006; Yazan, 2018).

A brief analysis of the teacher identity definitions in the literature has a pattern of common features. It is dynamic, relational, context-bound,

negotiated, enacted, transforming, developing over time, and influenced by the teachers' own characteristics (Miller, 2009; Mockler, 2011; Pillen, Beijaard, & Brok, 2013). Although no agreement exists on what influences teacher identity, recent research has focused on the sociocultural factors that shape teachers' professional identity such as changing workplace conditions (Flores, 2001; Kelchtermans, 1993), cultural differences (Johnson, 2003; Lasky, 2005), narratives and stories (Atkinson, 2004; Olsen, 2008), teachers' emotional events (Schutz, Cross, Hong, & Osbon, 2007; Wolff & De Costa, 2017), institutional practices, teaching resources, and access to professional development (Miller, 2009). Rather than being an entity, identity is thought to be related to social, cultural, and institutional elements (Yazan, 2018). What teachers know and do, and how they act and transform via interaction in the classroom is part of their identity work (Miller, 2009; Singh & Richards, 2006). Therefore, teacher identity is a concept that includes becoming and being a teacher (Pillen et all., 2017). This notion is associated with the sociocultural perspective on teacher development that teachers' knowledge base and competences are basically related to teacher identity and teacher development while transitioning from a student teacher to a teacher self (Yazan, 2018).

1.1. Conceptual Framework for Novice Language Teacher Identity

Recent research in novice teacher identity has presented several consistent themes. Identity is conceptualised as dynamic, relational, constructed in social contexts, and an on-going process of self-investment (Yazan, 2018). Below, we introduce an overview of teacher identity definitions in the literature.

Table 1. The definitions of teacher identity in the literature

Source	Definition
Norton (2000, p. 5)	"how a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how that person understands possibilities for the future"
Johnson (2003, p. 788)	"relational, constructed and altered by how I see others and how they see me in our shared experiences and negotiated interactions"
Beijaard & Meijer & Verloop (2004,	"teacher identity refers not only to the

p.108)	influence of the conceptions and expectations of other people, including broadly accepted images in society about what a teacher should know and do, but also to what teachers themselves find important in their professional work and lives based on both their experiences in practice and their personal backgrounds"
Akkerman & Meijer (2011, pp. 317-318)	"an ongoing process of negotiating and interrelating multiple I-positions in such a way that a more or less coherent and consistent sense of self is maintained throughout various participations and self-investment in one's working life"
Mockler (2011, p. 519)	"the way teachers, both individually and collectively, view and understand themselves as teachers. It is thus understood to be formed within, but then also out of, the narratives and stories that form the 'fabric' of teachers' lives"

Taken together, identity is portrayed as "relational, negotiated, (re)constructed and performed in context" (Miller, 2009, p.174). Identity is the endeavour to discover one's conceptions and beliefs about himself as a teacher, which is the basis of the teaching profession, in socio-culturally different contexts through negotiations. Rather than being an entity, identity is related to social, cultural, and institutional factors (Lasky, 2005).

The sociocultural perspective in the SLTE enables us to see important aspects of the cognitive processes at work in teacher learning (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Johnson, 2009). Teachers are seen as individuals who have their beliefs about the language and language learning, who bring previous learning experiences into their teaching contexts and who transform the activities of teaching into certain concepts within time (Yazan, 2018). Ultimately, recent research in the field of SLTE has explored teachers' professional identities from various perspectives in the context where these teachers learn and teach, and which is surrounded by the social, political, economic, and cultural histories. However, as Kanno and Stuart (2011) highlight, studies related to the examination of novice language teacher development and inquiry into novice language teachers' identity development are noticeably rare in the SLTE field. Hence, we aim to provide a

sociocultural perspective and a critical discussion of the core constructs, themes, and research methodologies in the existing studies on novice language teacher identity, and to identify the sound suggestions and potential research areas for future research directions. We illustrate five of these strands within a growing body of studies on novice teacher identity, along with a special focus on novice teacher period in SLTE.

Cohen and Manion (1994) define content analysis as "a multipurpose research method developed specifically for investigating a broad spectrum of problems in which the content of communication serves as a basis of inference" (p.55). Using this analysis, we aimed to investigate the mostly researched themes in building novice teachers' identities. We thus identified 36 articles published between 2005-2018 in teacher education journals indexed in Social Sciences Citation Index and Emerging Sources Citation Index.

Table 2. Chronology of research on novice language teacher identity

Year of publication	Studies in this review
2005	2
2006	3
2007	1
2008	2
2009	1
2010	2
2011	3
2012	4
2013	4
2014	3
2015	3
2016	3
2017	2
2018	3

In choosing studies for this review, we searched for published work analysing how novice teacher identity is built in initial years of the profession, what factors contribute to or limit their identity formation, and how novice teachers understand and experience their initial years in the profession.

1.2. Focusing on the Novice Language Teacher Experience

Novice teachers, also named as newly qualified/ beginning/ early career teachers, are generally defined as teachers who have just completed their pre-service teacher education programme and begun the teaching profession in an educational institution (Farrell, 2012). Since it is their first time in the profession, the teaching experience is an unpredictable, shocking and anxiety provoking issue for them. Novice teachers expect to transform the theory they gain at pre-service level into practice in the real teaching atmosphere; however, this is not possible in most cases owing to replacement of ideal teaching conditions they have established during their pre-service years by the social, cultural, economic and political realities in the workplace (Farrell, 2012; Flores & Day, 2006; Miller, 2009). This impossibility and replacement signal what Tarone and Allwright (2005) define as "a gap that cannot be bridged by novice teachers" (p.12). The research suggests that this situation results from certain influences such as the nature of pre-service teacher education programmes they graduate from, their previous teaching practice experiences, and their socialisation experiences into the new educational and institutional contexts (Akcan & Tatar, 2010; Akcan, 2016; Caspersen & Raaen, 2013; Fantilli & McDougall, 2009; Farrell, 2012; Tavil & Güngör, 2016; Williams & Pettway, 2005; Wolff & De Costa, 2017).

According to Flores and Day (2006), context is one of the most important factors that shape novice language teachers' learning and identity formation as they transform themselves from being a student teacher to being a teacher. During the pre-service education years, student teachers are exposed to many contextual factors ranging from the classroom experiences in the practicum to curriculum and testing (Yazan, 2018). These factors have a determining role in their identity construction either by constraining or affording the opportunities in their pre-service context. Hence, "novice teachers always find themselves under the influence of context when making interpretations and decisions about their teaching" (Yazan, 2018, p.36). As a result, novice teachers experience many challenges while they are learning to teach in their new working context during the first years. It is believed that novice teachers in this process are constructing teacher identities depending on the

institutional, personal and professional roles in their workplace (Farrell, 2012; Mahmoudi-Gahrouei, Tavakoli, & Hamman, 2016).

1.3. Teacher Emotions

Teacher emotions are viewed as "a heightened state of being that changes" (Lasky, 2005, p. 901). On the way to becoming a teacher, teacher emotions emerging out of the interaction with colleagues, students, and parents determine the development of teacher identity (Yazan, 2018). For him, this emerging identity also mutually affects how they emotionally react to various incidents they face in the novice years of teaching. As Nichols, Schutz, Rodgers, and Bilica (2017) emphasize, exploring the ways novice teachers' enact in their context is important to understand the relation between their emotions and the emerging identity development. For them, this relation is mutual, on-going, and multidirectional. For example, teachers' emerging identities may influence their emotions and behaviours in the classroom, which at the same time, influence teachers' emerging identities. While teachers' unpleasant experiences may shape their existing identities negatively, pleasant events and incidents may also confirm their emerging identities. Hence, it is obvious that teacher identities are affected by their emotions and contextual experiences (Nichols et all., 2017; Schutz et all., 2007) because teaching is rooted in political, social, economic, and cultural contexts (Ben-Peretz & Flores, 2018; Johnson, 2009). Also, the on-going characteristic of professional teacher identity development requires reflecting on personal, social and institutional enactments in the classroom, and how knowledge, pedagogy, and identity are interrelated. Therefore, understanding the complexity and importance of context (the specificity of school, the classroom affordances, students' background, teaching resources, curriculum and the policy, the significant others like colleagues, counselling teachers, head of the school, parents, etc.) play a vital role in understanding what teachers enact in the classroom and how they construct identity in the local context (Miller, 2009; Sisson, 2016).

Previous studies have been conducted to understand the dynamics of professional identity development. They focused on challenges and emotions novice teachers have experienced and the coping strategies, which help the teachers' identities develop (Izadinia, 2015; Pillen et al., 2013; Timostsuk & Ugaste, 2010). This has been achieved in several ways, for example, through surveys and case studies in Estonia (Fantilli & McDougall, 2009), reflective practices and interviews with various ethnic groups in the USA (Nichols et al., 2016; Wolff & De Costa, 2017), narrations in Israel (Orland-Barak & Maskit,

2011), and interviews and questionnaires in the Netherlands (Pillen et al., 2013). With the aim of understanding novice teachers' challenges to inform stakeholders, Fantilli and McDougall (2009) explored case studies and stories of 86 novice teachers in Ontario. Results show that the inability to meet special education needs of students, cooperate with parents effectively, deal with behaviour problems in the classroom, and lack of collaboration with significant others in the school cause stress, anxiety, and a sense of failure for novice teachers. They argue that pre-service programmes need to enhance practical tasks that are most difficult for novice teachers to handle. Also, the need for effective mentor-novice collaboration and subject specific workshops in in-service programmes is explained as a future implication. Similarly, Nichols et al. (2016) focused on pleasant and unpleasant moments that led to emerging identities of novice teachers with different ethnic backgrounds. They pointed to a sense of desperation, frustration, and stress when novice teachers were unable to handle an issue properly or find a solution to a problem. While unpleasant emotions gave way to questioning what else needed to be made to cope with the challenges, pleasant experiences confirmed what it meant to be a successful teacher. Narratives in Orland-Barak and Mazkit's (2011) study served as both data collection and reflection tools that helped novice teachers surface the authentic professional moments in their first years of teaching. They opened a window into novice teachers' reflections on the dynamics of classroom experience and learning teaching practices. As a result, novice teachers increased a sense of belief and hope to make a change.

In their study with 40 novice language teachers, Mahmoudi-Gahrouei et al. (2016) revealed that these teachers expressed negative emotions while trying to be accustomed to the realities of schools, the unexpected working conditions and renegotiating what they hope and fear becoming as teachers. Likewise, Pillen et al. (2013) found that novice teachers often expressed negative emotions such as being angry, helpless, insecure, or preoccupied with own shortcomings stemming from the inability to bridge the gap between ideal considerations and the realities of the classroom context. In terms of coping strategies, novice teachers in their study preferred looking for a solution on their own or speaking to a significant other about their tensions to receive help in making decisions. Contrary to the focus of research on negative emotions in Mahmoudi-Gahrouei et al. (2016), Wolff and De Costa (2017) elaborated on the positive emotions of a Bangladeshi novice teacher in her struggle to get accustomed to the teaching atmosphere and different student populations in the USA. They used semi-structured interviews,

classroom observations, simulated verbal and written reports and prompted journal entries. They found out that maintaining the desire to improve and teach English language skills, being aware of limitations in teaching resources and access to the technology, and knowing the strengths and weaknesses as a non-native teacher in the USA would help novice teachers understand the relation between the teaching context and their personal history. By focusing on the importance of the profession and the value culturally embedded in it, and by being determined and willing to adapt oneself into the realities of classrooms, they may focus on the positive emotions and develop culturally different coping strategies in cases of unexpected situations in the profession.

   Considering the emotions and coping strategies of novice teachers in international context, it can be claimed that emotions can be very serious and have a determining role in shaping teachers' identity. Since emotions are viewed as natural and are related to the views teachers have of themselves and others, novice teachers need to produce alternative and authentic strategies to cope with them so as to have a balanced identity in the profession (Nias, 1996; Pillen et al., 2013). In other words, the challenges novice teachers experience in the real classroom context that result in positive or negative emotions, bring about authentic coping strategies, which help teachers engage in identity construction (Nichols et al., 2017).

1.4. Teacher Learning: The Effect of Pre-service Programmes

   The knowledge base in SLTE has been recently reconceptualised through the sociocultural understanding (Freeman & Johnson, 1998). The previous assumption viewed language teacher education as a matter of simply putting theories of second language acquisition into teaching. The teacher education programmes were established upon the traditional "applied science" model (Wallace & Bau, 1991), which assumed that knowledge about language and language acquisition could be simply applied in the teaching language. The traditional understanding considered teacher learning as a cognitive issue that learners develop on their own and the knowledge base as a disciplinary knowledge that only focused on how a language was structured, used and acquired (Johnson, 2009; Yazan, 2018). Freeman and Johnson (1998), however, suggest that teachers' emotions, beliefs, experiences and values are also part of teacher learning and that knowledge base. Therefore, they must be considered for what teachers need to know, how they learn to teach and how they should teach.

The novel view on language teacher education highlights the important role of context in which teachers participate in professional interaction with colleagues, students, parents, mentors and supervisors in reflexive, on-going and in-depth analysis of their teaching skills and students' learning atmospheres, and in communities where the teacher socialization takes place (Johnson, 2009). Moving from this view, SLTE programmes, for her, must consider the cultural, social, political, and economic backgrounds that exist in the contexts where language teachers live, learn and teach. According to Yazan (2018), novice teachers enter the profession with prior experiences, beliefs, values, and assumptions about teaching. During pre-service education, this constitutes a part of their initial teacher identity and then their emerging identities are reconstructed through their understanding and interpretation of the experiences in the practicum and in the new work place. For Yazan (2018), teacher identity and teacher learning are two "intimately connected contours which are both driving forces underpinning teacher candidates' professional growth" (p.31).

From a critical perspective on the components of the programme, the delivery of the courses, the interaction with mentors and supervisors, and microteaching performances, the bulk of studies have focused on how the pre-service education overall shapes and influences novice teachers' emerging identities. These studies focused mainly on the effect of practicum on developing novice teachers' identity. For example, Timostsuk and Ugaste (2010) investigated how 45 student teachers understand and describe professional identity formation throughout the pre-service education. They found out that student teachers developed their identity by experiencing the teaching experiences as meaningful through microteaching presentations, interaction with students and supervisors in the practicum, and the support they gathered from peers and family in case of challenges. Their relationship with others evoked negative and positive emotions. They expect their supervisors to support them through feedback and to analyse their classroom interaction in a more detailed way. In other words, as revealed in Golombek and Doran's (2014) study with novice language teachers, student teachers in this study also needed more attention to their teaching planning skills and the implementation of self-reflection skills by the supervisors especially in the practicum context, because they perceive the activities, emotions and environment as meaningful, which contribute to the development of their identity in the initial years of the profession. Similarly, Pillen et al. (2013) investigated 182 novice teachers' professional identity development, accompanying feelings and coping strategies. Tensions in the study often were

followed by feelings of helplessness, frustration and awareness of restrictions. Therefore, they implied that novice teachers needed support and monitoring from their supervisors and mentors even after the graduation and the start of a new teaching career. In addition, teacher educators at pre-service level need to mediate novice teachers to help them feel confident enough to teach by valuing their emotions as normal, relating the emotions to the activity and cognition and then seeking to mediate smoothly (Golombek & Doran, 2014). Martel (2015) in his case study with one Spanish student teacher in the USA argues that novice language teachers should be provided with constructive feedback on the teaching experiences in practicum through conversations with supervisors. The importance of the nature of feedback in practicum was also discussed and implied in the study with student teachers by Akcan and Tatar (2010). They view the feedback coming from not only the supervisors but also the mentors as vital to develop student teachers' self-confidence and positive self-esteem, which in turn feeds their professional identity within time.

Pre-service teacher education programmes are also analysed in general to understand their contribution to the identity formation of novice teachers. Fantilli and McDougall (2009) investigated the effect of the pre-service education programme on 5 Canadian novice teachers' identity development through narratives and surveys. Their results centred around novice teachers' negative emotions upon their encounter with the unfamiliar challenges – which were not introduced at pre-service level - in classroom management, meeting the students' special needs, communicating with parents about the students' developments, and the need for workshops on specified areas of teaching. Gu and Benson (2015) indicate that engagement, alignment and imagination matter in these teachers' identity construction. For example, engagement in the learning to teach process in the practicum are found to shape their understanding of English teaching. Alignment is also found to have a function in which participants bring their practices and beliefs with wider educational and social discourses. So, it is implied that pre-service education, particularly practicum component, should support novice teachers' competences and perceptions by maintaining their motivation and commitment in the profession. In his study, Mockler (2011) states that pre-service teacher education programmes need to provide novice teachers with the understanding of the interplay between their own schooling experience, their subsequent understanding of pedagogical and other educative processes as a classroom practitioner, and their understanding of theoretical perspective on education. Similarly, Kanno and Stuart (2011), in their study with two

novice language teachers in the USA, found out that the opportunity to teach intensely for prolonged period of time in their own classrooms contributed to their identity development in terms of increasing their basic instructional skills and guiding them to the abstract aspects of their teaching. As argued in Mahmoudi-Gahrouei et al. (2016), teaching actively in the classroom also provided novice language teachers with the opportunity to make decisions more actively. Moreover, the development of expertise in the subject matter enhanced their confidence as a teacher. Martel (2015) came up with sound implications for pre-service teacher education programmes to improve novice language teachers' professional identity. For him, encouraging student teachers to perform microteaching presentations as much as possible is of utmost importance to enable them to raise their self-confidence as a future teacher. Taken together, it can be concluded that context and identity feed each other in all classroom interactions and teacher work because classrooms and schools are loaded places in which teachers' emotions, actions and thought patterns are shaped (Miller, 2009; Singh & Richards, 2006).

1.5. Professional Development of Novice Language Teachers

Recent research in novice teacher identity has focused on their ideas and needs in the early years of teaching and how they influence their identity development. For instance, Senom, Zakaria, and Shah (2013) investigated the challenges experienced by novice ESL teachers in Malaysia in the early years of teaching. The data were grouped into four aspects: students, school community, the teaching profession, and parents. The problems about the students included their lack of motivation in the class, misbehaviour, lack of discipline, and negative attitude towards the learning of English. Problems about the school community included the heavy load of teaching assignments and administrative duties, high expectations, lack of support, guidance and isolation. Problems about the teaching profession covered the discovery that their teacher education programmes had been inadequate and time-consuming lesson planning. Problems about parents stemmed mainly from the high expectations that parents had for their children and their children's teacher. Despite the difficulties, the novice teachers enjoyed the process of becoming a teacher.

Korthagen, Loughran and Russell (2006) investigated the effective characteristics of responsive teacher education programmes in Australia, Canada and the Netherlands. In their study, they presented a framework of the guideline for the teacher education programmes which can meet the needs and practices of pre-service teacher education. The guideline includes that

learning about teaching is facilitated through teacher research; learning about teaching is effective when it is integrated into the experience of learning to teach. Learning about teaching necessitates working closely with peers/colleagues. In their study, Korthagen et al. (2006) emphasized the necessity of systematic and constant dialogues between schools and universities. Brannan and Bleistein (2012) examined novice English to speakers of other languages (ESOL) teachers' views of social support and teacher efficiency, using integrated qualitative and quantitative methods. Based on the analyses of the study, novice teachers identified mentors, co-workers, and family as the main figures of social support. The novice teachers particularly received support in the areas of instructional strategies, student engagement, and classroom management. Novice teachers indicated that co-workers and mentors were the most significant support providers during the adaptation process of their profession.

1.6. *Novice Language Teachers' Professional Knowledge*

Faez and Valeo (2012) examined non-native novice English teachers' perceptions about the four aspects of their teacher preparation in the areas of degree of preparedness and readiness to teach after graduation, sense of efficacy to complete teaching practices in adult English classrooms, and views of what was useful to them in the teacher education programme. The participants were 115 novice teachers. They completed a questionnaire that investigated their perceptions of preparedness and efficacy to teach in adult ESL programmes in Ontario, Canada. Eight teachers also participated in follow-up interviews. Findings indicated that novice English teachers increased their perceptions of preparedness by gaining experience in the classroom and their sense of efficacy within teaching expectations was task-specific and highly situated into the context they taught. The teachers reported that the practicum and microteaching experiences were the most important parts of the programme. The participating teachers evaluated themselves most effective in areas such as choosing materials and planning lessons.

Pham and Hamid (2013) investigated the effect of novice language teachers' beliefs on their actual teaching practices in Vietnam. This qualitative study investigated the relationship between teachers' beliefs about quality questions and the questioning techniques in terms of questioning purposes, content, students' cognitive level, wording and syntax. The participants were thirteen novice EFL teachers from the Vietnam National University. Data were collected through open-ended questionnaires and classroom observation.

Findings showed that the majority of the teachers asked questions to check and double-check students' understanding of both the previous and the current lessons. All of the participating teachers placed lesson objectives at the top in the class. The teachers first tested students' conceptual knowledge and then factual knowledge.

Ruys, Keer and Aelterman (2014) investigated the factors motivating novice language teachers to implement collaborative learning and the challenges they coped with during the implementation. A qualitative case study with in-depth interviews was conducted with 15 novice teachers in Belgium. The findings revealed that the feelings of professional autonomy and collegial/peer support positively affected the use of collaborative learning in classrooms. The teachers considered the school setting as a motivating environment for the use of collaborative learning because of the peer support.

Gatbonton (2008) conducted a study with the aim of discovering what pedagogical knowledge the novice teachers had after graduation from pre-service programmes. The novice and experienced teachers' pedagogical knowledge was analysed with regard to language use, procedural issues, and coping with student reactions. The results showed that the pedagogical knowledge of novice teachers, compared to the experienced teachers, was lacking in the areas of monitoring student output, expanding the student output and encouraging more interactive talk. There were also some commonalities between novice teachers and experienced teachers. Similar to experienced teachers, novice teachers were sensitive to students' behaviours, but they focused on students' negative behaviours. Gatbonton (2008) suggested that novice teachers need more teaching opportunities and practice in their teaching education programmes.

Shin (2012) investigated the elements affecting the socialization of novice language teachers in South Korea through questionnaires, interviews, and critical incidents. The results indicated that the choice of instructional language was highly affected by institution, school culture, and expectations surrounding the teaching and learning of English, rather than the teacher's ability to teach. It was found to be important to create school cultures that encourage teachers to implement the teaching methods they were exposed to in their teacher education programmes.

In their qualitative study, Kayaoğlu, Erbay and Sağlamel (2016) aimed to explore the journey of a novice teacher and examine the effect of reflective practice on the professional development of novice teachers. The data collection was made through focused observation, audio-recordings of a

novice teacher's classes and reflective journals. The findings indicated that reflective practice could be challenging and novice teachers needed to be educated about how to reflect on their teaching systematically and critically. Kayaoğlu et al. (2016) further discussed the importance of self-initiated reflection for life-long professional development.

2. Conclusion

This chapter discusses the dynamics and interrelationship of novice language teacher identity, pertaining to teacher emotions, pre-service teacher education, professional knowledge and development. It is a fact that the school context and professional identity are interrelated in classroom interactions and teacher work. The reviews in this chapter suggest that knowing the school context, meeting different student populations and parents, and understanding the sociocultural norms in the neighbourhood and the reasons behind the policy reforms and curriculum are the other related dimensions of being and becoming a teacher. Moving from here, it can be said that the identity research studies conducted in diverge settings should be transformed into practice and shared with pre-service teachers in the form of teacher learning materials to prepare them better to the realities of the profession. For example, Akcan and Güngör (2018) compiled the research data into a workbook designed for pre-service teachers and teacher educators to be used in the post conference meetings of the practicum so that they can benefit from diverse classroom realities. As teachers interact with the social and professional conditions of their environments, they support their learning and teaching practices.

2.1. Future Directions in Second Language Teacher Education

Following the recent research findings and themes, we suggest three key directions that we believe will contribute to novice language teacher identity construction. These include the role of teacher educators, the quality of pre-service teacher education programmes, and mentor teachers. Teacher educators play a prominent role in preparing teachers to the profession by connecting theory and practice, by making the practicum a meaningful teacher-learning atmosphere in preparing teachers for classroom realities, and by developing teachers' adaptation skills to different contexts, classrooms, and professional demands (Farrell, 2012). Moreover, teacher educators should sustain close connections with schools and the teaching profession in order to improve the quality of teacher education programmes.

Since novice language teachers enter the profession right after the completion of their pre-service teacher education programmes, the quality of these programmes needs to be increased for prospective language teachers. Data-driven evidence is needed to improve the quality of these programmes; it is highly suggested that further research studies should be conducted which meet the needs of teacher candidates.

Finally, mentor teachers should receive training in regard to the ways to communicate with and give feedback to teacher candidates more effectively. More research studies are needed to design training programmes for mentor teachers.

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Chapter 16

A review of studies on content and language integrated learning (CLIL) from 2011 to 2018

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Abstract

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has become a popular and effective approach to language education for more than a decade. Thus, this article aims to review studies on CLIL and investigates 28 studies published in three significant journals between the years 2011 and 2018. It tries to examine the studies in terms of study context, participants, method and general themes. After this principled review it has been found out that half of the CLIL studies are conducted in Spain, a majority of them include secondary education students as research group, and most of them use qualitative methods to gather data. The review also sheds some light into the recent trends in CLIL studies by examining the chosen studies in terms of general themes. To this end, content analysis method is used. According to the analysis it is found out that a great majority of the CLIL studies focus on bilingual education and learners' linguistic achievements in CLIL programs. Based on the findings, the review concludes with recommendations for future research and CLIL implementations.

Keywords: CLIL; principled review; language education

1. Introduction

The integration of content and language dates back to many years. However, in recent years especially the Canadian immersion programs have made it popularized once more and led to the emergence of Content-based Instruction (CBI) in language education. The main aim of such programs is to help students gain target language competence while they are developing their content-area knowledge via meaningful and highly contextualized use of target language.

Content and Language Integrated Learning (hereafter CLIL) is the name given to such programs in Europe. It has flourished from the late 1990s and has been popularized beyond. Especially in the last 20 years the countries' educational systems have witnessed an outburst in CLIL approaches and applications.

According to the European Union declaration, young people in Europe are expected to communicate effectively in at least two languages except from their mother tongue (Commission of the European Communities, 2005). In this way, an increase in employment and mobility across Europe is aimed. CLIL has been accepted as the most popular method to turn monolingual societies into multilingual ones and has begun to be used in most European schools (Gefaell & Unterberger, 2010). It is actively promoted by the Language Policy Division of the Council of Europe. One of the main objectives of the Council is multilingualism and CLIL programs are seen as the best method to serve for this. The main premise of CLIL is the teaching of a subject matter through a foreign language, which is generally English. There are many different applications of CLIL based on the country's educational traditions and linguistic needs. Yet, it can be claimed that in all CLIL applications the foreign language is not only the object of study but serves also as a medium of instruction to teach content. Coyle (2007) defines it as "an integrated approach where both language and content are conceptualized on a continuum without an implied preference for either" (p. 545). CLIL is an umbrella term. It can be broken down into many models as depicted in the figure given below.

(content-driven) hard CLIL applications   (language-driven) soft CLIL applications

$$\longleftarrow \hspace{6cm} \longrightarrow$$
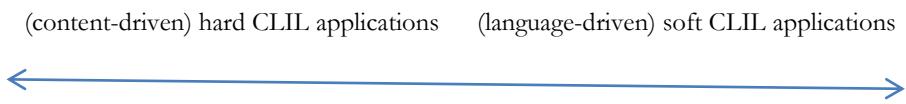
Figure 1. CLIL continuum

As is seen in Figure 1, CLIL models are generally depicted on a continuum. According to Ball, Kelly and Clegg (2015) on one end of the continuum there are content-driven models which are also called *hard CLIL* and on the other end of it we see language-driven models which are called *soft CLIL*. The models have dual aims; language teaching and content learning. They differ according to the emphasis they give to language and content teaching. As its name implies in *hard CLIL* there is a strong emphasis on subject knowledge, whereas in *soft CLIL* language development is prioritized. The language policy of the country determines which model will be adopted.

Since content teaching has striking importance, in CLIL classrooms students are expected to be more knowledgeable individuals on certain content areas at the end of each course. It aims to develop students' world knowledge together with target language skills.

Research suggests that CLIL students outperform their non-CLIL peers in higher order thinking skills and overall target language competence (Coyle, 2007; Lasagabaster, 2008). CLIL instruction has a positive effect especially on students' target language comprehension, receptive skills, their lexical repertoire, morphosyntactic development, and oral fluency (Dalton- Puffer, 2007; Lazaro Ibarrola, 2012; Walenta, 2018). Research also points to an advantage for CLIL learners in terms of accent. Their foreign language accents are found more intelligible when compared with those of their non-CLIL counterparts (Gallardo del Puerto, Gomez Lacabex & Garcia Lecumberri, 2009). It also increases students' language learning motivation and positively contributes to their attitudes towards target language learning (Burston & Kyprianou, 2009; Merisuo-Storm, 2007). However, according to some studies, CLIL students' target language grammatical accuracy and target language productive skills may lay behind when compared with those of their non-CLIL counterparts (Dalton-Puffer, 2007). Controversially, in some other studies comparing CLIL classrooms and mainstream foreign language classrooms it has been found out that in CLIL classrooms accuracy so their grammar seem to benefit the most (Perez-Vidal & Roquet, 2015). Thus, many researchers (Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Lyster, 2007) highlight the importance to optimize language teaching within CLIL practices. Awareness raising activities and reference to language form in meaningful activities may contribute to students' grammatical accuracy. As Schmidt suggests "nothing can be learned without noticing".

Such discussions highlight many different applications of CLIL in different contexts. Thus, the main purpose of this study is to make a systematic review and analyze the recent research trends on CLIL in three prestigious journals and to make further suggestions.

1.1. Research Questions

The rising popularization of Content and Language Integrated learning in the world and CLIL applications in Europe has made it necessary for the researchers to have a clear picture of the various shapes CLIL has adopted in practice across diverse contexts. It is believed that this study will shed some light with its systematic review of CLIL studies in three significant journals from 2011 to 2018. In this vein, the following research questions are addressed in the study:

1.   What is the general trend in CLIL applications between the years 2011 and 2018 in terms of study context, participants, and method?

2.   What are the general themes in CLIL studies between the years 2011 and 2018?

2. Method

Three Journals indexed in Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI) and British Educational Index are identified as the scope of the study. The journals that are reviewed are: International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism (IJBEB), ELT Journal (ELTJ), and System (SY).

After the identification of the journals, they are reviewed and the studies meeting the following criteria are included in the study; CLIL should be the main focus in the studies. The studies should be research-based, should be in full text and written in English and published between the years 2011 and 2018. Non research-based studies are excluded from the study. The studies such as book reviews, proceedings, responses to specific studies, and postscriptums are also excluded from the study.

Table 1
The number of studies selected in the journals and their years of publication

Journals	IJBEB		ELTJ		SY				N
	18		2		8				28
Years of Publication	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	N
	1	1	8	3	5	3	3	4	28

As is seen in Table 1, a total of 28 studies are chosen for the study. Most of the studies about CLIL are published in IJBEB (N: 18) and SY(N: 8) follows it. ELTJ (N: 2) has the fewest number of studies about CLIL. It is also seen that in the year 2013 a significant interest into CLIL appeared and thus, the CLIL studies in those journals reached a peak in that year.

2.1. Data Collection

In the study "content analysis technique" is used to collect and analyze the data. Content analysis is a research technique used to get valid inferences by interpreting and coding written or spoken texts. It helps researchers convert qualitative data into quantitative data by systematic evaluation. In the study first, study variables are identified as *study context*, *participants*, *method* and *theme*. Then, a coding scheme is developed by the researcher and the selected studies are systematically examined accordingly. In order to increase the reliability of the analysis the developed coding scheme is examined by other experts.

3. Findings

As stated above, the chosen studies are analyzed in terms of a number of variables; study context, participants, method adopted and the general theme. It is believed that a principled closer examination of these variables will shed some light into the recent inclinations in CLIL research.

3.1. Study Context, participants and Method

Below is given the study contexts of the chosen studies. Study context refers to the country where the research is conducted. It is believed that the number of countries will help us see the interest in CLIL studies in those countries.

Table 2
The study contexts

Study Context	Number of Studies
Spain	14
Italy	1
Poland	3
Sweden	1
UK.	1
Finland	2
Netherlands	1
Austria	2
Canada	1
Argentina	1
Australia	1
Total	**28**

According to Table 2, it is clear that half of the CLIL studies are conducted in Spain (N: 14). A great majority of the studies are conducted in Europe (N: 25). In more detail, out of 28 studies 15 of them are conducted in Southern Europe (Spain and Italy), 3 of them are conducted in Eastern Europe (Poland), 4 of them are conducted in Northern Europe (Sweden, UK. and Finland), 3 of them are conducted in Western Europe (Netherlands and Austria). In Canada, a North American Country, one study on CLIL is conducted, In Argentina, a South American country, one study on CLIL is conducted. Similarly, in Australia only one CLIL study is conducted.

Table 3
The participants

Participants	Number of Participants
Primary Education	7
Secondary Education	14
High School	1
Tertiary Education	5
Teachers	5
School Principals/Department Heads	1
Faculties (Higher Education)	1

28 studies are analyzed in terms of participants. Seven studies include more than one research group. Table 3 puts forward that majority of the studies include secondary education students (N:14) and students in primary education follow it

(N:7). Out of 28 studies 5 of them include tertiary education students as research groups, and 5 of them include foreign language and content teachers. Just one study focuses on high schools, and again one study includes school principals/departments, and similarly one study explores higher education as a research group.

Table 4
The methods

Method					
Qualitative	**N***	**Quantitative**	**N***	**Mixed Method**	**N***
Case Studies, Content Analyses/ Codification, interviews, observations, Discourse Analyses	16	Pre-post Test Design, Corpus-based Studies	5	Surveys & Open-ended Questions, Document Analyses& Perception/Attitude Investigations, Experimental Studies & Interviews, Questionnaires & Discussions-video analyses, Pre-Post Test Design & Evaluation of student works	7

N* Number of the methods adopted

As is seen in the above given Table 4, qualitative methods have the dominance (N: 16). Among them the mostly used ones are case studies, interviews, observations, content analysis, and discourse analysis. Out of 28 studies 7 studies use mixed methods (both qualitative and quantitative) as triangulation to increase validity. However, 5 studies purely use quantitative methods to collect data.

3.2. General Themes

After a detailed thematic analysis, the chosen 28 studies are grouped under 11 themes:

3.2.1. Bilingual Education

Out of 28 studies, six studies explore bilingual CLIL practices. These studies focus on bilingual education for lower achievers (Denman, Tanner & Graaff, 2013), bilingual education in an Australian context (Turner, 2013), collaborative instruction in bilingual education (Moore, 2011), academic language proficiency in bilingual education (Lorenzo & Rodriguez, 2014), bilingual education in Poland (Czura & Papaja, 2013) and contribution of CLIL to bilingual education in Italy (Grandinetti, Langellotti & Ting, 2013).

3.2.2. Learners' achievement in CLIL programs

Within the studies reviewed, five of them investigate CLIL students' linguistic performances. One of these studies mainly investigates learners' overall success and linguistic gains (Perez-Vidal & Roquet, 2015). Some of them compare more specific areas such as the development of receptive skills (Pladevall-Ballester & Vallbona, 2016; Yang, 2015), reading comprehension and strategy use (Ruiz de Zarobe, & Zenotz, 2018), and vocabulary output (Jimenez Catalan & Agustin Llach, 2017).

3.2.3. Perceptions and beliefs towards CLIL education

Some studies (N:4) can be classified under the heading "Perceptions and beliefs towards CLIL education". These studies investigate "learners' perceptions and attitudes towards CLIL education" (Yang & Gosling, 2012), "students' thoughts and future expectations for CLIL courses" (Broca, 2016), "learners' perceptions, thoughts and ownership of CLIL classrooms" (Coyle, 2013) and "teachers' and students' beliefs on the implementation of CLIL programs" (Hüttner, Dalton-Puffer & Smit, 2013).

3.2.4. The effect of tasks in CLIL classrooms

Within the reviewed studies, four of them investigate the relationship between tasks and CLIL practices; the potential of hands-on tasks in CLIL lessons (Nikula, 2015), task-based instruction in CLIL classrooms (Garcia Mayo & Ibarrola, 2015), the role of different tasks in CLIL classrooms (Llinares & Dalton-Puffer, 2015), and L1 use of CLIL learners in task-supported interaction (Garcia Mayo & Angeles Hidalgo, 2017).

3.2.5. Challenges on CLIL practices

Out of 28 studies three of them focus on some challenges in the implementation of CLIL practices; why CLIL practices in Sweden do not suggest positive results

(Sylven, 2013), a commonly stated problem in CLIL classrooms - the problem of balancing linguistic and extra-linguistic gains in CLIL practices (Walenta, 2018), and negative affectivity in CLIL programs (Otwinowska & Forys, 2017).

3.2.6. The collaboration of teachers in CLIL programs

There is only one study that mainly investigates the collaborative work among teachers in CLIL classrooms (Carmen, et al., 2012). It explores the advantages and benefits of such collaborations.

3.2.7. CLIL in ELT Coursebooks

Among the reviewed studies just one study explores ELT coursebooks (Banegas, 2014). It is a known fact that, the current ELT coursebook market has welcomed CLIL methodology in recent years. To this end, four ELT coursebook series are analyzed and how CLIL is included is investigated.

3.2.8. CLIL and EAP

Out of 28 reviewed studies, just one study (Crossman, 2018) focuses on an English for academic purposes (EAP) course following the tenets of CLIL to improve students' academic language skills and strategies.

3.2.9. CLIL from a leadership perspective

Within the reviewed studies just one study (Soler, Gonzalez-Davies & Inesta, 2017) focuses on CLIL programs from a leadership perspective (school principals, department heads, and CLIL teachers).

3.2.10.   CLIL teacher education

There is just one study (Urmeneta, 2013) explores a CLIL teacher education program. It investigates student-teachers' progress in the process of becoming good CLIL teachers.

3.2.11.   CLIL and multilingualism

Among the studies, only one study investigates CLIL as a way to multilingualism (Merino & Lasagabaster, 2018). It aims to examine the effect of CLIL on the learning of three languages in contact.

4.   Conclusion and Suggestions

This study looks into the general inclination in CLIL studies in terms of study context, participants, method, and general themes in three prestigious journals namely; International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism (IJBEB), ELT Journal (ELTJ), and System (SY) from 2011 to 2018. By this way, it is believed to have a deeper understanding into the recent trends in CLIL studies, and what aspects of CLIL are studied the most or the least.

CLIL is a method highly popularized in Europe which unites content learning and language learning. It is a known fact that the European Union promotes multilingualism and multiculturalism in their education systems and CLIL has a significant effect in those domains. Besides, research puts forward that the linguistic development of CLIL students while they are enrolling into content courses is significant.

Based on the findings of the review, it is evident that CLIL is mostly studied in Spain. One of the main reasons beneath this may be that Spain is a multilingual country. There are many local languages spoken in Spain such as Catalan, Basque, Galician, and so on. Most of the Spanish people are bilinguals from birth. Thus, Spain may be a natural study context for CLIL studies. The results imply that that there is a need for more CLIL studies in other parts of Europe and inadequate number of studies in other parts of the world suggest that CLIL needs to be researched in those contexts as well.

Another research area is the type of participants in the chosen studies. It is found out that a majority of the groups studied are secondary school students. Primary school students, teachers and students in tertiary education follow them. It is highly interesting that none of the studies include preschool children. Therefore, future CLIL studies with preschool children should be supported and more studies including adult learners and stakeholders such as school principals, department heads, and faculties in higher education should be conducted.

As suggested by several studies, qualitative data gathering methods such as interviews, observations, content analyses, case studies are mainly used. In some studies mixed methods are adopted. The studies which use purely quantitative methods are very rare. However, in order to increase the validity of the studies triangulation as a method should be adopted. This means that researchers need to see the whole picture from different perspectives and thus should use mixed methods (both qualitative and quantitative) and many different data gathering instruments to obtain valid results. Therefore, future studies on CLIL may focus on using a variety of methods and instruments to collect data.

The review also investigates general themes in the chosen studies. Out of 28 studies, six studies focus on bilingual education. It is followed by learners' linguistic achievements in CLIL programs (N: 5). Students' and teachers' perceptions and beliefs towards CLIL practices is another studied topic (N: 4). The results also yield that four studies explore task-based teaching and CLIL from different perspectives since they have much in common. Three studies focus on the possible difficulties and challenges that may be encountered in CLIL practices such as the emphasis given to content and linguistic gains, or the learners' negative affectivity towards CLIL.

The results yield that future CLIL studies should go a few steps further than these topic areas. More studies are needed to explore themes such as the collaboration among language and content teachers, the mainly encountered problems in CLIL applications, the disadvantageous-weak sides of CLIL programs, the effect of CLIL in contexts which have many languages in contact, CLIL training in pre and in service teacher education programs and apart from students other stakeholders' attitudes towards CLIL programs. Finally, it can be stated that future CLIL studies should have longitudinal triangulated research designs to reach reliable and valid results and more studies should be conducted with larger samples in various contexts.

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Chapter 17

A review of studies in computer-mediated communication from 2013 to 2018

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Abstract

This article reviews research focusing on the use of computer-mediated communication (CMC) in English as a second or foreign language teaching. To this end, it examines the studies published in four prominent journals from 2013 to today and classifies them under these three main categories: focused topics, methodological issues, and results of research. As for the results, this principled review reveals that (a) the use of CMC is effective on the teaching of English as a second or foreign language, (b) the learners also find it beneficial, and (c) the number of mixed-method studies combining both qualitative and quantitative techniques is high.

Keywords: computer-mediated communication; research focus; research methods; results of research

1. Introduction

Computer-mediated communication (CMC) refers to "communication that takes place between human beings via the instrumentality of computers" (Herring, 1996, p.1). Being very popular in recent years, this type of communication is different from real-time face-to-face (F2F) conversations in terms of various aspects. For example, CMC allows its users to produce more lexically rich (Beauvois, 1997) and interactive language than the one produced by them in F2F communication (Blake, 2000; Darhower, 2000; Kern, 1995; Warschauer, 1995). Moreover, Abrams (2003) states that the users have to rely on their reading and writing skills while using text-based CMC although there is not such a requirement while communicating F2F.

CMC has two modalities (Wang, 2004) differing from each other in terms of synchrony. Of these modalities, the first one is asynchronous computer-mediated communication (ACMC) and means that there is a time interval

between the responses sent by the interlocutors in a communication. ACMC has the feature that its users do not have to send immediately their messages to other people (Huang, 2015; Sotillo, 2000). On the other hand, the second modality of CMC, which is called synchronous computer-mediated communication (SCMC), refers to the relatively immediate occurrence of communication without much delay (Abrams, 2003; Terhune, 2016; Zeng, 2017). Hence, in comparison to the one in ACMC, people have less time to think about their responses that they want to send to others (Murray, 2005).

In the last decade, CMC has increasingly attracted the attention of foreign language teaching researchers (Abrams, 2003). In this vein, the studies focusing on the use of CMC have been prominent especially in the field of English as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL) teaching. And some research also examined these studies in terms of some different aspects. For example, Lin (2014) conducted a meta-analysis on the effects of CMC on oral proficiency development compared to the situations of F2F communication or no interaction and found a moderate sized effect. In a literature review study, Li (2012) reviewed the research conducted on the use of wikis in the field of second or foreign language teaching.

As can be seen from these studies mentioned above, there is a dearth of review articles about the use of CMC in teaching and learning of ESL/EFL. Therefore, this article aims at comprehensively analyzing the research which was conducted on the use of CMC for teaching English as a second or foreign language and published in four prominent journals in the field of ELT from 2013 to 2018. To this end, this review examined the related studies according to their research topics, methods, and results.

2. Method

This study primarily aims at reviewing the existing CMC research in terms of focused research topics, research methodology, and the results of research. To this end, firstly the prominent journals in the field of English as a second or foreign language teaching were selected according to these two criteria: the journals being indexed in either the Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI) or Emerging Sciences Citation Index (ESCI) and the journals' scope involving technology use in English as a second or foreign language learning and teaching. As a result of this delimitation, these four prominent journals comprised the scope of this review: *Computer Assisted Language Learning, CALICO Journal, Language Learning and Technology,* and *ReCALL.*

After deciding on the journals, each issue of them was examined and the related studies were downloaded. Then, the researchers analyzed every article and tabulated necessary information about each study. During this process, three main parts of each article (abstract, methods, and findings) were elaborately examined and if necessary, the other parts were also consulted.

3. Focal Points of the Research Conducted in CMC

In this review article, when the studies focusing on the use of CMC in ESL/EFL contexts were examined, it was realized that it is possible to classify these research studies into four broad categories in terms of their research topics. In this vein, the first category referred to the research concerning the effects of CMC use on learning of four basic language skills and vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar. On the other hand, the second category involved the studies investigating the interaction in CMC environments. As for the third category, it consisted of the investigations primarily aiming at yielding results about EFL/ESL learners' perceptions or attitudes toward the use of various CMC tools for learning and teaching English. Finally, the fourth category involved the studies that cannot be classified under the other three categories.

3.1. Studies Focusing on Teaching or Learning of Four Language Skills or Vocabulary, Pronunciation or Grammar through CMC

This category consists of 23 research articles and some of them are related with the four basic language skills while some others focus on either pronunciation, vocabulary, or grammar.

Regarding the four language skills, writing was the focal point of 18 research studies and they investigated it in terms of some different aspects. For example, some studies (Aydın & Yıldız, 2014; Pham & Usaha, 2016; Vurdien, 2013; Wang, 2015; Wu, Petit, & Chen, 2015) focused on the enhancement of writing skills through various CMC tools such as blogs, wikis, forums, etc. On the other hand, some others investigated the effects of various factors on the development of writing skills such as feedback conditions (AbuSeileek & Abualsha'r, 2014; Ebadi & Rahimi, 2017; Shintani, 2016; Yang, 2016), writing modalities (Dizon, 2016; Tsai, 2015), web-based writing tasks (Bikowski & Vithanage, 2016), pre-writing strategies (Lan, Sung, Cheng, & Chang, 2015), prewriting planning conditions (Amiryousefi, 2017), writing approaches (Lam, Hew, & Chiu, 2018), and proportions of collaborative dialogues (Yeh, 2014).

Moreover, unlike these mentioned studies, Yang (2014) focused on the problems encountered by English teachers instructing college students on

summary writing in a blended course. Moreover, Yeh (2015) investigated "how metacognition, supported by an online system, facilitates the application of academic genre knowledge to writing" (p. 481). Yang (2018) investigated the effects of indirect feedback in web-based collaborative writing on more- and less-proficient learners' construction of new language knowledge.

As for speaking, only one study specifically investigated the improvement of it via CMC. In this research, drawing on voice blogs, Hsu (2016) conducted an exploratory study and focused on the development of speaking accuracy, complexity, and fluency through voice blogging.

Of the two receptive skills, reading was the focal point of three articles. Among these, Tsai and Talley's (2014) quasi-experimental research compared the Moodle-supported strategy instruction and traditional reading instruction in terms of reading comprehension and strategy use. Yang and Hsieh (2015) investigated how the strategy of online peer questioning enhances less proficient EFL readers' negotiation of meaning in reading comprehension. Finally, Garberoglio, Dickson, Cawthon, and Bond (2015) searched for the relationship between deaf individuals' access to English through CMC tools and their reading comprehension level.

As in speaking, only one research study was conducted on listening comprehension. And it is Levak and Son's (2016) research focusing on the effects of Second Life and Skype on the development of ESL and Croatian as a second language learners' listening comprehension.

In addition to four skills, grammar is also another issue attracting the attention of researchers. For example, Granena (2016) compared the effects of individual and interactive task performance conditions on learning of past tense, connectors, and modal verbs in a voice-based CMC environment. Likewise, drawing on video-conferencing Monteiro (2014) also targeted the past tense and compared the effects of recasts, metalinguistic feedback, and focused task. On the other hand, articles and question forms were the focal points of Kim's (2017) research and in this study F2F oral interaction and text-based SCMC were compared. Rassaei (2017) also investigated the effects of video-chat and F2F recasts on correct use of articles, "the" and "a".

Vocabulary acquisition and pronunciation teaching also received attention of some researchers. Of these investigations, Lan (2015) aimed at revealing the effects of virtual environments developed in Second Life on the improvement of EFL beginners' vocabulary and sentences and conversation. More recently, Coyle and Reverto Priero's (2017) research focused on "child foreign language

learners' interactional strategy use, uptake, and lexical acquisition in synchronous-computer mediated communication" (p. 179). Concerning pronunciation, Mompean and Fouz-Gonzalez (2016) and Fouz-Gonzalez (2017) investigated the effectiveness of Twitter in teaching pronunciation while Luo (2016) compared the computer-assisted and in-class pronunciation teaching.

Finally, it should be noted that Monje (2014) investigated the effectiveness of web 2.0 tools on female students' success in EFL section of Spanish university entrance exam which focuses on reading and writing skills. To this end, she compared its effects with the ones of traditional materials.

3.2. Studies Focusing on Interaction in CMC Context

Studies focusing on interaction in CMC environments comprise the big part of the corpus produced for this review and their aim is to describe the interactions in terms of different aspects. For example, some compared different types of modalities in terms of such aspects as learner strategies (eg. Kim, 2014), communication strategies (Hung & Higgins, 2016), the amount of errors (MacDonald, Garcia-Carbonell, & Carot-Sierra, 2013), and language-related episodes (Zeng, 2017). Samburskiy and Quah (2014) investigated what aspects three novice online language teachers focused on while giving corrective feedback to Belarusian EFL learners in asynchronous online interactions.

Moreover, some studies were similar in terms of the use of wikis as CMC platforms. Mimi and Zhu (2013), for example, investigated the patterns of computer-mediated interaction among three small groups of EFL learners performing wiki-mediated collaborative writing tasks. In Nami and Marandi's (2014) research, "focus is placed upon the type and degree of students' contribution to the wiki as well as their attention to form while publishing their messages on the space" (p. 483).

Furthermore, there are some studies comparing the discourse produced by the native speakers with the one produced by non-native speakers. The study by Elgort (2017) looks at "differences in the language and discourse characteristics of course blogs and traditional academic submissions produced in English by native (L1) and advanced second language (L2) writers" (p. 52). Liu (2017) compared the dyads (NNS-NNS, NNS-NS) using text-based CMC "in terms of the frequency of negotiated instances, successfully resolved instances, and interactional strategy use when the dyads collaborated on Facebook" (p. 294).

Hattem (2014) also explored language play with three ESL students using Twitter with the aim of microblogging and receiving corrective feedback from their teachers via this social networking site. Using another popular social networking site for their study, Kulavuz-Önal and Vasquez (2018) analyzed the discourse in a Facebook group to discover online multilingual linguistic practices of English teachers from Egypt and Argentina.

Focusing on the language learning through gaming, Ryu (2013) analyzed the asynchronous discourses in which non-native English speakers are engaged while playing games. As another inquiry on gaming, Newgarden and Zheng (2016) explored ESL learners' verbalizations and avatar actions in World of Warcraft environment.

Language learners' identity construction in CMC interactions is another topic investigated by some research studies. For example, Chen (2013) examining their status updates and information sharings explored how two "multilingual writers design and construct identities" on Facebook over time. Drawing on the positioning-statements produced and uptaken by four participants, Fong, Lin, and Engle (2016) aimed to identify how they position their language learning identity within an online chat discourse. Wu (2018) aimed to reveal the positioning trajectories of four Chinese and American participants in an ACMC activity. King (2015) aimed to discover the development of EFL learners' writer identity in the process of writing Wikipedia articles. Regarding learner agency and non-native speaker identity, Kohn and Hoffstaedter (2017) examined the English and German lingua franca conversations in Moodle and BigBlueButton.

Analyzing the interaction in SCMC environment, McNeil (2016) compared the frequency and types of communication strategies used by the pre-service TESOL majors taking communication strategy instruction with the ones used by the students not receiving this instruction. Maiz-Arevalo (2017) examined phatic talk in online discussions between post-graduate female students. Balaman (2018) examined a focal participant's development of hinting behaviors during online interactions with her teammates on Google Hangouts. Yang (2017) focused on the questions used by Chinese and English students in a chat discussion.

Balaman and Sert (2017) aimed to describe the interactional resources that Turkish learners of English use for completing the information-gap tasks during online interactions. Moreover, in another study they described how the learners "negotiate and co-construct language and task rules" (Sert & Balaman, 2018, p. 355) while interacting via Google Hangouts.

Martin-Monje, Castrillo, and Manana-Rodriguez (2018) examined the interaction in an LMOOC in terms of learning objects, aspects of online interaction, and student profiles. Using Activity Theory, Priego and Liaw (2017) analyzed the contradictions occurred and the strategies used for resolving these contradictions during the co-construction of multilingual/multimodal digital stories. Wigham and Chanier (2013) examined the verbal and nonverbal communication acts in online conversation via Second Life. Nami, Marandi, and Sotoudehnama (2018) discovered the functional moves of cognitive, social, and teaching presence in five in-service teachers' interaction in a discussion list.

3.3. Studies Focusing on ESL/EFL Learners' Perceptions or Attitudes towards CMC

This category involves the studies conducted with the aim of eliciting ESL/EFL learners' perceptions or attitudes towards CMC use in English learning and teaching context.

Adopting a social approach in her study, Chen (2015) explored EFL learners' perceptions and experiences of a blog project. Yang (2018) investigated how the learners perceive two interactional contexts one of which involves participating in online chatting and personal blog writing whilst the other involves engaging in group discussion via group blog. Huang (2015) focused on the stages EFL learners' blogging efforts involve and the EFL learners' perceptions of blogging as learning experience.

Seventh grade EFL learners' perceptions and attitudes towards three collaborative web-based projects involving the use of such tools as weblog, forum, Skype, and email is the focal point of Chen and Yang (2014) research. Wach (2015) evaluated how collaborating with pre-service teachers in another country within a keypal project can affect the participants' reflections on teaching and learning English. Terhune (2016) investigated how EFL learners reacted toward Skype-based conversations with native or near native English teachers. Kozar (2016) aimed to discover online language tutors' and their students' use of webcam and their attitudes towards it. Bueno-Alastuey and Kleban (2016) elicited perceptions of two groups of prospective English teachers with different objectives about the benefits of a telecollaboration project. Sun and Yang (2015) investigated the effects of "the service learning project on Web 2.0 platforms" on the learners' perceptions of the gains in their public speaking skill (p. 216).

3.4. Miscellaneous Studies

This category comprises of the studies that cannot be classified under the three categories mentioned above. Furthermore, their research focus shows too much variation. Nevertheless, the studies having common points were tried to be grouped together.

For example, in some studies different types of modalities or CMC tools were compared in terms of various aspects. Of these inquiries, Farr and Riordan (2015) compares "online chat, discussion forums, and blogs, in terms of their suitability and affordances as reflective media" (p. 104). Kissau and Algozzine (2014) conducted a research study aiming at comparing the effects of online, F2F, and hybridized instruction on the self-efficacy development of L2 teacher candidates. Yüksel and İnan (2014) compares how two different modes of interaction (F2F and CMC) affect the negotiation of meaning and the EFL learners noticing it.

Furthermore, in some studies pre-service or in-service teachers were employed as participants. Wang (2015) focused on the teacher roles in the pre-, during-, and post-task phases within a language teaching course given through Second Life. In their action research, Rubrico and Hashim (2014) investigated whether interfacing two technologies (Facebook and Photovoice) empowered non-native pre-service English teachers "to be proactive in their language learning and teaching skills" (p. 16).

Intercultural communication is also the focal points of some studies. Le and Markey (2014) investigated the effects of the use of digital technology on the learners' views about intercultural learning and peer feedback. Jin (2015) also adopted Facebook in her action research for facilitating intercultural interactions between Korean EFL learners and American undergraduate students. Özdemir (2017) conducted a research study on how Facebook affects intercultural communicative effectiveness among EFL learners. Chen and Yang (2016) investigated the effectiveness of a project (UBOD) on the development of Taiwanese EFL learners' intercultural communicative competence and language skills.

Lee and Wang (2013) investigated the factors facilitating or hindering the collaboration between Taiwenese EFL students in a wiki context. As another study focusing on collaboration, Chang and Windeatt (2016) examined the collaboration among the university students in terms of its nature, development, and results.

Li and Li (2018) conducted a research study on the use of Turnitin's new module, PeerMark, for peer feedback in an ESL writing classroom. Lee, Said, and Tan (2016) examined to what extent The Writing Portal responds to the needs of prospective ESL teachers in the writing process. Angelova and Zhao (2016) investigated the effectiveness of CMC tools on the development of language skills, cultural awareness, and teaching skills. The effectiveness of blog use in writing classes on the Chinese EFL learners' metalinguistic and affective performance was the research focus of Chen (2016) study.

Reinders and Wattana (2014, 2015) investigated how gameplay impact Thai EFL learners' willingness to communicate. Satar (2013) focused on the types of gaze occurring in desktop videoconferencing interactions. In del Rosal, Conry, and Wu's (2017) case study, the identities of language teachers and English learners displayed in online interactions were examined. Chen, Shih, and Liu (2015) conducted a research study on which type of tasks (closed-type or open-type) induce more idea units in a blog-mediated communication. Huang (2015) both "analyzed the stages of students' blogging efforts" and elicited their opinions about the benefits and weaknesses of the voice blog project (p. 145).

Wu and Yang (2016) compared the effects of online labeling and non-labeling on the tutors' tutoring behavior and the learners' performance and motivation. Lee, Nakamura, and Sadler (2018) investigated the pedagogical benefits of video-conference embedded classrooms and their effects on "learners' perceptions toward English as an international language" (p. 319). Liu et al. (2015) examined four social networking sites for language learning and elicited the opinions of teachers and students about the affordances of these websites for language learning. Toetenel (2014) investigated what effects the use of social networking site, Ning, has "on peer interaction in and outside the classroom" (p. 155). Focusing on foreign language anxiety in an oral ACMC context, McNeil (2014) investigated the relationship between this type of anxiety and affordances perceived by Korean EFL learners using voice board.

4. Research Methods Used in CMC Studies

The studies in the corpus of this review were examined in terms of their research methods, it was found that the number of the studies having mixed-method research design is much higher than the quantitative or qualitative research studies. Considering this situation, some different comments can be made. For example, because using both quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques is one of the ways of triangulation, it can be said that

drawing on mixed-methods research design can increase the rate of publication of an article focusing on CMC. Furthermore, it can be said that as mentioned in the previous section, because the studies generally focus on the discourse in CMC context, conducting such types of research might have required the researchers to use this type of research design.

As for the data collection techniques used in the studies, it can be said that both quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques were generally used in compatible with the high number of the studies in mixed-methods research design. For example, logs of the CMC tools, records of interactions, semi-structured interviews, questionnaires involving open-and closed-ended questions, pre-and post-tests are the commonly used instruments for data collection.

5. Findings of the CMC Research

The studies reviewed in this article revealed important findings for the use of CMC in teaching and learning English as a second or foreign language. In this vein, these findings are elaborated mainly in consideration of the effects of CMC on the acquisition of language skills and the EFL/ESL learners' perceptions or attitudes toward CMC integration into language classrooms.

First of all, when the findings yielded by the studies are examined, it can be said that CMC has a positive effect on the learning of language skills and other related aspects. For example, various CMC tools such as blogs, wikis, forums, and other platforms helps the improvement of EFL/ESL learners' writing skills (AbuSeileek & Abualsha'r, 2014; Aydın & Yıldız, 2014; Bikowski & Vithanage, 2016; Dizon, 2016; Ebadi & Rahimi, 2017; Lam, Hew, & Chiu, 2018; Vurdien, 2013; Wang, 2015; Yang, 2016; Yeh, 2015; Zou, Wang, & Xing, 2016).

Furthermore, the studies focusing on the effectivess of CMC in reading comprehension also revealed similar results. Of these investigations, Tsai and Talley (2014) indicated that the students receiving explicit strategy instruction via Moodle significantly improved their reading performance and used more strategies than the learners exposed to traditional reading instruction. Yang and Hsieh (2015) investigating the effects of online peer questioning on reading comprehension found this strategy was more beneficial for the less-proficient language learners than their more proficient peers. Similarly, Garberoglio, Dickson, Cawthon, and Bond (2015) concluded that deaf adolescents frequently using email and chat were better at reading comprehension in the subsequent years.

Concerning the acquisition of vocabulary, Coyle and Reverte Prieto (2017) showed that there was a significant difference between the pre-and post-test scores of children participating in SCMC. In contrast, Lan (2015) found no significant improvement in EFL beginners' vocabulary after they participated in the activities in the virtual contexts.

Focusing on learning of grammar structures, Granena (2016) indicated that learners carrying out form-focusing information gap tasks interactively is more beneficial than their doing it individualy in terms of the accurate use of past tense and connectors in a voice-based CMC environment. In learning of past tense, Monteiro (2014) also found that all three types of feedback (focused task + metalinguistic feedback, focused task + recast, and only focused task) are effective on the students developing knowledge of the target structure. Related to another grammatical form, Kim (2017) revealed that types of modality (F2F or CMC) and task are effective on the accurate use of articles. And this result is compatible with the one presented by Kim (2014) study while it contrasts with the results revealed by Rassaei (2017).

CMC was also found effective in teaching of listening and pronunciation. Regarding to listening comprehension, Levak and Son (2016) presented that the use of Second Life and Skype led to significant improvement in ESL and CSL learners' listening comprehension. As for pronunciation, it was revealed that the instruction given through Twitter (Fouz-Gonzalez, 2017; Mompean and Fouz-Gonzalez, 2016) and computer-assisted pronunciation teaching technique (Luo, 2016) are effective on learning pronunciation.

In addition to these generally positive results related with learning of language skills, the studies also revealed positive findings about the ESL/EFL learners' perceptions towards the use of CMC. Of these studies, Toetenel (2014) stated that students using Ning consider its use in classroom beneficial for the development of their language skills. According to Wu et al's (2015) study, students receiving peer feedback and expert review through an open forum think that the instructional design is beneficial for their language development. In Yang's (2018) study, some Korean English language learners participating in online chatting and personal blog writing in one interactional context and engaging in group discussion via group blog in another context thought that both of these contexts were helpful for language learning while some others claimed the opposite of it. Huang's (2015) study also yielded positive results for the voice blog project. According to Yang and Hsieh (2015), online peer questioning, which was found more effective for low-proficient learners, was considered beneficial by most students. Moreover, Sun and Yang (2015)

revealed that learners found the integration of service learning into their oral communication course using Web 2.0 tools beneficial.

In contrast to these positive findings, Terhune (2016) found that learners' enthusiasm for Skype-based F2F conversation diminished over time and a great majority of them preferred studying English in a traditional classroom.

6. Conclusion

In this article, ninety six studies, conducted on the use of CMC for teaching and learning of English as a second or foreign language and published in four prominent journals from 2013 to 2018, were reviewed. As the results of this review, some important findings were obtained. Firstly, the articles published in these journals generally focused on the interaction in CMC environments. Secondly, the number of the mixed-methods research is much higher than quantitative and qualitative research studies. Finally, the use of CMC in ESL/EFL environments is beneficial for the development of the ESL/EFL learners' language skills and the learners generally have positive perceptions and attitudes toward learning English via CMC.

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Chapter 18

The Role of Corpora in Language Teaching

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Abstract

Corpus research is closely associated with language pedagogy, and this relationship could be observed in three different aspects: a) corpus could be used directly in language teaching, b) it could be used indirectly, and c) it might develop further with the help of teaching-based data (Leech, 1997). In this chapter, we present a recent review of the literature about the use of corpora in language teaching. More specifically, we focus on the studies which investigated the direct and indirect contributions of corpus-based approach to language teaching and language teacher education.

Keywords: Corpora, corpus-based approach, language teaching, teacher education

1. Introduction

A corpus is the collection of texts "assumed to be representative of a given language put together so that it could be studied for linguistic analysis" (Tognini-Bonnelli, 2001, p.2). The emergence of corpus linguistics as part of linguistic studies also entails certain methodologies and particular approaches to how language is used in actual contexts rather than the study of language aspects themselves (McEnery & Hardie, 2011).

In the 1960s, corpora often contributed to language teaching in an indirect way by influencing the content of textbooks, syllabus design, testing materials and other sources such as dictionaries (Vyatkina & Boulton, 2017). Corpus studies were especially useful for compiling and presenting the most frequently used words and collocations in the learner dictionaries and grammar books (McEnery & Xiao, 2010). In the 1980s, corpora and corpus studies started to play a direct role in the teaching and learning of languages. In this context, rather than using the linguistic examples and expressions provided by corpus studies in the educational sources, language teachers and students started to *use* corpora themselves (Vyatkina & Boulton, 2017).

To describe the relationship between the use of corpora and language teaching more clearly, Römer (2008) provides a detailed illustration of how

corpus use could be applied to the field of language education in direct and indirect ways (see Figure 1).
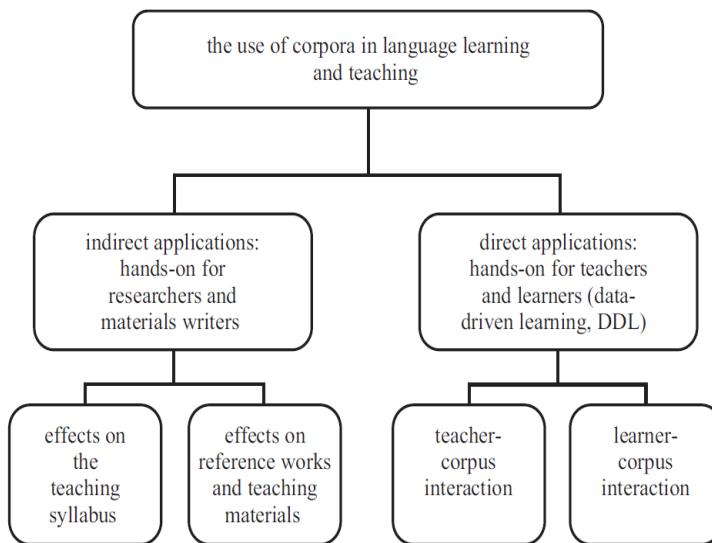

Figure 1. Direct and indirect contributions of corpora to language education (Römer, 2008, p. 113).

In order to present a comprehensive account of the emergence of corpus-based studies in relation to language teaching, the analyses in the current chapter are divided into two main parts. The first part presents studies regarding indirect use of corpora studies through their influence on language teaching syllabi and materials. The second part presents direct use of corpora studies in language teaching and its reflections on language teacher education.

2. Method

In order to illustrate the current trends and lines of research regarding the use of corpus studies in relation to language teacher education in the last two decades, studies published in 2000 and onwards were scanned. Online databases and platforms (i.e. ProQuest, Google Scholar, Scopus, Research Gate) for academic studies were used to extract online journal articles. Articles from journals including *System, TESOL Quarterly, Language Teaching, ReCALL, English Language Teaching* were discussed as part of field research in the chapter. Publication date was restricted to 2000 for case studies and research articles.

However, in order to provide a historical background before presenting case studies, review articles and theoretical discussions dating back to 1980s and 1990s were also reviewed.

3. Indirect Applications of Corpora in Language Pedagogy

Corpus use is an important part of syllabus and material design as it allows learners to encounter linguistic structures and expressions that are commonly used in real life settings. Dating back to the 1960s, the influence of corpus studies on language teaching has long been at play, manifesting itself in the language teaching syllabi, books and other materials. Today, several studies continue to make use of corpora for a better insight to improve language teaching materials, programs and learning environments.

One of the most influential steps towards the integration of corpus-driven data into language teaching syllabus is the COBUILD (an acronym for Collins Birmingham University International Language Database) Project, led by John Sinclair during 1980s. The project included the creation of an electronic corpus collecting examples of English language use from spoken and written sources (e.g. newspapers, magazines, TV and radio broadcasts, daily conversations). As an end-product of the corpus-building process, a learner's dictionary based on real-life uses of English was published in 1987, which reflected a significant step towards the production of corpus-based language learning materials.

The launch of such a corpus project also gave way to the Collins COBUILD English Course (Römer, 2008). The design of the course placed lexical patterns in the center of language teaching syllabi as corpus research suggests that language is a system of patterns with repeating word combinations, and grammar is closely associated with lexical items in a given language (Tognini-Bonnelli, 2001). The inclusion of corpus-based data in language teaching syllabi and materials mostly relies on the frequency of occurrence of the linguistic structures, and corpus studies firstly focus on problematic structures to see whether there is a mismatch between the real-life use of a structure and its reflection in the syllabus or language materials (Römer, 2008).

Following such a system that is implemented on teaching pragmatics, Bardovi-Harlig, Mossman & Vellenga (2015) report a study on developing materials to teach certain pragmatic aspects of English in an EAP context. After selecting appropriate corpora in mode and content (spoken corpora for academic English), they identify several expressions for certain pragmatic functions (i.e. disagreements, agreements, clarifications) in textbooks prepared for academic contexts. The frequency rates for the commonly used expressions

in the textbooks are searched in the chosen corpora. Based on the frequency data, sample contexts are drawn from the corpus in order to provide contextual clues for the most frequently used expressions for agreement, disagreement and clarification based on the corpus search. These sample contexts are confined to forms of short dialogues extracted as excerpts from corpus data. Using these materials, four subsequent lessons are designed for use with high-intermediate level students. The activities are designed to provide noticeable input containing the target expressions and opportunity for practice. Voluntary teachers implement the four lesson plans for two weeks in their classrooms. A spoken task in the form of oral discourse completion tasks given as pretest before the instructions and posttests after indicating that the students benefited from the materials with a rise in their rates of clarity and use of the target expressions for the chosen speech acts. The findings of this study indicate that the use of corpora can provide a reliable and strong body of material and authentic language to design lesson plans and activities to teach various pragmatic features of the target language.

Another corpus study on developing materials in an EAP context investigates combination of corpus analysis and genre analysis and aim to provide an attempt to develop research-supported and authentic language teaching materials (Chang & Kuo, 2011). Designed for graduate computer science students, a corpus of research articles on computer science is built and genre-specific structures are identified and included for language teaching activities. The genre-specific structures included vocabulary, rhetorical structure, and grammatical usage that represented the academic language profiling computer science. Using frequency rates, word lists of typical vocabulary are formed. Frameworks on how to give citations in the Introduction part are prepared based on analysis of textual structures in specific parts of articles. All of these materials are implemented into an EAP online course to teach writing research articles for computer science graduate students via Moodle platform. The course include units addressed to different sections of research articles. The piloting of this online course is conducted as a combination of classroom teaching and online learning with a group of 17 Chinese students. Half of the classroom time is devoted to the online activities and examination of texts on the online platform. Evaluation of the online course show positive reactions from the students regarding the effectiveness of the online materials, activities, resources and the online platform. The benefits reported in this study imply that the availability of larger and more comprehensive corpora for similar online course and material designs would enhance the support of corpus use for authentic and evidence-based materials design for further studies.

Leedham and Cai (2013) report the findings of a corpus study which investigated the differences between the writing examples of British and Chinese students in UK universities. They utilized BAWE (The British Academic Written English Corpus) along with a number of extra assignments prepared by Chinese undergraduate students. The main difference between the two groups was that Chinese students used some specific linking adverbials to a greater extent when compared to British students, and they did not take into account the informality of some linking adverbials (e.g., besides, what is more, last but not least) in their academic writing. Chinese students also demonstrated a tendency to use sentence-initial position for these structures. The authors provide several explanations for this tendency such as cultural differences and the influence of Chinese syntax on English use, the students' feeling safe as they use familiar and frequent linguistic forms, and the influence of the English texts and teaching materials used in Chinese secondary education. They state that ELT materials in China provide students with lists of linking adverbials but do not focus on their use in different contexts and genres. In addition, they report that the language reference books used in China generally present these structures at the sentence initial position. The authors describe this phenomenon as the 'priming effect' of the materials (p. 381). They conclude that corpus-based approach and these kinds of analyses might contribute to the understanding of students' language use in academic writing, and provide valuable insight for tutors, teachers, and material writers.

These studies portray the potential benefits of adopting a corpus-based approach to the design and development of language teaching curriculum and materials, which is a reflection of the indirect application of corpora in language teaching. The following section presents the findings of several studies about the direct applications of corpora use in language learning and teaching.

4. Direct Applications of Corpora Use in Language Pedagogy

4.1. Language learners as users of corpora

The move of corpus linguistics towards applied linguistics and language pedagogy became a research field with the advance of computerization of corpora, which provide authentic language use and more active roles for language learners in developing language learning approaches (Boulton & Perez-Paredes, 2014). The use of corpora in language learning contexts was

associated with language learners' taking "language researcher" role in their learning (Huang, 2011). The increasing availability of actual language materials presented through online language corpora and computerization of concordancing tools created a dynamic and data-driven platform to observe real language use in various contexts for language learning practices and preparation of materials. This approach was also closely associated with the idea of learning supported and directed with actual information coming from the field giving rise to the term "data-driven learning" (DDL) introduced by Johns (1991).

The idea that language learners could benefit from using a corpus and their language skills could be enhanced with the help of corpus data has given rise to an increase in the number of studies conducted in DDL research. In one such recent study, Wang and Wu (2014) wanted to show that it is possible to make the most of DDL for improving the skills of listening, reading, speaking, writing and translating in English. The authors provide examples on how to use corpora for each of these skills. For listening, they state that using a spoken corpus could provide learners with interesting grammatical forms and discourse patterns along with socio-cultural information. When learners are exposed to spoken corpus, they have the chance to hear different pronunciations of a given word in different contexts and in different native speaker varieties. Similarly, learners could benefit from corpora for speaking as these platforms provide them with real, authentic and natural speech produced in different settings. With the help of audio and video recordings, learners could explore communicative tools in addition to spoken language, they learn how factors such as facial expressions, gestures and intonation contribute to communication. For reading, the authors suggest that many different reading tasks could be developed based on a corpus. For instance, when the learners encounter an unfamiliar noun, they can search for different patterns and combinations of this word in a corpus, analyze its meaning in each different context, examine the frequency of combinations, and compare these combinations based on their meanings. For writing, it is suggested that the students can search the corpus before they start to write about a topic in order to see which words are associated with the topic, and they can also check the accuracy of their grammar use and vocabulary by using the structures in the corpus as a model. For translating, in accordance with the specific aspects of translation the class is dealing with, the teacher can select a passage provided by the corpus, and ask the students to translate it. In this way, the students might discover different meanings of the same word and make related translation for each meaning. The authors conclude that DDL has the potential

to make most of language learning experience, and it should supplement the existing ways of teaching as "traditional language teaching methodologies give us structure and stability, while DDL allows for versatility and spontaneity" (p .112).

With the rise of systematized corpus building projects, some studies looked into ways in which corpus could be integrated into language learner use. For instance, Cheng, Warren and Xun-feng (2003) investigated English language learners' reactions and reflections towards a project which integrated the use of a corpus into an existing English language course that involved Discourse Analysis. During the first few weeks of the courses, an intensive training about several corpora and corpus tools was given followed by the assignment of a corpus research project to the students. The project required the students to choose a particular language aspect and investigate its use across several corpora and find evidence for detectable usage patterns for those linguistic parts. The aim of such a project was to assign the students the role of 'learners as researchers' and involve them in a more data-driven learning experience. At the end of the course, students reacted positively in general to the integration of corpus to English language courses. They thought using corpus enabled them to examine real-life language in a systematic way allowing them to notice patterns and significant distinctions between various language uses from authentic language contexts. The difficulties they mentioned, on the other hand, were mostly related with the heavy work load presented by the large amount of data extracted from corpora. Lack of knowledge about the use of concordancing software and analysis of data in meaningful ways were some other difficulties the students reported.

In a similar vein, Hou (2014) investigated the integration of corpus use into a CLIL course in relation with vocabulary teaching in an English for Specific Purposes (at a Taiwanese university specialized in hospitality and tourism) context. Adopting a quantitative design, Hou reported the steps of development of a particular corpus collecting field-specific texts on wine tasting covered in the curriculum. The learners were familiarized with the software and concordance tools as part of the corpus-integrated CLIL course. At the end of the study, the learners were given comprehension tests involving particular vocabulary examined through corpus and concordance studies they did during the courses. The test results from comprehension tests indicated a significant rise in the scores compared to pretests. Along with the particular contribution regarding how to build and integrate a field-specific corpus, Hou (2014) also tested how examining field-specific vocabulary using corpus could improve learners' field-related vocabulary and comprehension in an ESP context.

The findings of these studies show that learners could benefit from the integration of corpus-based approach into the process of language learning. They could become active users of corpora, understand how it feels to be researchers for their own learning contexts, develop their basic language skills, and reflect on their experiences, which might provide valuable insight and feedback for language teachers. For this reason, research examining the learner use of corpora neighbours the body of research focusing on the integration of corpus use in language teacher education settings. As studies indicating positive effects of corpora use for language learners grow in number, it becomes even more relevant to consider corpus-related studies for language teachers and language teacher trainers. Therefore, it is beneficial at this point to review research on how corpus-based approach is integrated into language teaching, and its reflections on language teacher education.

4.2. Language teachers as users of corpora

Allan (1999) argues that 'the use of corpus data—and concordance lines in particular—has a unique and powerful role to play in raising the language awareness of English teachers' (p. 57). In his study, he adopted a corpus-based approach in which he presented a network along with a concordance program for the English teachers in Hong Kong. The program allowed teachers to see both examples from native speaker data and parts of language produced by students of English so that the teachers could have an idea about the common problems experienced by the students. Allan states that the feedback from the participating teachers was quite positive, and this system has the potential to raise awareness among language teachers for further developments in the field of language teaching.

In another study, McCarthy (2008) raises several aspects on how the use of corpus studies should be viewed in language teacher education programmes. With an emphasis on "teacher as a researcher", it is proposed that teachers should be independent critics of language learning materials and evaluators of corpora used for the design of these materials. It is also noted that language teachers should be corpus-aware, which means that they should be knowledgeable about the nature of corpora and their role in language teaching resources. McCarthy also suggests that teacher education programmes should make major corpora and corpus-analytical software available during their educational programmes as well as training teachers to build their own corpora based on the learner language they observe in their own teaching environments.

A noteworthy reflection of an attempt to incorporate corpus studies into language teacher education is reported by O'Keeffe and Farr (2003). They report that they noticed the need to incorporate corpus studies into language teacher education due to incompetencies with materials such as textbooks and videotapes used for teaching methodologies. Two main problems that the authors raise are the fact that the commercial textbooks and materials produced for mass use failed to reflect local qualities of teaching contexts. The second problem they mention is the mostly qualitative approach adopted in those textbooks which might be elusive for inexpert teachers and lead to the excessive subjectification of the learning contexts.

Several studies focus on field research involving various applications of corpus studies into language teacher education. For instance, Leńko-Szymańska (2014) conducted a study on graduate students of a foreign language teaching program in Poland. The study was conducted in the form of an elective course with 13 graduate students enrolled in the course. The course schedule was prepared in order to introduce various ways of implementing corpora and concordance tools into language teaching activities. The content of the course included the introduction of widespread and fully available language corpora as well as software programs used for concordancing. The course program required the participants to prepare some language learning activities during class time and create their own language corpora. The questionnaires given once at the beginning and once at the end of the term indicated that the graduate students had gained a considerable grasp of key terms such as corpora and concordancing, about which they had very little knowledge before the course. This was a significant finding implying that although the majority of the students had undergraduate degrees of foreign language teaching, they barely had an idea of corpus and language teaching. Despite students' considerable gain regarding the notion of corpus studies in relation to language teaching and positive reflections on creating their own corpora as part of their final products, the questionnaires also indicated that the students still did not feel confident in using corpus and analysis tools independently. Although the students needed more time and contexts to practice using corpus even after a 13-week graduate course, they also found using corpus to create language learning activities rather time-consuming and demanding.

Another study that involves incorporating the use of corpus into English language teacher education was conducted by Hüttner and colleagues (2009) at the University of Vienna in English language teacher education programme. Emphasizing the growing importance of English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

contexts for prospective English language teachers' professional careers and the genre-specific aspects for numerous diverse areas, the authors based the rationale of the study on the necessity for language education programs to provide the skills and resources for future language teachers to manage specifics of various genres in ESP contexts, which might become a significant part of their future teaching experiences. Within the design of the study, student teachers were involved in tasks during four semesters through teaching ESP modules. The final student production was a project which required developing a lesson plan to teach ESP in an unfamiliar genre for the student teachers. In an exemplary student project, it was indicated that the students created a mini-corpus in the genre of interest (i.e. teaching English for law professionals in the exemplary project) using online sources. Using the mini-corpus, the students created indicative lists of lexical (most frequent vocabulary), grammatical and textual features of the texts. Pragmatic features such as speech acts and discourse markers were also analysed and documented. All the genre-specific features were incorporated into several pedagogical activities, showing how several of these features could be role-played or vocabulary and collocations could be practiced with matching exercises. The outcome student teacher projects in this study indicated how incorporating corpus linguistics and applied linguistics into language teacher education curricula could enable future English language teachers to prepare materials even in unfamiliar ESP contexts and benefit from corpus-based resource use.

In another study, Farr (2008) investigated student teachers' perspectives about using corpora in an MA program in English Language Teaching. The use of corpora was adopted over a two-year period in the programme, and a survey was administered to the participating student teachers. The survey results showed that in general, the participants tended to have a positive attitude about integrating corpora into language teaching as this approach contributed to their motivation for 'enquiry and research' (p.39). Another finding was that the participants mostly had difficulty with the technical issues of the software, but this problem was resolved with the help of practice throughout the academic year. The participants also drew attention to time constraints as another possible problem for taking full advantage of corpus use in teaching. Still, they were quite positive about using corpora for further academic purposes in their future careers.

In a study conducted with a group of in-service English language teachers, Mukherjee (2004) investigated teacher experiences in corpus use, and attitudes toward corpus-based language teaching methodology. The study was conducted with 248 secondary school teachers in Germany through a survey

carried out during teacher training workshops during a year. The workshops were organized with the cooperation of volunteer schools and their teachers participated in the workshops, which consisted of lectures, seminars and practice hours. During these activities, the participating teachers were first introduced to the concept of corpus and how it could be relevant to their teaching practice. During the seminar parts, the teachers were involved in contrasting corpus-driven data with traditional student grammar materials and observe discrepancies and problems. In the end, final practice sessions included concordance-based exercises and helped participating teachers experience what corpus-based applications offer and how practical problems could arise during their use. Questionnaires examining the participating teachers' opinions and experiences before during and after these workshops documented noteworthy observations regarding the corpus-based approaches in the context.

Mukherjee's (2004) questionnaire results show that 79.4 % of the participating teachers did not know anything about the term corpus before the workshop activities. After the workshops, a considerable percentage of the teachers thought that corpus data could be useful only for teachers, while a minority thought that they could be useful also for students (12.9%). Finally, the questionnaires indicate that after participating the workshops, the majority of the teachers (i.e. 85.5%) believed corpus data could be useful in creating concordance-based teaching materials, while only a small percentage of 11.7% believed corpus data could be beneficial for learner-centered activities as well. This study carries a noteworthy implication reflecting a general tendency in language teaching contexts at the time. First, corpus as a term was quite novel for the practitioners who led the major roles in language classrooms. Second, even after meeting with the term and various possible corpus-based methodologies in teaching, a general opinion of teachers was that it required time and expertise, and even when it is available, corpus use could be a beneficial experience mainly for language teachers.

Almost a decade later, Özbay and Kayaoğlu (2015) conducted a case study with 6 in-service teachers in an EFL context in Turkey investigating their opinions and reactions to using corpora in language teaching. In the interviews carried out, it was observed that all 6 teachers favored the opportunity for language exploration the corpus tools provided. However, they also mentioned that it could be difficult to cope with the wide range of information made available through the use of corpora. Along with the findings of other studies reviewed so far, the results of this case study also highlight the importance of training language teachers for using concordance tools and applying corpus-based language teaching methodologies in the classroom. The following section

presents the implications of these studies about adopting a corpus-based approach for language teacher education.

5. Benefits of corpus studies in language teacher education

Studies conducted until very recent years examining in-service teachers or pre-service teacher students' reactions to using corpora in language teaching generally show that corpus is a relatively underestimated term for many practitioners or candidates to take active roles in the field of English language teaching. Most interviews and questionnaires investigating teachers' attitude towards using corpora in language teaching recorded that using corpus data to support language activities created positive reactions from teachers. However, teachers should be equipped with the skills and knowledge to make use of online corpora and concordance tools in order to exploit the opportunities corpus data could offer for language activities and linguistic search (Özbay & Kayaoğlu, 2015). As stated by Leńko-Szymańska (2014), the mastery of corpus use and other relevant software to analyse corpus data stands out as the first doorstep for teachers to experience benefits of corpus use.

In Mukherjee's study (2004), positive gains were reported by the participating teachers following the corpus linguistics workshops and evaluations. On the other hand, the teachers tended to view corpus use as a specialty and beyond the capabilities of language learners. However, corpus use in the classroom might help teachers with the design and implementation of activities for raising language awareness among students. This could be done through discussions and analyses with features modified according to the needs of the learners. The position of language teachers in this context could be directing and facilitating the learning experience, and create opportunities to put language features explored through corpus data into practice for the language learners. Mukherjee argues that corpus use should be a part of language teacher education so that teachers who have the mastery of using corpora will enable their students to become autonomous users of corpora themselves (see Figure 2).
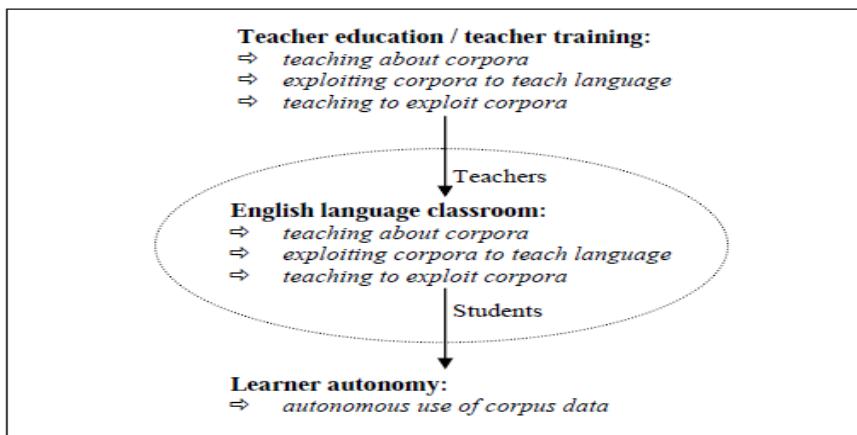
Figure 2. Use of corpora emerging form teacher training to language learning (Mukherjee, 2004, p. 245)

Studies involving student teachers of English also point to the noteworthy potential of corpus use for improvements in professional and pedagogical aspects of language teaching. The study of Hüttner et al. (2009), which combined genre analysis with corpus study for ESP contexts, revealed that student productions successfully exemplified how language teachers could create their own mini-corpora for particular ESP settings and analyse them for specific linguistic features. This experience was highly beneficial for the participating student teachers as they could rely on the knowledge and skills they gained throughout the process in their future careers. The use of corpora enabled those students to observe various lexical, grammatical and rhetorical aspects of unfamiliar genres and systematically gather these aspects to prepare lists for pedagogical activities.

6. Discussion and Conclusion

The present review shows that both direct and indirect applications of corpus use in language pedagogy have the potential to improve the process of language teaching and learning. Today, global communication is continuously introducing new genres and linguistic features to us, and the ability to use corpora actively and efficiently in language teaching stands out as a powerful skill for the future language teacher.

One significant problem that stands out is the lack of recognition and inclusion of corpus-based approaches and the use of corpus tools into teacher

training programs. Before disseminating the corpus use in classrooms with learners, language teachers need familiarity and further mastery with theoretical and practical aspects of corpora and concordancing starting from training periods. Language teachers equipped with the knowledge and skills for using corpora to create and implement lesson plans will gain an advantage in shaping the learning process for their learners. They could act as initiators of corpus-use in classrooms, which will allow language learners to become users of corpora and take the role of researchers for their own language learning experiences. In addition, they could encourage their students to adopt a critical approach to the prescriptive rules of language as corpus data point to the discrepancies between the language use in the classroom and the authentic language use in real life settings. For this reason, teacher training programs should introduce corpus-use to the prospective language teachers, and raise awareness about how to make most of DDL in different educational settings. Even in-service training can create positive outcomes for experienced teachers and their classrooms as observed in Mukherjee's (2004) study. Therefore, raising learners as researchers would start off with training teachers as researchers who are empowered with the advents of corpus research and experienced in cherishing its benefits for learners in classrooms.

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Chapter 19

A review of studies on CALL teacher education: Trends and issues

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Abstract

This article reviewed research on recent trends and issues in CALL teacher education. For this purpose, it examined the studies published in four prominent journals between 2010-2018 to identify the general inclination in CALL teacher education in terms of study context, education context and method, and to investigate recent trends and issues regarding technology and language teacher education (LTE). Qualitative analysis revealed five major themes on teachers' a) knowledge, use, attitudes and beliefs towards CALL integration, b) experiences related to training on technology, c) perceptions and attitudes regarding CALL/technology courses and programs, d) TPACK and CALL competency, and e) experiences related to blended learning. As a result, systematic review offered insight in understanding the relationship between technology and LTE to inform future line of research.

Keywords: technology training; Computer Assisted Language Learning; language teacher education; systematic review

1. Introduction

The rising popularization of technology and its affordances for language learning and teaching has urged the need to integrate it in language classrooms by foreign language teachers. Albeit the growing need and interest, research has shown that LTE programmes are not aligned with the necessary skills and strategies to prepare future language teachers for educational technology use (Dudeney & Hockly, 2007; Healey et al., 2011; Hubbard, 2008). Hubbard (2008) lists the barriers to technology integration in LTE succinctly as inertia and ignorance of the institutions, insufficient time for technology courses, insufficient infrastructures and standards, lack of established methodology and lack of experienced knowledgeable educators. Although this list of barriers seems

disheartening and challenging, there have been numerous promising suggestions for a more effective CALL teacher preparation.

Regarding which approach to be adopted for technology integration into LTE, Kessler and Hubbard (2017) summarise commonly used approaches as a *breadth first* one (with a wide range of technologies or tools), a *depth first* one (with a focal topic, e.g. projects), an *integrated* one (by implementing technology throughout a teacher education program), an *online* one, or a *blended* one. No matter which approach is adopted, technology training in LTE needs to go beyond the mastery of specific technologies and tools by focusing on skills development (Dooly & Sadler, 2013). Since any tool or technology can be obsolete and out-dated in a near future, language teachers may find it intimidating to keep abreast of new technology permanently. As a result, language teachers need technology training and practice in or close to actual teaching contexts (Whyte, Schmid, van Hazebrouck Thompson & Oberhofer, 2014), contextualized tasks that simulate real teaching challenges (Kessler & Plakans, 2008), more support for situated training and institutional support (Hanson-Smith, 2006) and more collaborative and reflective hands-on practices (Farr & Riordan, 2012).

In order to guide language teachers in their efforts to integrate technology, the issue of specific competencies and standards for CALL teacher education has been considered fundamental. To this end, recently, TESOL Technology Standards have been ascertained with a set of guidelines to specify the necessary technological competence of language teachers and learners (Healey et al., 2008). Furthermore, Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK) framework suggested by Mishra and Koehler (2006) and digital literacies recommended by Dudeney, Hockly and Pegrum (2013) have been adopted in setting the guidelines of necessary skills and knowledge to increase awareness of technology for language teaching.

The use of technology in language teaching and learning has been the focus of a number of review studies which analyze CALL as an academic discipline (Debski, 2003); recent developments in technology and CALL research (Zhao, 2003); CALL effectiveness (Felix, 2005); subject characteristics in CALL research (Hubbard, 2005) scope, goals and methods in CALL research (Levy, 2000), and technologies used in the teaching of the language skills and areas (Stockwell, 2007). Regarding the foci of these previous review studies, none of them particularly investigated the studies mainly within the context of technology and LTE. To fill this void in the research, the current review study aims to analyze research trends and issues in recent CALL teacher education and offer suggestions for further research.

1.1. Aim and Significance of the Study

Based on the growing interest in technology and language teachers' practices in and out of the L2 classes, systematic review presented here is significant in synthesizing crucial issues in CALL teacher education from 2010 and onwards and suggesting implications for new venues of research. Based on the significance and aims of the study, the following research questions guided the systematic review:

1.   What is the general inclination in CALL teacher education research between 2010 and 2018 in terms of study context, education context and method?
2.   What are the research trends and issues in CALL teacher education research between 2010 and 2018?

2. Method

Systematic review in this study followed a review plan, analyzed studies based on clearly defined criteria, and employed a comprehensive search strategy (Gough, Oliver, & Thomas, 2012; Petticrew & Roberts, 2006). In order to identify and select the journals for the review, the following parameters were set:

•   Journals that specifically focus on CALL and/or application of technology to language learning and teaching
•   Journals that are fully-refereed, open and are indexed in Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI) and Emerging Sources Citation Index (ESCI).

As a result of this preliminary analysis for journal selection, we decided on the four journals that met the above parameters: Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), ReCALL, The Computer Assisted Language Instruction Consortium Journal (CALICO), and Language Learning and Technology Journal (LLT). All these journals disseminate research in the area of technology and language education; and thus, are limited in their scope. After the identification of the journals, the following inclusion and exclusion criteria were used to select the studies.

2.1. Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

In order to narrow down the selection of the studies, the inclusion criteria were identified and limited to:

- studies that were written in English in full text, and were published in the selected journals in the area of technology and language learning/teaching

- studies that were published between 2010-2018. Since there were upcoming issues to be published in 2018, the ones that were published at the time of the review were taken for analysis.

- studies that included empirical research (conducted with participant teachers, guided by research questions/hypotheses, used data collection instruments, and reported analysis and discussion) on CALL teacher education

- studies mainly focused on L2 language teachers rather than learners

Along with the inclusion criteria, an exclusion procedure was followed for the:

- studies that were published as book reviews, notes/letters to the editor, responses to previous studies, conference proceedings, discussion articles, dissertations, or proposal of models/frameworks without reporting on empirical evidence

- studies that focused on frameworks/research strands other than CALL teacher education such as Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC).

After the identification of the journal parameters and inclusion/exclusion criteria, the selected journals were queried issue by issue from 2010 to 2018 by using certain key words/terms such as *CALL teacher education*, *teacher training in technology*, *technology and teacher education* and *teacher preparation in technology*. As a result of this filtering procedure, 45 studies were identified and taken for analysis. Table 1 below shows the distribution of the selected studies according to journals and year of publication.

Journals	CALL		ReCALL		CALICO		LLT			N*
	21		10		7		7			45

Years of Publication	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	N*
	3	5	2	5	8	9	6	6	1	45

Table 1

Selected studies according to journals and years of publication

N*: Number of the studies

As it was visible in Table 1, majority of the selected studies on CALL teacher education were published in CALL journal (n=21) and it was followed by ReCALL (n=10), CALICO (n=7), and LLT (n=7). When the publication years of these studies were tabulated, interest in CALL teacher education starting from the year 2014 was ocular. In the years 2014 and 2015, a total of 17 studies were published, and there has been a prominent interest in this issue in the last few years. At the time of the study reported here, there were still unpublished pending issues in 2018 and it was likely that the upcoming issues would involve related articles as well.

2.2. Data Collection and Analysis

A review form was developed in order to analyze the selected studies for the systematic review reported here. In the development of the form, various forms used in previous systematic reviews were examined for the general format. This form did not only allow for depicting numerical information about the features of the selected studies (e.g. study context, educational context, method) but also helped to analyze qualitative information (e.g. main aim, research gap and future suggestions) as well. For the reliability of the review form, a group of experts in the field examined and commented on it, and the final version included the following items for the detailed analysis of the studies:

• Information about the Journal/Author/Year, Justification and Research Gap, General Aim, Research Questions, Education Context (Pre-service/In-service), Study Context (where the study was conducted), Method, Technology Used (if any), Main Findings and Further Suggestions

After the review of each and every study by using the review form, a content analysis procedure was carried out. Content analysis allowed for making inferences about the studies since it is a technique useful for the analysis of trends and patterns in documents/texts (Stemler, 2001). Accordingly, two experienced researchers in qualitative data analysis independently reviewed the selected materials in terms of their content by paying specific attention to main aims and research questions. The studies were coded and classified according to their focus

of research in CALL teacher education, and a checklist was formed reflecting the features of the studies analyzed. By constantly comparing and contrasting the codes identified for the studies in the checklist, themes for the systematic review reported here were established. Reliability of the coding was measured through percent agreement approach (Stemler, 2001), and inter-rater reliability was .92 which indicated a high level of consensus between raters (Gwet, 2014).

3. Results

3.1. General inclination in CALL teacher education in terms of study context, education context and method

Forty-five studies selected for the purposes of the study were analyzed in terms of their study contexts, education contexts and methodologies to track the recent inclination in CALL teacher education. Study context here referred to the regions (Europe, Asia, America and Australia) where the studies were conducted. This classification was based on United Nation's classification of major areas and regions (www.un.org). As for education context, the studies fell into categories of in-service LTE and pre-service LTE contexts. The analyses have also yielded that the selected studies employed quantitative, qualitative or mixed methodologies. Overall results regarding these variables are shown in the figure below.
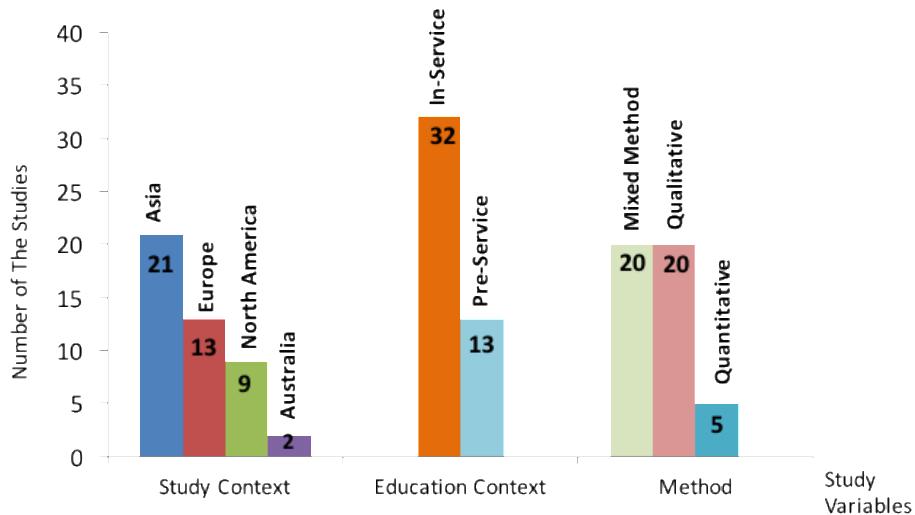

Figure 1. General inclination in CALL teacher education from 2010 and onwards in terms of study context, education context and method

According to Figure 1, out of 45 studies, 21 of them were conducted in Asian countries, 13 of them were in European countries, nine of them were in North American countries, and two of them were in the Australian study context. In terms of education context, majority of the studies included in-service language teachers (n=32) whereas 13 of them were in the pre-service LTE context. As for the methodologies, qualitative (n=20) and mixed methods (n=20) studies had the dominance, and only a few studies (n=5) followed pure quantitative methodology. In order to explore this general inclination in CALL teacher education in more detail, Table 2 below shows comprehensive results related to each variable.

Table 2

Results related to general inclinations in CALL teacher education research

Study Context	N*	Education Context	N*	Method	N*
Asia		**In-Service**		**Mixed Method**	
Far East	15	K12 Teachers	15	Explanatory	14
Middle East	6	University Lecturers	15	Exploratory	2
Europe		Course Trainees	1	Multiple Case Study	2
Western Europe	7	Private Course Teachers	1	Survey Development	1
Northern Europe	4	**Pre-Service**		Convergent Parallel Mixed	1
Southern Europe	1	Undergraduate Ss	7	**Qualitative**	
Eastern Europe	1	MA Ss/Certificate Prog.	6	Qualitative Tools	12
North America		**Total**	45	Case Study	8
USA	6			**Quantitative**	
Canada	3			Survey	5
Australia	2			**Total**	45
Total	45				

N*: Number of the studies

In terms of study context, the results put forward that most of the studies in the Asian context were conducted in Far Eastern countries (n=15) such as Taiwan, North Korea and Japan. The remaining six studies in the Asian context belonged to the Middle Eastern study contexts of Iran and Turkey. Majority of the studies in the European study context were carried out in Western European countries (n=7) such as Germany and France, and these countries were followed by Northern European ones (n=4) such as United Kingdom and Finland. There were only two studies conducted in the Southern and Eastern European LTE

contexts. As for the North American context, studies in CALL teacher education were conducted only in The United States of America (n=6) and Canada (n=3). The remaining two studies were carried out in Australia.

According to Table 2, studies in the in-service LTE contexts included K12 teachers (n=15) and university instructors/teachers (n=15). There were two studies with teachers in a CALL course and a private language course. Status of pre-service teachers might differ according to different study contexts. The term 'pre-service' in this study refers to student teachers (ST) who have not started their professional careers but follow a diploma/certificate program. Thirteen studies included participants from pre-service LTE contexts. Seven studies had undergraduate students at the faculties, and six of them had MA students or students of an LTE certificate program. The ratio of the number of the studies in in-service to pre-service LTE (32/13) showed that the major inclination in CALL teacher education focused on investigating classroom practices of in-service teachers and offering them new alternatives in terms of technology use for language teaching.

While analyzing the methodologies of the studies, reported methods of the studies were taken into consideration primarily. Where it was not reported exclusively, details of the research methods were further analyzed based on the categorization of research designs by Creswell (2012). The results of this analysis put forward that majority of the studies employed explanatory mixed method study design (n=14) in which general inclination was to collect survey data on teachers' experiences with CALL first, and support or further explain it with qualitative data usually gathered from interviews. Two studies followed exploratory mixed methods study design by using a qualitative approach first (e.g. observing teachers' technology-related activities or attitudes) and exploring the phenomenon further with quantitative data mostly gathered from a questionnaire or a survey. Out of the four remaining studies, two of them employed multiple case study design by collecting data qualitatively and quantitatively from multiple sources to report on selected cases (e.g investigation of teachers' one-to-one experiences of technology), one of them reported the developmental process of a survey on assessing teachers' technology integration practices, and one followed convergent parallel mixed method design in which qualitative and quantitative data were collected simultaneously to investigate teachers' professional development. As for the qualitative studies, majority of them (n=12) employed qualitative data collection tools such as observation/field notes, reflections, course documents and video recordings to explore language teachers' attitudes, beliefs or experiences regarding technology. The remaining eight studies followed case study design with in depth qualitative analysis of the selected cases (e.g.

teachers' personal and professional use of technology). There were only five studies which reported on the findings of survey data (e.g. survey on teachers' attitudes towards a technological tool) within a mere quantitative fashion. Overall, results regarding the methods used in the selected studies pinpointed an inclination in using mixed method or qualitative study designs to explain/explore technology use and integration in LTE.

3.2. Themes Related to Recent Trends and Issues in CALL Teacher Education

As a result of the thematic analysis of 45 articles, the studies were categorized under five broad themes which were discussed in detail below.

3.2.1. General investigation of teachers' knowledge, use and attitudes towards CALL integration/technology use in and out of the classroom

A considerable number of studies (n=12) was classified about the research on identifying the current knowledge, use, beliefs and attitudes of in-service and pre-service teachers towards technology in several different contexts. Aydın (2013) examined in-service Turkish EFL teachers' general perceptions about the use of computers in EFL teaching and learning, and found that teachers' limited knowledge of technology contrasted with their positive attitudes toward computers. Also, Hedeyati and Marandi (2014) investigated the status quo of technology integration in Iranian EFL classes and concluded that technology integration was not common due to teacher constraints (lack of training, teacher resistance), facility constraints, and learner constraints.

In Chinese EFL context, Liu, Lin and Zhang (2017) searched for teachers' pedagogical beliefs, attitudes toward and intentions to use ICT, and reported a significant positive influence of constructivist-oriented beliefs on of Technology Acceptance Model constructs. Furthermore, Wesely and Plummer (2017) explored how Spanish teachers in US high schools used CALL in their classrooms, and found that teachers rarely changed their pedagogy or their curriculum to integrate technology. In another study by Tour (2015), in-service language teachers' personal and professional engagement with ICT was investigated, and results yielded a significant relationship between the digital literacy practices and digital mindsets of the teachers.

By examining and contrasting student and teacher perspectives, Lai, Yeung and Hu (2016) explored how teachers could help promote learners' out-of-class

autonomous use of technology for language learning. The study revealed the passive role of the teachers in learners' out-of-class use of technology in spite of teachers' acknowledgement of the importance of autonomous learning. Similarly, Toffoli and Sockett (2015) searched for the current awareness language teachers about their students' Online Informal Learning of English (OILE) experiences and reported that teachers had positive beliefs about the potential benefits of OILE for language acquisition. By comparing students and teachers' attitudes, Wiebe and Kabata (2010) questioned whether instructors had a good understanding of students' perception and usage of CALL, and concluded a disparity between the students' reported use of CALL and instructors' perceptions of students' use of CALL. Furthermore, Praag and Sanchez (2015) explored teachers' rationales and stated beliefs about mobile technology use in L2 classrooms and its pedagogical implications, and found a close correspondence between the teachers' stated beliefs and their pedagogical practices.

Focusing on the current IWB use in Turkish EFL classrooms, Mathews-Aydinli and Elaziz (2010) asserted that both students and teachers had positive attitudes toward IWB use in EFL classes. Likewise, but in a longitudinal manner, Schmid and Whyte (2012) examined the integration of IWB technology by non-native speaking teachers of EFL in state schools in France and Germany, and revealed a variety of language teaching approaches in teachers' practices with IWB.

In a pre-service context, Cummings Hlas, Conroy and Hildebrandt (2017) explored United States K–12 foreign language STs' use of and beliefs about CALL technologies, and reported inadequacy of CALL teacher preparation in their LTE program. In general, studies under this theme called for a need to explore language teachers' current beliefs and attitudes towards various aspects of CALL as a first step to guide them integrate technology effectively into their classrooms.

3.2.2 Teacher experiences related to training on a new technological tool, platform, online environment and resource

Out of 45, 11 studies categorized under this theme explored teachers' experiences in a professional development program, course or project through a specific training of a new tool, platform, online environment and resource. Kozlova and Priven (2015) investigated the emergence of 3D-specific skills during teaching in a Virtual World (*SecondLife*) through situated learning, and found the spiral process of online teaching skills and the effectiveness of collaborative situated learning. Similarly based on a project between UK and Spain, Ernest, Guitert, Hampel, Heiser, Hopkins, Murphy and Stickler (2013)

focused on the development of teachers' experience of virtual collaborative language learning, and discussed necessary online teaching skills for teachers. Also, through an online faculty development programme, Adnan (2017) ascertained that readiness positively predicted satisfaction with e-Tutor, and online competences of teachers should be developed to enhance teachers' traditional roles.

Wang, Chen and Levy (2010) conducted a study in a cyber f2f in-service teacher training program by focusing on how the trainees progressed through certain stages in a cyclical approach of action, reflection, and improvement. Moreover, Whyte (2011) investigated the relationship between learning opportunities and teacher cognition in the context of a videoconferencing project, and pinpointed the importance of reflection and collaboration between teachers and trainers.

With a large-scaled collaborative project in European countries, Whyte et al. (2014) explored the challenges and opportunities arising during the development of open educational resources (OERs), and ascertained several affordances of interactive projects for LTE. Likewise, Borthwick and Gallagher-Brett (2014) analyzed how tutors involved in a project associated open educational practice, and asserted a range of benefits (e.g. improved professional profiles, acquisition of new technical and pedagogical skills, and increased self-efficacy).

Focusing on the issue from SLA-inspired CALL perspective, Kessler and Bikowski (2011) investigated how STs constructed optimal CALL environments in their curricular projects, and asserted that albeit certain challenges, STs realized how technology could contribute to learning by designing technology-enhanced lessons. In a similar vein, Kuure, Molin-Juustila, Keisanen, Riekki, Iiavari and Kinnula (2016) provided STs opportunities to design language learning environments with new technologies by highlighting a need for more explicit effort to switch STs' perspective from the role of a teacher to a designer with a focus on learner participation.

Jeong (2017) investigated the impact of implementing ICT and a learning management platform for a ST training course to promote CALL in the Korean EFL Context, and reported increase in confidence and motivation after training. Similarly, in a ST training course, Sun (2014) examined how STs adopted YouTube technology into their microteaching through reflections and perceptions of the gains during the process. Studies in this section concluded that more training and practice opportunities with new technologies would offer teachers hands-on experience in CALL.

3.2.3 Teacher perceptions and attitudes regarding CALL/technology courses, programs and frameworks

Studies within this theme (n=8) investigated language teachers' perceptions, attitudes and identities regarding a variety of attempts to employ specific frameworks, approaches and methodologies in CALL teacher education. For instance, Kitade (2014) employed activity theory framework to explore how STs developed their teacher identities through online activities with L2 learners. Another study in pre-service LTE context by Schmid and Hegelheimer (2014) explored the affordances of a situated CALL teacher education program for pre-service EFL teachers by focusing on STs' development as CALL practitioners and positive impact of school-based authentic experiences in particular.

Moreover, Meskill and Sadykova (2011) aimed to describe the anatomy and dynamics of an online professional development course for teachers, and reported a shift to more learner-centered generative instruction with the role of the teacher as a helper or a partner throughout the course. Likewise, McNeill (2013) focused on STs' perceptions regarding the situated nature of a CALL course and the relationship between those perceptions and CALL learning, and suggested the improvement of CALL courses sensitive to situated characteristics. Through lesson study practice, Nami, Marandi, and Sotoudehnama (2016) analyzed in-service teacher perceptions in a CALL teacher preparation course.

With the aim of connecting technology use with current language teaching methodologies (e.g. task-based and project-based approaches), Schmid (2011) tried a model of IWB professional development programme incorporating a pedagogical framework based on a socio-cognitive approach to CALL. Also, Chao (2015) investigated how inservice language teachers built connections with their existing teaching practice during a CALL class and how they used their CALL knowledge later on.

From a different angle, Shin (2015) identified the effects of activities based on CALL lessons and materials on STs' awareness of digital literacy, e-safety and fair use of ICT, and reported increased concern by STs about these issues after participating such activities. Overall, studies within this theme identified a need for rethinking the goals of CALL teacher education for professional development in technology and engaging teachers in more situated practices.

3.2.4 Relationship between TPACK and CALL competency, development, knowledge and self-efficacy

Within the reviewed articles, the studies related to the TPACK framework and its relation in LTE (n=8) were classified under this theme in order to provide the utilization of the framework for several purposes in a nutshell. Since TPACK framework covers general guidelines for the relationship between technology, pedagogy and content knowledge, Baser, Kopcha and Ozden (2016) reported on the development and validation process of a TPACK survey contextualized for EFL teachers which can be used for future studies. In other quantitative studies using this TPACK survey, Cheng (2017) investigated native language teachers' perceived self-ability to implement technology-enhanced instruction while Hsu (2016) explored the extent of EFL teachers' TPACK and acceptance of mobile asissted language learning practices through the structural relationship between TPACK and other variables (i.e. perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, attitude toward use and continuous usage).

Qualitative studies were also held in LTE by using the TPACK model. Bustamante and Moeller (2013) explored an online professional development program utilizing Web 2.0 technologies for teachers of German using the TPACK model as a theoretical framework. Also, Tseng, Lien and Chen (2016) examined the preparation and support of Mandarin FL teachers to teach online by tracking their TPACK development.

Some other mixed method studies which included observation and document-based data (in addition to self-reported data) and data from other stakeholders were also prominent. For instance, Liu and Kleinsasser (2015) analyzed EFL in-service teachers' year-long CALL professional development seeking to prepare teachers for technology-enriched language education. With TPACK-in-Action CALL workshops, Tai (2015) investigated the impact that these workshops had on elementary English teachers. Similarly, Tseng (2018) analyzed the interface between TPACK and SLA from both teachers' and students' perspectives, and found that TPACK implementation for L2 interaction of the teachers was validated through students' perceptions.

3.2.5 Teacher experiences related to blended learning and online instruction

Among the reviewed articles, a small number of studies (n=6) investigated teachers' experiences with blended learning with a general focus on the comparison of different learning modalities. Comas-Quinn (2011) analyzed the impact of blended learning in a distance language learning course on teachers, which mostly concluded positive perceptions towards online sync tasks and f2f tasks when compared to online async tasks. Similarly, Nissen and Tea (2012)

investigated how second generation tutors within blended learning courses linked f2f and online course modalities, and reported that most tutors still preferred f2f modality.

Focusing mostly on students' perspectives in addition to teachers, Gleason (2013) explored both learners' and teachers' experiences by comparing two different types of blended Spanish courses, and revealed different types of dilemmas with respect to time commitments and relationships developed in each course, and fostering speaking skills development and student understanding. Another comparison study by Kissau (2015) searched for the impact of the method of instructional delivery (online or f2f) on L2 teacher candidate performance during actual teaching experience

Kissau and Algozzine (2014) explored the limitations and strengths of online instruction through the development and implementation of hybridized methodology coursework, and highlighted the increased confidence of teachers and the potential of hybridized instruction to overcome the barriers of online and f2f instruction. Unlike the abovementioned studies, Yang (2014) focused particularly on the problems and solutions during collaboratively designed blended course for summary writing by in-service teachers revealing a lack of training in blended learning environments.

4. Conclusion and Future Directions

This study aimed at reviewing trends and issues in CALL teacher education in a systematic fashion to show the general inclination and recent focus of research in technology and LTE. This review study offers a number of implications and future directions regarding technology in LTE which are listed below.

One implication is that there is a need for more CALL-related curriculum development for teaching educational technology. During pre-service LTE program, STs can be given opportunities for more hands-on and situated practices by switching their roles to the designers of technological environments within more SLA-inspired CALL practices. CALL trainings and coursework in LTE programs can also be revised to reconcile various language teaching approaches (e.g. socio-constructivist, task-based, project-based approaches) with CALL ideals. Another implication is incorporating more informal reflective opportunities in CALL teacher preparation in addition to formal coursework in order to help prospective teachers gain an awareness on their practices regarding technology integration. In this way, after trainings, teachers can continue their CALL journey in informal mediums. As a result, CALL training should be

supported with collaborative activities with formal and informal peer support, mentoring, coaching and continuous reflection. It is most likely that more collaborative online projects will be conducted in various LTE contexts in the near future according to the reported affordances of these projects such as increased motivation, self-efficacy, online teaching skills and competences of language teachers. The review here also implies a need to include a variety of technology in relation to the pedagogical uses in the curricula of pre- and in-service training programs.

The restraints (teacher, facility and learner) that cause ineffective technology integration in language classrooms need to be taken into consideration as a whole. Future studies may also focus on teachers' personal experiences with technology to connect these experiences in professional development programs. Regarding blended learning and online teaching, research have put forward that trainings need to focus on increased understanding of how to become an online teacher. Future research is needed for more hybridized methodology coursework. In another line of future research, studies related to the TPACK framework in LTE suggest more observation-based research and more practical reflection of the TPACK in CALL coursework. Also, future studies can consider the impact of the TPACK applied by the teachers on learning effectiveness.

As suggested by several studies in this review, the future of technology and LTE will be studies focusing on longitudinal approach. Future studies need to question whether any kind of professional development training on technology has long-term benefits for language teaching and learning. The descriptive results yielded that most of the studies in CALL teacher education were carried out in the so-called developed and high-income countries, and lack of studies in the African or South American contexts suggest a need for improving CALL teacher education in these parts of the world as well. It is likely that future studies may focus more on in-service LTE since many teachers may not be aware of how to design and implement technology-enriched lessons. However, there is also a need to conduct more studies in pre-service LTE contexts in order to see the effects of various CALL-related courses or tool integration on the actual teaching practices of prospective teachers. Also, more studies are needed with large-scale samples in various in-service and pre-service LTE contexts with triangulated research designs that compare observations of students' and teachers' actual behaviors, perceptions and beliefs towards technology.

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Chapter 20

A review of research on the influence of English as a Lingua Franca on English Language Teaching

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Abstract

In this chapter, a selection of studies on English as a lingua franca (ELF) and its implications for teaching and learning English are reviewed. The focus is on descriptive studies on ELF, research on learners' perceptions of ELF and teaching and learning in ELF contexts. In this respect, 66 studies published between 2000 and 2018 are summarised. These studies are reviewed in accordance with the description of ELF, students' beliefs and perceptions of ELF, ELF-awareness in English language classrooms. Our aim is to give novice researchers and researchers in the field of ELF and ELT a general idea about what ELF research entails and how it can be related to the teaching and learning of English. In the final section of the chapter, the authors make suggestions concerning future directions in ELF-awareness in ELT research.

Keywords: English as a lingua franca (ELF), students' perceptions of ELF, ELF-aware teaching/learning

1. Introduction

In recent years, extensive research on the pedagogy of English as a lingua franca (ELF) has been influencing the teaching and learning of English in the European contexts and beyond. This has created an opportunity for teachers and learners to conceptualize teaching/learning English from a critical perspective – i.e. as a tool for intra/inter-cultural communication in different world contexts. In their introduction to the 'The Routledge Handbook of English as a Lingua Franca', Jenkins, Baker and Dewey (2017) indicated that ELF research has been attracting the attention of scholars from many different but related fields of study for more than two decades. Since Kachru's (1985) geographical categorization of English in mid-1980s, in the inner, outer and expanding circle contexts, research on the codification of English, as well as its pedagogical implications, have been extensively carried out. In that respect, researchers designed studies that focused on teachers' perspectives on how to integrate a critical perspective into English language teaching (ELT) (Bayyurt

and Sifakis, 2015a, 2015b). As Bayyurt and Sifakis (2015a, 2015b) and Sifakis (2014) suggested the involvement of an ELF perspective in ELT can be considered as an opportunity for teachers and learners to conceptualize English through ELF lenses and be more successful in their English language use. In other words, they revise their views about teaching, learning and using a language that is not a foreign language anymore, but a global one, and focus on the actual use of English rather than its structural properties (Bayyurt and Sifakis, 2015a, 2015b, 2017; Rose and Galloway, 2019; Sifakis, 2014). Earlier work on ELF has focused on the linguistic characteristics of spoken ELF in various contexts by bi-/multi-lingual users of English (e.g. Cogo and Dewey, 2012; Firth, 1996; Gilner, 2016; Pitzl, 2012); the cognitive dimensions of ELF (e.g. Alptekin, 2013; Hall, 2013; Mackenzie, 2014; Mauranen, 2012; Vetchinnikova, 2015); a collection of ELF corpora – i.e. VOICE, ELFA and ACE – in European and Asian contexts (e.g. Kirkpatrick 2010; Mauranen, 2012; Seidlhofer, 2011); and pedagogical aspects of ELF – i.e. teaching and learning English in the outer/expanding circle contexts, including methodologies and materials used to teach English (e.g. Bayyurt and Sifakis, 2015a, 2015b; Bayyurt, Lopriore and Vettorel, 2018; Guerra and Cavalheiro, 2019; Lopriore and Vettorel, 2019; Sifakis *et al*, 2018; Siqueira and Matos, 2019)

English as a lingua franca has gained importance as an area of scientific enquiry in the late 1990s and early 2000s. The pioneers of the field – i.e. Jennifer Jenkins, Barbara Seidlhofer and Anna Mauranen – have directed the attention of many researchers towards establishing a firm connection of ELF research to already existing theoretical enquiries to highlight the importance of approaching ELF studies from a dynamic research-oriented point of view. Hence, while investigators in Barbara Seildhofer's research team were focusing on eclectic aspects of ELF discourse ranging from a collection of ELF corpora and their linguistic analysis to pedagogy of ELF, researchers in Jennifer Jenkins's research group were concentrating on the pedagogical aspects of ELF as well as its intercultural and cross cultural dimensions, to name a few. As Jenkins (2012) pointed out ELF was "virtually unknown even in applied linguistics/sociolinguistics/World Englishes (WE)" circles when she published her article entitled "Which pronunciation norms and models for English as an International Language?" in the English Language Teaching Journal in 1998. As research on ELF and its implications for ELF pedagogy expanded, researchers in the disciplines of ELF and WE recognized the significance of ELF and its increasing consequences for teaching and learning English.

Thus, this chapter aims at identifying and reviewing recent studies on ELF and English language teaching. Primarily, it hopes to provide essential information about these studies, such as the research methodology used, the topics and objectives of the research, and the findings. To do so, it was vital to determine the data collection instruments, the criteria for their selection and

the search items. In the following sections, these issues will be presented in detail.

2. Methodology

In this section, the selection criteria and the methodology for reviewing research papers on ELF, perceptions of ELF and its implications for an ELF-aware pedagogy will be presented. The literature review data were compiled from two major abstract/article/citation database. The first one was the abstract and citation database of peer-reviewed literature SCOPUS, and he second one was the online library of education research and information Education Resources Information Center (ERIC). Then, the following selection criteria of studies were established to categorize and summarize the selected articles. They had to be published in and after 2000 and written in English. Moreover, the selection could only include scientific articles and conference proceedings published in refereed academic journals, books and book chapters, while excluding book reviews, letters, responses, commentaries, editorial materials and unpublished PhD dissertations.

In the ERIC database, the following key terms were used to search for the key studies in line with the focus of this review:

- "English as a Lingua Franca" + "English language teaching";
- "English as a Lingua Franca" + "English language teaching" + ELF + ELT;
- "English as a Lingua Franca" + "language teaching" + English;
- "English as a Lingua Franca" + "language teaching" + English + ELF + ELT;
- "English as a Lingua Franca" + "language teaching" + English + ELF.

The use of the above search items led to a total of 840 studies in the ERIC database.

Moreover, the keywords "English as a Lingua Franca" + ELT were used in the SCOPUS database, resulting in 180 citations. After careful examination of the studies identified in the databases search, the first corpus of analysis was determined with 122 studies. However, due to the limitations of retrieving data from the studies and the overall purpose of this chapter, which is to find the most illustrative and significant areas of research in the field of ELF/ELT along the last two decades, the final corpus of this review consisted of 66 studies.

3. Major Topics of Research Conducted on ELF

Once the corpus of this study was identified and analysed, three main areas of research were recognized: (a) descriptive studies on ELF (25 studies); (b) students' perceptions of ELF (25 studies); and (c) teaching and learning in ELF contexts (16 studies).

3.1. Descriptive studies on ELF

After a thorough analysis of the selected papers, it was observed that the majority of studies focused on descriptive research. More specifically, the main aim of these studies was to identify the forms and functions of ELF communication. Björkman's (2014) study focused on identifying the communicative strategies used to ensure effective communication in ELF interactions. The participants of the study were university students, who took part in group activities in an academic context. Her aim was to provide a framework for the functions of the communicative strategies employed during these activities. Similarly, Hanamoto (2016) analysed verbal and non-verbal communicative strategies used in order to solve problems in understanding by students with low proficiency from Japan, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia in ELF interactions in a Japanese university. Kennedy's (2017) study also focused on communication strategies used in ELF interactions through the analyses of both the communicative goal of the interactions and the students' thoughts and feelings about the communicative exchanges. Another pragmatic aspect of ELF interactions was analysed by Kappa (2016), who investigated the overly affiliative interpretations across several contexts and combinations of interlocutors, while identifying the role of laughter whenever there was divergence among the interlocutors.

Focusing on the written production of Chinese university students, Ren (2016) analysed the pragmatic strategies used to solve problems in understanding in ELF emails. Kaur (2017) also investigated misunderstandings in ELF communication when she analysed the role of ambiguity in triggering miscommunication and how speakers dealt with the need to increase the explicitness of their communicative purpose. In an earlier study, Kaur (2012) focused on the use of repetition as a major interactional practice employed to pre-empty and solve understanding problems in ELF interactions. In a similar study, Weirong (2017) analysed the functions of ELF communication and compared the features of the discourse marker 'so' in ELF interactions and its occurrence in L1 English speakers' talk. Also focusing on specific forms of language use, Hall, Joyce and Robson (2017) conducted a study on the post-instruction acquisition of lexical-grammatical knowledge, more specifically the use of 'can you/could you' in email requests of an interlocutor in business

interactions with international colleagues – i.e. ELF communication. A similar study was conducted by Ji (2016), who examined non-standard lexicogrammatical features of ELF, such as non-standard use of prepositions, the omission of subjects, objects and copular verbs, grammatical disagreement, and similar, by Chinese speakers in China-ASEAN communication contexts. Through a corpus-based study, Wang (2017) investigated the effects of genre (i.e. lectures and seminars) and inter-disciplinary variation (i.e. Medicine, Social Sciences, Natural Sciences) on spoken ELFA (Academic Lingua Franca English), from the perspective of recurrent word combinations (four-word lexical bundles, such as 'I don't know if'). A similar study by Timyam (2018) examined how the use of verbal inflectional suffixes (present tense -s, past tense -ed and progressive -ing) by Thai learners of English deviated from native norms. Finally, Pitzl (2016) observed the creative use and variation of idioms in ELF interactions as features of transient language contact and of multilingual creativity.

Several other studies aimed at identifying phonological features of ELF interactions. O´Neal (2015a, 2015b) examined the relationship between consonant articulation and intelligibility. In both studies, he identified how consonant deletion, consonant insertion and consonant elision in cluster articulation (lexeme-initial, lexeme-medial, and lexeme-final) may affect mutual intelligibility in ELF interactions among Japanese university students. Matsumoto (2011) also focused on phonological issues of ELF by investigating how graduate non-native speakers of ELF in the USA successfully negotiated meaning in spite of possessing different accents. Other studies investigated to what extent sociolinguistic issues, such as, identity construction could be related to English language learners'/users' attitudes towards their accents in ELF communication. For instance, Sung (2016a) examined Hong Kong university students' accent preferences (i.e. native-like or having a local accent) based on identity-related and practical reasons. In his study, Sung also identified issues of intelligibility as the subjects' major considerations in their preference of accents. Likewise, Jenks (2013) analysed how participants in intercultural voice-based chat rooms gave and responded to compliments in relation to their language proficiency, accent and pronunciation, thus co-constructing their 'non-native' identities.

Another trend in ELF studies focused on written academic research articles. For example, Martinez (2018) compared corpora of native and non-native research articles in order to find ELF-based features in academic publications. Similarly, Farley (2018) compared articles written by native and non-native speakers and identified the types of changes that occurred in non-native

research articles so that they could be accepted for publication (i.e. justification for research, use of citations, structure of discussion, non-standard usage, etc.).

One central issue found in ELF research has to do with the role of the native speaker in intercultural communicative exchanges. Drljača Margić (2017) observed the behaviour of native speakers in ELF interactions, more specifically, how they accommodated their English when communicating with non-native speakers of English and what their attitude was towards language accommodation. Furthermore, Kimura (2017) perceived the linguistic identities in a dyadic institutional ELF interaction in the USA (a native speaker of British English and a native speaker of Arabic) so as to identify any discrepancy in terms of demonstrated linguistic superiority or cooperative orientations towards communicative effectiveness. Surveying a similar context, Björkman (2017) investigated possible power asymmetries in PhD supervision meetings. This study assessed linguistic competence and content knowledge as factors which could lessen the occurrence of power asymmetry between supervisors and supervisees in ELF interactions.

Finally, some other studies on ELF have aimed at conceptualizing ELF as legitimate discursive expressions of a community. To do so, Motschenbacher (2013) analysed several linguistic levels of English language – or ELF – use in Eurovison Song Contest press conferences, such as code-choice practices, participants' metalinguistic comments on the use of ELF, complimenting behaviour and relativisation patterns. Another study which sought to conceptualize the legitimacy of ELF was proposed by Ishikawa (2016), who suggested that ELF theories seem to be more effective than the World Englishes paradigm to legitimate the English spoken by a large number of Asians.

3.2. Students' perceptions of ELF

Remarkably, a large number of recent studies on ELF examined in this chapter aimed at identifying learners' perceptions, attitudes and beliefs towards ELF. The perception of Taiwanese students of the international scope of English as opposed to the view of the language associated with English-speaking countries and the consequences these different viewpoints bring to the classroom were observed by Seilhamer (2012). Carréra Szundy (2017) carried out a similar study through the analysis of Brazilian undergraduate students' points of view regarding language ideologies on ELF, in general, and on ELF in academic writing literacy events, in particular. Focusing on Japanese university students, Ishikawa (2017) identified their conflicting though mostly

positive attitudes towards ELF. More specifically, Ploywattanawong and Trakulkasemsuk (2014) also analysed Thai graduate students' attitudes towards the acceptability and understandability of ELF interactions. Some other studies explored learners' beliefs towards ELF within the context of study abroad experiences (Fang and Baker, 2018; Kaypak and Ortaçtepe, 2014).

Mystkowska-Wiertelak and Bielak (2014) proposed a distinct perspective when they examined Polish university students' awareness of ELF and their aims of following a native speaker target when learning English. In the same way, Polish secondary school students' preferences for adopting native and non-native models were analysed by Szymańska-Tworek (2013). Moreover, Xu and Van De Poel (2011) analysed Flemish university students' attitudes towards ELF, in general, and the nativeness/non-nativeness paradigm, in particular, based on their own experiences of language use in and outside the language classroom. The attitudes of university language learners in different ESP contexts towards ELF and ENL varieties were examined by Csizér and Kontra (2012). Using online communication activities between non-native speakers, Ke and Suzuki (2011) and Ke and Cahyani (2014) investigated Taiwanese learners' perceptions of ELF, the role of English, normative approaches to English language use and native speakers, as well as their identity as English language users.

Several other studies have focused on the learners' evolving identities within the ELF paradigm. Ke (2016) analysed how taking part in an online intercultural exchange with Japanese students influenced Taiwanese university students' linguistic identities. In a similar vein, Sung (2014a, 2014b) explored university students' perceptions of their affiliations with their local and global identities when interacting with people from different cultural backgrounds and first languages in Hong Kong. In another study that analysed identity issue in a multilingual and multicultural university in Hong Kong, Gu, Patkin and Kirkpatrick (2014) explored the negotiation of power relations and the creation of new relationships within ELF interactions. In addition to these studies, several others attempted to draw a relationship between students' identity constructions and their accent preferences in multilingual/multicultural contexts. Sung (2014c, 2014d, 2016b) provided examples of such studies by exploring university students' perceptions of their preferred identities and their fondness for accents in ELF interactions in a Hong Kong university setting.

Analysing students' attitudes towards native and non-native accents was also the aim of a number of studies on ELF. Stanojević, Borenić and Smojver (2012) explored the attitudes of Croatian speakers of ELF towards native and non-

native accents. Stanojević and Smojver (2011) had previously conducted a similar study on Croatian university students' attitudes towards their foreign accent, more specifically looking at how gender, their regional pride, and English proficiency played a role in their views of their learning goals, their language production and of non-native speakers. Also, Ren, Chen and Lin (2016) investigated mainland Chinese and Taiwanese students' attitudes towards phonological features of ELF. The subjects in this study expressed their opinions about following a native-target model of pronunciation as opposed to accepting their own local accents of English.

In a similar study, Devrim and Bayyurt (2010) investigated high school students' perspectives on native and non-native teachers and their use of English – e.g. their accents – in EFL classrooms in different regions of Turkey. They indicated that students' awareness of English as an International Language (EIL) or World Englishes could be helpful for the learners to be successful as English language users in their future encounters in English speaking contexts. Although Devrim and Bayyurt did not mention ELF in their study, EIL and ELF were identical constructs in their conceptualization of ELT. Finally, some other studies required students to react to different native and non-native accents: Hendriks, van Meurs and de Groot (2017) had multicultural students (French, German and Spanish) listen to samples of recorded speech with different degrees of accentedness (strong, slight and native), while Sung (2016c) examined second language students' reactions to being exposed to different accents of native and non-native English language speakers and the pedagogical implications of such practice.

3.3. Teaching and Learning in ELF Contexts: ELF-aware ELT

Another relevant area of research identified in the studies analysed in this chapter was the pedagogical implications of ELF in the language classroom. Murray (2012) proposed a framework based on three types of strategies so as to allow students to develop pragmatic competence in ELF communication. Aiming at language teacher education and development, Dewey (2014) discussed the consequences of incorporating an ELF perspective in English language classrooms. In his study, he suggested the adoption of a critical approach to language pedagogy and professional development based on practitioner-oriented research. The focus of the study was on the development of materials and tasks that reflected the use of English in ELF interactions. Kohn (2018) has recently proposed a social constructivist approach to understand ELF competence development. He suggested that teachers should be able to distinguish a 'strict' quasi-behaviouristic target language orientation

from an 'open' social constructivist target language orientation. He further illustrated that speaker satisfaction should be the yardstick for success in ELF communication. In addition, Kohn provided pedagogical case studies that employed video and chat exchanges to support the idea that acceptance and ownership of ELF use allows learners to develop their own non-native speaker identity. Proposing a pedagogical model of teaching English based on an approach of situated teacher praxis, Doğancay-Aktuna and Hardman (2018) suggested that teachers should rely on contextual needs for their pedagogical decisions on integrating a global Englishes perspective into their language classrooms. However, the authors stated that this can only be done after a careful consideration of the theoretical concepts underlying the development and use of global Englishes. Sifakis (2009) recommended an ELF curriculum based on the necessary skills for successful communication among non-native speakers. He also highlighted some challenges faced by EFL teachers in Greece and later provided an overview of the strengths of an ELF curriculum and its implications for teacher education.

In a similar vein, Bayyurt and Sifakis (2015a, 2015b) designed an ELF-aware teacher education model based on Sifakis's (2007) article on training EIL teachers and revealed that this kind of an approach gave more self-confidence to EFL teachers who for the first time in their lives heard about the merits of being a non-native English language teacher in the EFL classrooms (for a more detailed description of studies on ELF-awareness in language teacher education, see Kurt, Cavalheiro and Pereira, in this volume). Chan (2013, 2016) investigated the suitability of a World Englishes and ELF pedagogical pronunciation model in Hong Kong from a sociolinguistic perspective. The author suggested that a thorough analysis of the sociolinguistic, sociopolitical and socioeconomic context in Hong Kong becomes necessary before any attempt of implementing an ELF model is made. Hino (2018) proposed a paradigm of English as an International Language education which encompassed a joint World Englishes and ELF perspective in order to enable non-native users of English in the Expanding Circle context to communicate successfully in international exchanges.

Studies that have investigated the changes in English language teaching from an ELF perspective have also aimed at analysing and proposing different ways of using textbooks. Takahashi (2014) suggested that materials should reflect the actual needs of language learners considering the global role of English and its role as a lingua franca. However, Takahashi emphasized that, in current ELT materials, an ELF approach may not be evident. Therefore, it is important to highlight the significance of incorporating an ELF perspective in ELT materials

is vital for successful ELF communication. Yu (2018) has very recently proposed that although researchers have suggested ways to adopt an ELF-aware lingua-cultural approach to using and developing materials and activities, there has been little empirical evidence that shows these attempts have had an impact in the ELT classroom. This study aimed at verifying how native speaker-oriented materials were used in the EFL classrooms and further explored to what extent these materials and activities reflected ELF-awareness in ELT. Vettorel's (2018) study also aimed at verifying whether ELT materials that are used in Italian secondary schools included activities that raised ELF-awareness and promoted the use of communication strategies in intercultural encounters. According to Vettorel, communication strategies play a vital role in ELF communication and in such intercultural encounters, the interlocutors constantly negotiate and co-construct meaning through the use of several pragmatic strategies.

Investigation into the practices and perceptions of an ELF-based pedagogical perspective could also be found in Soruç's (2015) study, which surveyed 45 non-native English speaking teachers from 5 different expanding circle countries so as to observe their preference of an ENL or an ELF approach in ELT. Aiming at portraying an accurate real-life use of English in international communication, Jim (2018) examined first-hand experiences of several users of English in Hong Kong showing a diversity of contexts, problems and solutions for language use. Focusing on pre-service teachers' perceptions of teaching pronunciation, Lim (2016) investigated teachers' awareness of their own pronunciation, the perceived aims of teaching pronunciation, their approaches to pronunciation instruction and their attitudes towards ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations) ELF. Björkman (2011), on the other hand, proposed that the findings of ELF research be taken into account and integrated into EAP curriculum and testing. Acknowledging that ELF research has had significant implications for EAP instruction and testing, Björkman stated that, in order to provide a pluralistic and realistic perspective of the current use of English, the norms and standards employed in EAP should consider ELF usage. Finally, Reynolds and Yu (2018) reported on the results of the implementation of a learner-centred communicative ELF-based curriculum in a Taiwanese university administrative staff training program.

4. Research Methods used in ELF Studies

As far as the descriptive studies on ELF are concerned, the vast majority made use of qualitative research methods and tools. For example, Björkman (2014) analysed student talk in group work that took place in content courses

in detail. As a result of her analysis, she developed a framework of communication strategies in ELF interactions in university context. In another study, Hanamoto (2016) carried out a sequential analysis of verbal and non-verbal communicative strategies in interactive exchanges. Similar studies using qualitative methods can be listed as follows:

- video recordings of sharing information paired tasks and analysis of transcripts to identify the communicative strategies used (Kennedy, 2017);

- sequential analysis of audio-recorded conversations (Kappa, 2016);

- conversation-analytic procedures to identify understanding and clarity enhancing procedures (Kaur, 2017);

- conversation-analytic procedures in audio-recorded ELF conversations (Kaur, 2012);

- conversation-analytic method to examine a corpus of spoken interactions for phonological modifications (O'Neal, 2015a, 2015b);

- conversation-analytic study in a dyadic interaction (Kimura, 2017);

- conversation-analytic procedures to examine a corpus of recorded and transcribed naturally occurring speech followed by ethnographic interviews (Björkman, 2017);

- qualitative sequential analysis of face-to-face interactions (Matsumoto, 2011);

- use of Buysse's (2012) meta-functional theory of discourse markers to analyse the functions of 'so' in ELF and in native speech (Weirong, 2017);

- quantitative analysis of a corpus of transcribed academic lingua franca English (Wang, 2017);

- qualitative analysis of data collected from interviews (Sung, 2016a);

- membership categorization analysis of a corpus of voice-based chat rooms (Jenks, 2013);

- documents analysis of pragmatic strategies used in emails (Ren, 2016);

- analysis of academic writing of the use of verbal inflectional suffixes (Timyam, 2018);

- comparison between native and non-native English articles published in international journals (Farley, 2018; Martinez, 2018).

However, studies which investigated students' attitudes and perceptions of ELF were mostly built upon quantitative data collection tools, sometimes adopting a mixed method approach utilising both qualitative and quantitative tools to increase the reliability and validity as well as the generalizability of the results of their studies. Some of these studies utilizing quantitative and mixed (both quantitative and qualitative) data collection tools and their data collection tool(s) can be listed as follows:

- questionnaires (Csizér and Kontra, 2012; Ren, Chen and Lin, 2016; Szymańska-Tworek, 2013; Xu and Van De Poel, 2011);

- questionnaires and interviews (Ishikawa, 2017; Sung, 2016c);

- questionnaires and journals (Kaypak and Ortaçtepe, 2014);

- questionnaires, students' correspondence records, messages in forums, students' reflections and interviews (Ke and Chyani, 2014);

- questionnaires, messages in forums and students' reflections (Ke and Suzuki, 2011);

- surveys, interviews, diary study (Stanojević, Borenić and Smojver, 2012);

- qualitative analysis of Moodle interactions (Carréra Szundy, 2017);

- reactions to accents or language use (Hendricks, van Meurs and de Groot, 2017; Ploywattanawong and Trakulkasemsuk, 2014);

- qualitative analysis of face-to-face and email interviews and focus groups (Fang and Baker, 2018);

- interviews (Ke, 2016; Sung, 2014a, 2014b, 2014c, 2014d);

- written narratives (Sung, 2016b).

Finally, research focusing on the implications of an ELF-aware/ELF-informed pedagogy were mainly report articles which described original data aiming at stimulating further discussion and investigation in this field, or opinion articles that commented on the strengths and weaknesses of an ELF-aware/ELF-informed pedagogy such as the pedagogical implications of an ELF approach, propositions of materials and strategies, or professional development (Björkman, 2011; Chan, 2013; Dewey, 2014; Doğançay-Aktuna and Hardman, 2018; Kohn, 2018; Murray, 2012; Sifakis, 2009). Moreover, some studies attempted to discuss the suitability of an ELF-oriented pedagogical

model based on language users' attitudes identified in questionnaires and interviews (Chan, 2016) or examples of classroom practices (Hino, 2018). Studies that focused on textbook analysis (Takahashi, 2014; Vettorel, 2018) could also supplement data from questionnaires, classroom observations and interviews (Yu, 2018) in order to conduct an ethnographic inquiry into classroom practice. Conversely, studies that aimed at identifying attitudes towards ELF employed both quantitative and qualitative tools: questionnaires and interviews (Soruç, 2015), reflection reports and questionnaires (Reynolds and Yu, 2018), interviews (Jim, 2018), or interviews and classroom observations (Lim, 2016).

5. Findings of the ELF Studies

This section will briefly report on some of the most relevant findings of the studies on ELF mentioned in section 3. The structure of the presentation of these findings will follow the identification of the three main areas of research observed in the analysis of the studies compiled for this chapter: (a) descriptive studies on ELF, (b) students' perceptions of ELF; and (c) teaching and learning in ELF contexts.

Regarding the descriptive studies on ELF, Björkman (2014) listed the strategies frequently employed in ELF interactions: explicitness strategies, comprehension checks, confirmation checks and clarification requests. As for the communication strategies used when there are problems in hearing or understanding, Hanamoto (2016) explained that interlocutors employed multimodal resources other than language, i.e. verbal and non-verbal strategies, while also engaging in collaborative co-construction in ELF interactions. Moreover, Kennedy (2017) identified 11 different strategy types employed in ELF communication. The findings of the study revealed that different strategies were used among the participants who achieved a shared goal as compared to the ones who did not. Ren (2016) provided the strategies used by Chinese university students when dealing with misunderstandings in written ELF interactions (e.g. e-mails). They made metalinguistic comments, and pointed out misunderstandings by asking focused questions and adding metalinguistic comments. In Kaur's research on ELF interactions, when dealing with ambiguity, speakers enhanced the clarity of their message by using illustrations, descriptions, definitions, and comparison of similarity or dissimilarity (Kaur, 2017), repeating their speech, and by employing parallel phrasing, key word repetition, combined repetition and repaired repetition (Kaur, 2012). Furthermore, Weirong (2017) concluded that Asian ELF speakers used more tokens of 'so' than native speakers, especially when marking results, making conclusions, holding the floor, marking summary, opening a new section of discourse, and in shift-back and elaboration. Martinez

(2018) found out that research articles written by non-native speakers displayed a number of lexical items which were used considerably less by native speakers, if at all. Similarly, Ji (2016) observed that non-standard forms, such as lexical innovations; omission of subjects, objects and copular verbs; and grammatical disagreement, among others, existed systematically in high distance social talk by Chinese ELF speakers with high English language proficiency. Timyam (2018) explained that deviations in verbal inflectional suffixes among Thai advanced and upper-intermediate level ELF speakers were due to linguistic and functional causes. In his analyses of phonological modifications and intelligibility in ELF, O'Neal (2015a, 2015b) suggested that consonant elision in consonant clusters could diminish intelligibility and inserting an elided consonant into an unintelligible word could help re-establish intelligibility. Examining learners' perceptions of the relationship between accent and identity in ELF communication, Sung (2016b) found out that such link was extremely complex and that the interlocutors' preferences seemed to be made in relation to practical and identity-based reasons – i.e., to express their identity as competent users of English or to associate themselves with their lingua-cultural identities away from native speaker norms. Finally, Drljača Margić (2017) reported that native speakers made adjustments, such as enunciating clearly, using fewer idioms and speaking more slowly, when talking to non-native speakers so as to promote mutual intelligibility, show courtesy or help the interlocutors improve their English language skills.

When considering studies which attempted to depict learners' attitudes and beliefs towards ELF, Carréra-Szundy (2017) clarified how Brazilian undergraduate students entextualized ELF language ideologies to (re/de)construct or reinforce "native-speakerism" in ELT. Moreover, Ishikawa (2017) noticed significant contradictions in Japanese students' attitudes towards their English although they showed appreciation towards ELF perspectives. On the other hand, Mystkowska-Wiertelak and Bielak (2014) observed that although many Polish students still strived to become native-like, the model of a successful bilingual was gaining grounds. In Ploywattanawong and Trakulkasemsuk's (2014) study on graduate students' attitudes towards ELF at a higher education institution in Thailand, the authors concluded that the features of ASEAN ELF that deviated from Standard English did not pose any threat to communication among the university students. Although this was the case, these features were neither accepted nor rejected by the participants of the study. Examining an ELF perspective in study abroad programs in China, Fang and Baker (2018) revealed that Chinese students believed they gained more understanding and awareness of intercultural citizenship outside the classroom. Also examining a study abroad context, Kaypak and Ortaçtepe (2014) reported that although Turkish exchange students changed their perspective from accuracy to intelligibility as a result of their exposure to ELF

interactions, they maintained their commitment towards learning native-speaker norms in the English language classroom. A similar conclusion was reached in Szymańska-Tworek's (2013) study, where students displayed the same kind of conservative attitudes towards Standard English and native speaker norms, and in Xu and Van de Poel's (2011) study, which stated that although Flemish students incorporated an ELF perspective in their intercultural communication encounters on a macro level, they maintained their loyalty to a normative perspective of English language on a micro level. In another study, Csizér and Kontra (2012) observed that besides a prevalent effect of ENL on the participants' beliefs about what communication in English entails, there was a positive reaction towards the impact of an ELF perspective in interactions in English. Reflecting on the students' experience in an online communication context, Ke and Cahyani (2014) found out that learners' tended to give less emphasis to accuracy (or grammaticality) when they adopted an ELF perspective in their written exchanges in English.

Sung (2014a, 2014b, 2014c, 2014d) indicated that English language learners in Hong Kong displayed a range of attitudes towards their local and global identities when engaging in ELF communication. The major findings of these studies highlighted the fact that while some students preferred their local or global identities, others valued their hybrid glocal identities. However, some students were able to report a sense of inferiority while interacting with native speakers together with some degree of ambivalence towards their identities as users and learners of English due to their desire to follow a native-speaker accent model and, at the same time, maintain some features of their own accent so as to display their lingua-cultural identity (2016b). Stanojević and Smojver (2011) and Stanojević, Borenić and Smojver (2012) observed that Croatian ELF users presented divergent attitudes to an identity as ELF users of English showing some tolerance towards a slight accent, though in some cases they had a negative attitude towards what they called 'bad' pronunciation. The Chinese and Taiwanese students in Ren, Chen and Lin's (2016) investigation shared some similar attitudes to pronunciation when they showed preference for native speaker accent although they believed their accents were intelligible and acceptable. In Sung's (2016a) study, Hong Kong university students displayed a somewhat ambivalent attitude towards being exposed to different English accents. While several participants seemed to be aware of the importance of being exposed to native as well as non-native accents of English, there were some concerns about the pedagogical and practical validity of such activities.

Finally, among the studies that examined the pedagogical implications of ELF for ELT, Yu's (2018) investigation into classroom practices conducive to developing an ELF-aware pedagogy concluded that there was still prevalence of native-speaker based textbooks and materials. Regarding teachers' attitudes

towards ELF, Soruç (2015) observed a strong preference for ENL norms among teachers from five different expanding circle countries. Reynolds and Yu (2018) reported on a learner-based communicative ELF-informed curriculum that allowed students to develop a lingua franca ideology of communication. As a consequence, learners improved their communicative competence and willingness to speak English in lingua franca contexts. Finally, several other studies on ELF-awareness and its pedagogical implications did not provide concrete findings as they were mostly aimed at providing models of incorporating global Englishes into the English language classroom, suggesting an ELF curriculum or strategies to develop an ELF framework, or re-examining current methodologies and materials (Björkman, 2011; Chan, 2013, 2016; Dewey, 2014; Doğançay-Aktuna and Hardman, 2018; Hino, 2018; Murray, 2012; Sifakis, 2009; Takahashi, 2014; Vettorel, 2018).

6. Conclusion

In this chapter, selected studies on the involvement of ELF in ELT published over the last two decade—66 studies published between 2000 and 2018— were summarized. These studies were grouped as those regarding descriptive analyses of ELF, students' perceptions and beliefs towards ELF, and pedagogical implications of employing an ELF-aware/ELF-informed perspective in the language classrooms – i.e. teaching and learning in ELF contexts. By providing detailed and useful information about these studies, such as their scope and aims, their research methodologies, and their major findings, we hope to inspire novice and experienced researchers to do further studies on ELF involvement in English language teaching and learning.

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Chapter 21

An integrative research review of studies on teaching anxiety from 2000 to 2018

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Abstract

This integrative research review was undertaken to analyze the research completed on teaching anxiety, its sources and the variables it has been linked with. To this end, an extensive literature search of multiple databases was carried out. Utilizing a set of selection criteria, a total of 30 empirical studies were then selected and analyzed qualitatively with regard to their general aspects such as publication types, research methodologies, data collection techniques, participants, and findings. The analysis revealed that both pre-service and in-service teachers experience teaching anxiety stemming from various factors and the length of teaching experience and perceived teaching competency are the major predictors of it. In the light of the conclusions, further research recommendations were made.

Keywords: English language, teacher, teaching anxiety, review of research

1. Introduction

Anxiety is defined as undesirable, emotional and observable reactions such as sorrow, perception, and tension created by stressful situations (Özgüven, 1999). As a subjectively felt emotion, it appears when the individual feels threatened (Kozacıoğlu & Ekberzade, 1995).

Teaching anxiety, on the other hand, is "anxiety experienced in relation to teaching activities that involve the preparation and execution of classroom activities" (Gardner & Leak, 1994, p. 28). According to Buitnik and Kemme (1986), it is not only related with activities in the classroom but also other school activities and its intensity may change and disappear altogether as the teacher gets more experienced.

According to research, teaching anxiety felt by both pre- and in-service teachers can have a detrimental effect on teacher behavior and pupil learning. In terms of teacher behavior, it has been found to negatively affect teachers' problem solving abilities, lowering their classroom effectiveness and quality of the interaction with students (Kyriacou, 1995). It has also been found to correlate with lower pupil achievement and increased levels of pupil anxiety (Akinsola, 2008; Murray-Harvey et al., 2000).

Language teaching anxiety, on the other hand, is often considered in relation to foreign language (FL) anxiety, teaching the target language and general teaching anxiety (İpek, 2016; Merç, 2011). McIntyre and Gardner (1994) define FL anxiety as "the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning" (p. 284). Despite the common view that FL anxiety is inevitably correlated with language teaching anxiety, some recent studies in the Turkish context revealed contradictory results. While Öztürk (2016) reported that knowledge of target language regarding pronunciation, vocabulary and listening was the top major cause of FL teaching anxiety, Yüksel (as cited in Merç, 2011) reported no correlation between the two constructs. Furthermore, the findings of some other studies carried out especially in pre-service language teaching contexts (İpek, 2016; Merç, 2004, 2011) suggested that FL teaching anxiety is more related to teaching the target language and general teaching skills and strategies.

Apart from the variables mentioned above, teacher and pre-service teacher anxiety have also been investigated in relation with different variables such as teacher effectiveness, gender, teaching experience and personality. For example, in separate studies Williams (1991) and Horwitz (1996) reported a negative correlation between teaching anxiety and teacher effectiveness. Fish and Fraser (2003) demonstrated that there is a negative correlation between anxiety and teaching experience. Ngidi and Sibaya (2003) found significant statistical relationships between gender, personality and pre-service teacher anxiety.

Although there is a dearth of research on teaching anxiety experienced by in-service teachers, several studies have investigated pre-service teachers' teaching anxiety and proved that one of the major sources of anxiety as experienced by pre-service teachers is related to teaching practicum (Capel, 1997; MacDonald, 1993; Merç, 2004; Murray-Harvey et al., 2000; Sammephet & Wanphet, 2013) stemming from a variety of sources such as inconsistencies in evaluation, the quality of the feedback given by their supervisors (MacDonald, 1993), the student/supervising teacher relationship (Murray-Harvey et al., 2000) while

concerns about effective grammar teaching, time management in class, giving instructions for novice teachers (Numrich, 1996), teaching English through English, being asked unexpected questions, teaching speaking, and unenthusiastic learners (Kim & Kim, 2004) have been reported as causes of foreign language teaching anxiety.

In the Turkish context, in one of the earlier studies Merç (2004) found out eleven different sources causing teaching anxiety among pre-service English language teachers in relation to teaching practicum phase including previous experience, teaching in a big class, feeling incompetent in teaching, being observed by their faculty supervisors and cooperating teachers, being recorded, using a new teaching technique, using the time effectively, being unfamiliar with students teaching a new/different level, using a new/different device, and not achieving the lesson objectives. In an attempt to classify the sources of FL teaching anxiety, on the other hand, İpek (2007) identified six major sources: making mistakes, teaching a particular language area, using the native language, teaching students at particular language levels, fear of failure, and being compared to fellow teachers. In a more recent study, Merç (2011) reported that students and class profiles, classroom management, teaching procedures, being observed, mentors, and other issues such as other teachers' negative ideas about pre-service teachers and students in the classrooms and some technical issues were among the major sources of language teaching anxiety. Similarly, Paker's study (2011) also revealed that English language pre-service teachers were anxious about factors such as evaluation, classroom management pedagogy and staff relations.

All in all, the aformentioned studies and their findings suggest that there are some similarities and differences regarding the sources of teacher anxiety and its relationship with different variables indicating a need to thoroughly research, analyze and synthesize these studies unveiling their generalizable outcomes as well as context-specific ones, if any at all. Without a doubt, such an endevaour will also indicate gaps in current research, help guide future research, and consequently, contribute to our understanding of this psychological construct and its place in the practices of teacher education.

With these in mind, thus, this integrative research review aimed to explore the major studies on FL teacher anxiety in terms of their methodologies, participants, data collection techniques, and their findings.

2. Methodology

This study followed the principles of integrative research review which is a research synthesis that focuses on the existing literature on a research topic with the purposes of "evaluating the strength of the scientific evidence, discovering gaps in current research, identifying the need for future research, bridging between related areas of studies, identifying core issues in an area, generating a research question, identifying a theoretical or conceptual framework, and exploring which research methods have been used successfully" (Russell, 2005, p. 8). Generally it follows five specific stages of problem formulation, literature review, evaluation of data, data analysis, and interpretation and presentation of the results (Cooper, 1998, p. 5).

Similarly, in this study after formulating the research problem, a comprehensive literature search was undertaken and those related articles, conference papers, dissertations, and reports published in various indexed journals and in different databases were investigated. To this aim, the key words and key word combinations of 'teacher anxiety', 'language teacher anxiety', 'teaching anxiety', 'EFL teacher anxiety', 'language teaching anxiety', 'ESL teacher anxiety', 'anxiety among language teachers' with Boolean operators of 'and', 'or' were used. Furthermore, the journals indexed in Web of Science (WOS), EBSCHOhost, ScienceDirect, SCOPUS, IGI Global, Wiley Online Library databases, and studies in DergiPark, Google Scholar, Researchgate, and Academia.edu were scanned by limiting the search to the studies published between 2000 and 2018. The studies which had these key words or key word combinations either in the title or in the abstracts were pooled for further analysis and those which did not were discarded.

3. Materials and data analysis

Ganong (1987) states that in integrative research reviews inclusion criteria for the studies need be identified to address the validity issue that can be a threat to such studies. Therefore, initially some selection criteria were identified as follows:

- Studies which include data on pre-service and in-service teachers' teaching anxiety and stress

- Studies which include validated qualitative or quantitative data

- Studies published from 2000 to 2018

Those studies which did not meet the criteria were not included in the review as they were not relevant to the specific purpose of the study. As a result, 30 studies were selected to answer the research questions. The studies are presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1

Studies used in the review (*N*=30)

Selected Studies
Agustiana, 2014; Aslrasouli & Vahid, 2014; Aydın, 2016; Baltacı, 2017; Barahmeh, 2016; Can, 2018; Coşkun, 2013; Giovanelli, 2015; Güngör & Yaylı, 2012; İpek, 2016; Jedynak, 2011; Kesen & Aydın, 2014; Kim & Kim, 2004; Klanrit & Sroinam, 2013; Kunt & Tüm, 2010; Machida, 2015; Merç, 2004, 2011, 2015; Ngidi & Sibaya, 2003; Özturk, 2018; Öztürk, 2016; Paker, 2011; Sammephet & Wanphet, 2013; Tüm, 2012, 2013, 2015; Yalçın, 2014; Yangın Ekşi & Yılmaz Yakışık, 2016; Yoon, 2012

For further analysis of the data from these 30 studies, content analysis was conducted and main themes and categories were identified by the authors.

4. Findings

4.1. General Aspects of the Studies

The studies included in this review study were initially analyzed based on their general aspects considering their publication type (article, thesis, book chapter etc.), methodology they adapted (quantitative, qualitative or mixed), the data collection techniques, and finally their participants (pre-service teacher, in-service teacher, and both). The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

General Aspects of the Studies

General aspects	*n*
Publication Type	
Master's Thesis	1
Doctoral Thesis	1
Article	22
Book/Book Chapter	1
Conference Proceeding	5
Methodology	
Quantitative	10
Qualitative	11
Mixed	9
Data Collection Technique	
Questionnaire / Scale	10
Interview	14
Discussion	3
Diary	2
Reflection Report/Essays	1
Participants	
Pre-Service Teacher	19
In-Service Teacher	10
Both	1

As Table 2 shows, the studies conducted on teaching anxiety were mainly published as journal articles (73 %) while a number of studies were published as conference papers (16 %). Surprisingly, only 3 % (2) of the studies were done as Master and Doctoral thesis studies and 1 study was published as a book chapter.

Regarding the methodologies of the teaching anxiety studies, it is seen that quantitative, qualitative and mixed method approaches were almost equally adapted. 33% (10) of the studies utilized a quantitative approach, 36% (11) of them followed a qualitative approach while the percentage of the studies which adapted a mixed method approach was 30 % (9).

As for the data collection techniques, questionnaires and scales were found to be the most frequently used ones. Among them, nearly 70 % of the studies made use of Teacher Foreign Language Anxiety Scale constructed by Horwitz (1996, 2008). Interview technique was the second most common technique used to collect data from both pre-service and in-service teachers. While questionnaires and scales were utilized to investigate the level of anxiety, interviews were undertaken to find out the sources of anxiety. Additionally, focus group discussions, reflection reports, and diaries were the other qualitative data collection tools used in the studies.

Finally, it was found that the majority of the studies focused on pre-service language teachers (63%). 10 out of 30 studies collected data from in-service teachers (33%) while only one study included both pre-service and in-service teachers.

4.2. Level of Teaching Anxiety and Related Variables

The analysis of the findings shows that the studies primarily focused on two aspects of teaching anxiety, i.e. the level of anxiety experienced by teachers and some variables considered to be linked with it (see Table 3).

Table 3

Studies regarding Level of Teaching Anxiety and Related Variables

Themes & Categories	Related Studies
Level of Teaching Anxiety	
Pre-Service Teachers	Aydın, 2016; Can, 2018; İpek, 2016; Kunt & Tüm, 2010; Merç, 2015; Ngidi & Sibaya, 2003; Tüm, 2012, 2013, 2015
In-Service Teachers	Agustiana, 2014; Aslrasouli & Vahid, 2014; Aydin, 2016; Baltaci, 2017; Giovanelli, 2015; Kesen & Aydın, 2014; Machida, 2015; Ngidi & Sibaya, 2003; Öztürk, 2016
Related variables	
Gender	Güngör & Yaylı, 2012; Merç, 2015; Ngidi & Sibaya, 2003; Özturk, 2018; Paker, 2011
Age & Experience	Kesen & Aydın, 2014; Yalçın 2014

In terms of level of anxiety, the findings of the studies indicate that teaching anxiety is a common phenomenon experienced at various levels by both pre and in-service teachers. Several studies report that pre-service English language teachers feel more anxious in real classroom settings during the teaching practicum (Aydın, 2016; Can, 2018; Kunt & Tüm, 2010; Ngidi & Sibaya, 2003; Tum, 2015). While in two studies the pre-service teachers were found to experience anxiety at low levels (Merç, 2015; Tüm, 2012), in other studies they were reported to have moderate to high levels of anxiety and teaching stress both before, during and after their teaching sessions (İpek, 2016; Ngidi & Sibaya, 2003) especially when teaching young students (Can, 2018). In these studies, teaching anxiety was also found to have a debilitative effect causing a strong limitation on pre-service teachers' language teaching activities (Kunt & Tüm, 2010; Tüm, 2012). Moreover, the results highlight that the pre-service English language teachers particularly suffered from anxiety arising at times when they had to speak or write in English in classroom settings (Tüm, 2013).

Similarly, the studies which focused on in-service teachers' level of teaching anxiety show that they are also exposed to teaching anxiety at various levels yet at a moderate level (Kesen & Aydın, 2014; Öztürk, 2016). The reason for this was linked to the competency in teaching promoted by the length of teaching experience, which appears to be a strong predictor of teaching anxiety or stress (Giovanelli, 2015; Kesen & Aydın, 2014; Machida, 2015; Öztürk, 2016). As in the case of pre-service teachers, in-service teachers were also reported to have a higher level of anxiety in elementary school settings (Machida, 2015; Ngidi & Sibaya, 2003). Yet, some studies indicate that encountering a class of students for the first time particularly creates anxiety and self-doubt regardless of the school type (Agustiana, 2014; Machida, 2015).

Apart from level of teaching anxiety, a number of studies also investigated its relationship with some variables including gender, age and teaching experience. With regard to the interaction between gender and pre-service English language teachers' teaching anxiety, the studies reported conflicting results. Although the sources of anxiety were found to be varied, several studies reported that the female pre-service teachers were more negatively affected from teaching anxiety during their teaching sessions when compared to the males (Güngör & Yaylı, 2012; Özturk, 2018; Paker, 2011). Contrarily, Ngidi and Sibaya (2003) found that young male pre-service teachers felt more anxious especially while

teaching at primary schools. Yalçın's (2014) study, on the other hand, revealed no statistical difference between the teaching anxiety levels of the female and male pre-service teachers. A similar result was reached in a study by Merç (2015); yet, the study also showed that those pre-service teachers with high self-efficacy beliefs experienced low levels of anxiety regardless of their gender. Furthermore, the study also showed that the female pre-service teachers considered themselves better at managing students' behavior, which was found to be a factor lowering teaching anxiety in specific contexts such as primary schools.

Another variable which was investigated in relation to teaching anxiety is age. In two studies, the teachers between the ages of 21 and 24 were reported to have higher levels of teaching anxiety when compared to the other age groups (Kesen & Aydın, 2014; Yalçın, 2014), which can also be linked to teaching experience. As stated above, teaching experience is a strong predictor of low anxiety levels. The findings of several studies demonstrated that the novice teachers had higher teaching anxiety than the experienced ones (Aslrasouli & Vahid, 2014; Kesen & Aydın, 2014). Also, teaching experience was reported to increase teachers' self-confidence causing less apprehension (Baltacı, 2017).

4.3. Sources of Teaching Anxiety

The analysis of the studies in this integrative research review revealed that several studies scrutinized those factors causing teaching anxiety for both pre and in-service teachers (see Table 4).

Table 4

Studies regarding Sources of Teaching Anxiety

Themes & Categories	Related Studies
Sources of Teaching Anxiety	
Pre-Service Teachers	Agustiana, 2014; Aydın, 2016; Baltacı, 2017; Barahmeh, 2016; Coşkun, 2013; İpek, 2016; Klanrit & Sroinam, 2013; Kunt & Tüm, 2010; Merç, 2015; Merç, 2011; Paker, 2011; Sammephet & Wanphet, 2013; Tüm, 2012, 2013, 2015; Yangın Ekşi & Yılmaz Yakışık, 2016; Yoon, 2012
In-Service Teachers	Aslrasouli & Vahid, 2014; Aydın, 2016; Baltacı, 2017; İpek, 2016; Machida, 2015; Özturk, 2018; Özturk, 2016

Firstly, an overall analysis indicates that the studies investigating the sources of pre-service teachers' teaching anxiety primarily focused on teaching practicum phase of teacher education. With regard to this specific stage, a major source of anxiety was found to be the relationship the pre-service teachers maintained with their mentors and school principals at practicum schools (Agustiana, 2014; Coskun, 2013; Merç, 2011; Yangın Ekşi & Yılmaz Yakışık, 2016). Several studies also showed that being observed and evaluated in the classroom setting was a major stressor for pre-service teachers (Aydın, 2016; Baltacı, 2017; Merç, 2011; Paker, 2011; Tüm, 2013, 2015; Sammephet & Wanphet, 2013). Another source of teaching anxiety was reported to be teacher competency (Yoon, 2012). Different studies indicated that most pre-service teachers felt ineffective in language teaching due to communication apprehension or fear of speaking in the target language (Aydin, 2016; Baltaci, 2017; Barahmeh, 2016; Coskun, 2013; İpek, 2016; Kunt & Tüm, 2010; Tüm, 2012; Yoon, 2012). In this regard, Tüm (2013) reported that the pre-service teachers in his study were severely stressed when they needed to speak and write in the target language in their lessons. Not only perceived inadequacy of language skills but also those skills related with classroom management, time management and dealing with students were found to be among the leading causes of teaching anxiety. School type was also found to have an impact on teaching anxiety in that the pre-service teachers in several studies were stressed more in high schools due to difficult classroom management conditions (Barahmeh, 2016; Coşkun, 2013; Klanrit & Sroinam, 2013; Merç, 2011, 2015; Paker, 2011; Sammephet & Wanphet, 2013; Yangın Ekşi & Yılmaz Yakışık, 2016). Additionally, fear of making mistakes or leaving student questions unanswered made pre-service teachers anxious (İpek, 2016; Kunt & Tüm, 2010; Tüm, 2015).

As for the sources of teaching anxiety experienced by in-service English language teachers, the analysis of the studies provided similar findings to the ones reported for pre-service teachers. One primary source of teaching anxiety was found to be teacher competency. In the studies of Machida (2015) and Öztürk (2016), it is reported that the in-service language teachers had increased levels of anxiety while teaching those language skills in which they felt incompetent. The teachers reported feelings of teaching anxiety especially when speaking the target language (İpek, 2016; Öztürk, 2016). Similarly, lack of knowledge about the target language rules (grammar, vocabulary etc.) was recorded as another source of teaching anxiety (Öztürk, 2018; Öztürk, 2016). In relation to teaching competence, the teachers also felt more anxious when students asked unexpected questions about the target culture. Surprisingly, the

teachers also reported to be negatively affected by their students' evaluations of their teaching and use of technological devices efficiently in the classroom (Öztürk, 2016, 2018).

Finally, as previously mentioned, the findings of several studies show that teaching experience and teaching anxiety correlate negatively. Thus, while Aydın's study (2016) demonstrated that the inexperienced in-service teachers felt more anxious, Aslrasouli and Vahid (2014) and Baltacı (2017) documented that the experienced in-service teachers had low levels of teaching anxiety stemming from increased self-confidence boosted by time. Moreover, having good classroom management skills and more developed sense of self-confidence, which are all considered to be related with the length of teaching experience, the in-service teachers were reported to be able to control their feeling of anxiety (Baltacı, 2017).

5. Conclusions and recommendations

This integrative research review was conducted to understand the findings as well as the general aspects of the studies conducted on English language teachers' teaching anxiety. To this aim, 30 purposefully selected studies published between the years of 2000 and 2018 were analyzed systematically, which leads to the following conclusions.

To start with, the findings show that nearly two thirds of the studies have been done on pre-service English language teachers' teaching anxiety and specifically focusing on it during the teaching practicum phase of initial teacher education, which is understandable since teaching anxiety is defined in relation to classroom and school related activities (Buitnik & Kemme. 1986; Gardner & Leak, 1994). However, pre-service teachers go through different pedagogical practices all through their teacher education, whether it be in the form of microteachings or community service. Therefore, examining teaching anxiety levels of pre-service teachers starting from their first year of university education could contribute to our understanding of its sources at different stages of initial teacher education and how they could be controlled better. Such studies would definitely generate some recommendations for teacher education program/course revisions, and thus would also help evaluating current teacher education programs and practices. The relatively smaller number of studies on in-service teachers' teaching anxiety, on the other hand, suggests that it is a neglected research area. As the literature points out, however, it is a common phenomenon among in-service teachers as well. Thus, future research may look into in-service teachers' teaching anxiety more and how their anxiety interacts

with contextual variables such as school types, learner motivation, academic success, learner expectations, parental attitudes towards learning English, cooperation with colleagues and so on.

The findings also reveal that level of teaching anxiety, its likely relationship with different variables, and the factors causing teaching anxiety are the major research questions addressed by the studies, which yield more or less generalizable results. This allows the conclusion that the research seems to have ignored how pre and in-service English language teachers cope with teaching anxiety despite the fact that such knowledge would inform teacher education programs of the effective ways of providing support (Murray-Harvey et al., 2000). This gap can be addressed in future studies which may be descriptive in nature and identify the common coping strategies that teachers employ on a day to day basis, as well as adopt experimental designs that examine the effects of different coping strategy training programs.

The findings of several different studies included in this review confirm that teaching experience and perceived teaching competence are two major predictors of teaching anxiety. Therefore, starting from initial teacher education through the induction year, studying teachers' enculturation process into teaching longitudinally is required to determine potential changes in teaching anxiety level to better understand its relationship with teacher education and teaching skills development. Furthermore, future research could also investigate the relationship between teaching anxiety and other constructs such as teacher identity, teacher change, career motivations, job satisfaction, and burnout.

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Chapter 22

Studies in Intercultural Communicative Competence in Language Teacher Education

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Abstract

The aim of this chapter is to review some of the most relevant research on intercultural communicative competence in English language teaching published since 2000. Fifty-five studies have been examined and information regarding the methodology used, their research aims and themes, and their findings are briefly identified. Moreover, based on the analysis of the studies, three categories of topics of research have emerged: (a) studies on intercultural communicative competence in pre-service teacher training; (b) studies on intercultural communicative competence in in-service teacher training; and (c) studies focused on other major areas of research (i.e. theoretical foundation of intercultural communicative competence, materials/activities/strategies aiming at developing the learners' intercultural communicative competence and student-based research). It is hoped that novice as well as experienced researchers in the field of English language teaching, in general, and of intercultural communicative competence, in particular, might gain some useful information regarding the most recent research trends in their area of research.

Keywords: intercultural communicative competence; research aims; research methods; research findings.

1. Introduction

Intercultural communicative competence (ICC) may be broadly defined as someone's ability to understand cultures, including their own, and be able to employ that understanding to successfully communicate with people from a variety of cultural contexts. In other words, it is the "ability to communicate and interact across linguistic and cultural borders appropriately and efficiently" (Byram, 1997, p. 7) or even "the appropriate and effective management of interaction between people who, to some degree or another, represent different or divergent cognitive, affective, and behavioral orientations to the world" (Spitzberg and Chagnon, 2009, p. 7). Byram (1997) considers three possible

contexts in intercultural communication: (1) interaction between people using different languages, from different countries, where one individual is a native speaker of the used language; (2) interaction between people using different languages and from different countries, where the used language is a lingua franca; and (3) interaction between people from the same country but using different languages, one of whom is a native speaker of the used language.

However, any attempt to conceptualize ICC will face a variety of terminologies due to their different objectives. Terms such as cross-cultural awareness, or intercultural adaptation, have been commonly used. So far, no consensus have been reached as to a definition of intercultural competence (Arasaratnam, 2009; Fantini, 1999; Han, 2012). Consequently, Deardorff (2009, p. 403) called for a multimethod, multiperspective approach to assess intercultural competence.

Byram (1997) draws an important distinction between Intercultural Competence (IC) and Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC). While IC refers to people's "ability to interact in their own language with the people from another country and culture," ICC considers language teaching and focuses on "the ability to interact with people from another country and culture in a foreign language" (p. 71). In Byram's opinion, someone who has developed ICC is capable of building relationships while using the foreign language, communicating effectively, taking into consideration his and the other's needs and points of view.

In essence, research on ICC has aimed to construct models based on attitudes, beliefs and skills to measure successful intercultural communication (Byram and Morgan, 1994; Fritz, 2002; Lies, 2004; Spitzberg and Changnon, 2009). Byram and Morgan (1994) proposed a three-dimension model (knowledge, attitudes and behavior) to assess ICC in foreign language education. As for the 'knowledge dimension' Byram and Morgan suggested that in order to successfully communicate interculturally, students need factual knowledge (i.e. historical and geographical facts, facts about the society such as its ceremonies and institutions). Regarding the 'attitudes dimension', learners should develop positive attitudes towards language learning as well as towards the people from other countries. Finally, the 'behavior dimension' should not be limited to being polite, or following etiquette when engaging with people from other cultural contexts.

However, one of the problems in ICC is to describe how it is acquired. Even considering Byram and Morgan's (1997) three-dimension model, it would be somewhat straightforward and objective to teach facts or institutions of a

society (the 'knowledge dimension'). Research has shown that teachers tend to focus on factual information (i.e. traditions, holidays, housing, etc.) and not much on the sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences required for the intercultural speaker (Reid, 2014). However, the attitudes and behavior must be developed and changed in a way that goes beyond the language classroom. Moreover, teachers may be resilient to incorporating intercultural awareness materials even though research has pointed out the importance of developing teachers' and learners' reflective attitudes towards intercultural learning (Cortazzi and Jin, 1999).

Finally, Alptekin (2002) called attention to another central issue in the development of ICC which derives from the role of English as an international lingua franca in the 21st century. For him,

> "the conventional model of communicative competence, with its strict adherence to native speaker norms within the target language culture, would appear to be invalid in accounting for learning and using an international language in cross-cultural settings. A new pedagogic model is urgently needed to accommodate the case of English as a means of international and intercultural communication." (Alptekin, 2002, p. 63)

2. Method

The primary aim of this article is to identify and review current research on ICC in English language teaching and English language teacher education. More specifically, it intends to provide core information about the aforementioned studies, such as the research methodology used, the topics and objectives of the research, and the findings. In order to gather this data, it became necessary to determine the data collection sources, the selection criteria and the search items.

Firstly, two data collection instruments were used: the online library of education research and information Education Resources Information Center (ERIC) and the abstract and citation database of peer-reviewed literature SCOPUS. Secondly, the selection criteria for the inclusion of papers were established: the studies should be published in and after 2000; the studies should have be written in English; the selection should include scientific articles and conference proceedings published in refereed academic journals, books and book chapters; book reviews, letters, responses, commentaries, editorial materials an unpublished PhD dissertations should be excluded. Finally, within the ERIC database search, the following search terms were used in the following sequential order so as to narrow down the amount of results:

"intercultural competence" + "English language teacher education", "intercultural competence" + "teacher education" + "English language", "intercultural competence" + "teacher education" + "English". Due to the scope and limitations of this review article, the initial number of results (30,848) was narrowed down to 18 results. To supplement this search, the keywords "intercultural communicative competence" were used in the SCOPUS database, which provided 391 citations. In order to narrow it down, the keywords "intercultural competence" and "language teacher education" resulted in 141 citations. Once the *corpus* of analysis was identified (159 studies), access to the three main parts of the studies which are the focus of this review article, namely the research aims/topics, the methodology employed, and the findings of the study, were examined. Due to the limitations of retrieving such data, the final *corpus* of this review consisted of fifty five studies.

3. Focal Points of Research Conducted on ICC

Due to the importance of ICC in a fast-changing globalized world and, specifically, the crucial role it plays in teacher education and language teaching, the analysis of the selected *corpus* distinguished the following three main areas of research: (a) ICC in pre-service training, (b) ICC in in-service training and (c) other major areas of research, such as the theoretical foundation of ICC, materials/activities/strategies aiming at developing the learners' ICC and student-based research. Thus, the following subsections will briefly introduce the main topics and aims of research in each of those areas.

3.1. Studies on ICC in Pre-Service Teacher Training

The studies analyzed from several geographic educational contexts, namely Colombia, Chile, Finland, Germany, Poland, Russia Serbia, Slovakia, and Turkey, revealed a major concern with the best ways to develop and assess ICC in pre-service teacher training.

Some studies on how ICC was addressed described how some European universities prepared foreign language teacher trainees and to what extent teacher education programs focused on the integration of intercultural dimensions into language teaching and learning (Kizilaslan, 2010; Reid, 2014) or on how IC skills were enhanced after the implementation of a cultural and intercultural content program, for example, in a Colombian public university and in Turkey respectively (Ramos Holguin, 2013; Bektas-Cetinkaya, 2014).

Other studies adressed the importance of partnerships, of studying abroad, or of using technology-mediated instruction. Dooly (2010), for example,

reported on the anaysis of policy documents related to practice teaching in a consortium of nine partners which designed a joint teacher training graduate degree with two key axes: teaching practice abroad (TPA) and intercultural communicative competence. Saricoban and Oz (2014) examined whether such factors as studying abroad, gender and academic achievement revealed any differences in the use of ICC. Time spent abroad also called the attention of Czura (2018), who examined whether the length of time exerted any effect on teachers' beliefs about ICC and their awareness of how this construct should be developed in the language classroom. Finally, Smolcic and Arends (2017) reported on a course-embedded student partnership among pre-service teachers and international students studying English.

The importance of diversity in education and the assessment of cultural preconceptions and pedagogical beliefs regarding technology-mediated instruction and globalization were addressed by Leh *et al.* (2015), who analyzed the effects of online intercultural exchange (OIE), by means of a cross-cultural project between one American and one German university. The authors stressed the value of OIE as an integrated method for teaching language and culture as it also promoted familiarity in culturally diverse settings prior to an international field experience. The concept of IC and its use for formative assessment within international teacher education were also examined by Dervin and Hahl (2015), who designed a portfolio of IC (PIC) to help Finnish students develop IC, focusing on the students' reflexive and critical essays on five stories of meaningful intercultural encounters during a course on multicultural education.

Rodriguez (2015) based his study on the concept of deep culture, focusing on a critical multiculturalism approach to education, rather than congratulatory topics of surface culture. Therefore, the author explained that issues dealing with the loss of cultural identity, the difference between cultural assimilation and acculturation, social injustice, prejudice and social class struggles should constitute a relevant teaching content in the professional preparation of EFL pre-service teachers.

The trainees' perception of ICC in the L2 classroom was highlighted by Czura (2016). With the collaboration of undergraduate student teachers of English from three departments at the University of Wroclaw (Departments of English, German and History), the author examined whether that perception was influenced by their major fields of study.

To clarify the relation between intercultural competence (IC) and teacher training, Salazar and Aguero (2016) assessed the intercultural profile of

European student teachers based upon the criteria established by the Intercultural Competence Assessment (INCA) Project in which IC levels are ranked. Intercultural sensitivity was also measured by Demir and Kiran (2016) and Altan (2018). Using the Intercultural Sensitivity Scale (by Neulip and McCroskey), Demir and Kiran analyzed the effects of two variables: (a) intercultural sensitivity and ethnocentric level, and (b) subject matter studied at university on primary and secondary school teacher candidates. Altan's study was based on Chen and Starosta (2000). As a case study of assessment tools in a Serbian ICC course for pre-service teachers, Lazarecic (2017) reported on how different assessment strategies were selected and employed over a period of ten years. Special attention was given to the balance between the three ICC domains, the use of summative and formative assessment, and the consequent effect against the specificities of the teaching context and pre-service English language teacher profile in a monocultural setting.

Within the framework of challenging teaching and learning environments, Kasumagic-Kafedzic (2016) defended a critical pedagogy framework in which the integration of an intercultural approach would emphasize critical thinking, and empathy along with other aspects of ICC. To foster cultural knowledge and readiness to intercultural dialogue, Kudabayeva *et al.* (2017) focused their attention on the detection and diagnostics of future teachers' level of ICC. Moreover, Yucel and Yavuz (2017) reported on the design of an intercultural education course to assess its impact on pre-service teachers' perceptions of intercultural education in language classrooms.

Reflecting on the possibilities provided by intercultural educational processes, either in indigenous or in new immigration contexts, when seeking new ways of communicating that confront monocultural education, Quintriqueo *et al.* (2017) explored the challenges posed by ICC in teacher training in a postcolonial Chilean context. The authors stated that the preparation of new indigenous and non-indigenous teachers had failed to transversely implement an intercultural educational approach, with Chile keeping the hegemony of eurocentric monoculturality.

3.2. Studies on ICC in In-Service Teacher Training

A systematic analysis of recent studies on ICC in in-service contexts has identified two main areas of research: (1) studies focusing on approaches, courses or programs aiming at developing teachers' intercultural competence, and (2) identifying and assessing teachers' beliefs, attitudes and classroom

practices focusing on intercultural competence or intercultural language teaching.

Studies aiming at developing teachers' intercultural competence displayed similar objectives. Some of these researches were based on approaches, training programs, and international projects which proposed tools to be implemented so as to allow teachers to develop ICC and to integrate the intercultural dimension into their English classes. McCloskey (2012) suggested that an online teacher professional development approach may highly support the increase of teachers' intercultural competencies. Similarly, Yang (2018) proposed an intercultural communication competence approach and suggested some strategies for TESOL teacher intercultural identity development. Conversely, Conway, Richards, Harvey and Roskvist (2010) reported on a language teacher professional development program. The authors concluded that successful programs should be based on providing teachers with principled knowledge of intercultural language teaching. Bastos, Araújo and Sá (2015) implemented a training program with teachers of English in secondary schools aiming at the integration of the intercultural dimension into their professional practices, allowing the authors to devise a heuristic model of ICC and suggest ways to develop ICC through teacher education. Finally, Strugielska and Piatkowska (2016) presented the results of an international project involving EFL teachers from four European universities, aiming at developing their intercultural competence and incorporate those competences in their language classes.

However, the vast majority of the current studies on ICC and intercultural language teaching for in-service teachers examine teachers' beliefs, perceptions and practices. One of the main characteristics of these studies is the geographical diversity of the educational contexts, such as New Zealand, USA, UK, France, China, Turkey, Taiwan, Iran, Slovenia, Belgium, Thailand, which reinforce the international scope and relevance of this topic of research. Another important feature of these studies is the variety of the educational levels of the EFL teachers assessed, ranging from primary schools to teachers in higher education institutions. More specifically, Derin *et al.* (2009) aimed at identifying Turkish EFL teachers' perceptions and attitudes towards the intercultural approach. Similarly, several other studies aimed at identifying teachers' understandings of ICC and if or how those beliefs were reflected in their pedagogical practices: Sercu (2005) investigated Belgian EFL teachers' willingness to support intercultural aims; Young and Sachdev (2011) focused on and compared the beliefs and practices of English language teachers in the USA, the UK and France; Gu (2016) carried out a study on Chinese EFL

teachers' opinions and attitudes towards ICC and how these were put into practice in the classroom; Oranjie and Smith (2018) presented a study on New Zealand English language teachers' beliefs and practices following an intercultural language teaching approach. However, some other studies focused directly on recognizing teachers' classroom practices. Tolosa *et al.* (2018) investigated two teachers' practices which aimed at developing the students' ICC. Likewise, Dolinar and Mlekuž (2018) examined how Slovenian EFL teachers' employed their intercultural competencies into the classroom.

Several other studies contemplated the link between teachers' beliefs and their pedagogical practices. Aiming at helping EFL teachers develop their ICC, Chao (2015) identified the procedure for developing a self-assessment inventory of ICC. Following a similar approach, Cheewasukthaworn and Suwanarak (2017) offered three dimensions to examine Thai teachers' perceptions of ICC: their understanding of ICC; their perceptions on how to incorporate ICC into their teaching; and their views on how ICC may contribute to their students' communicative competence. Slapac, Song and Chasteen (2016) discussed teachers' perspectives and experiences regarding intercultural responsiveness and intercultural competence, among other constructs. Dealing with primary school EFL teachers, Breka and Petravić (2015) examined their intercultural competence profile and identified their stated beliefs and perceptions of their practices. Similarly, Bickley, Rossiter and Abbott (2014) also examined the ICC beliefs and practices of 70 ESL teachers, while Cheng (2012) conducted a comparable study focusing on Taiwanese EFL teachers' perceptions of intercultural competence and their self-reported pedagogical practices. Finally, a couple of studies aimed at recognizing English teachers' ICC and Intercultural Sensitivity (IS) and the possible relationship between these two concepts. Mostafaei Alaei and Nosrati (2018) explored Iranian English language teachers' levels of ICC and IS while Wang (2016) conducted a similar study with Chinese college English teachers.

3.3. Other major areas of research on ICC: theoretical background, materials/activities/strategies and student-centered research

Although most studies have been examining how ICC has been dealt with in pre-and in-service teacher training, there are also some key fields and topics which have deserved some attention from applied linguists, such as the theoretical background to support ICC, the development of innovative materials, activities and strategies to foster ICC in the language classroom, and

studies focusing on the learners' acquisition and development of communicative competence.

In a study based on the theories of ICC and Criticality, Parks (2018) aimed to define and contextualize the competencies of communicative criticality and *savoir se reconnaître* (awareness of otherness within self) to assess learners' development of intercultural competence and criticality in the US and the UK. Taking Weigand's (2010) Mixed Game Model, a theory which combines the abilities of thinking, perceiving and speaking, as the foundation for the teaching of intercultural competence in language teaching, Grein (2018) suggested a 'dialogic holistic model' which would integrate all aspects of language use. Furthermore, Strugielska and Piatkowska (2017) critically analyzed contemporary perspectives on ICC, examining the appropriateness of the theory of complex systems to investigate ICC based on a constructionist perspective. Based on theories of culture and globalization and focusing on a more general perspective of the impact of the intercultural approach on language teaching, Hermessi (2015) examines the cultural dimension in English language teaching and the challenges to curriculum design. Finally, Piatkowska (2015) compares and assesses four approaches (knowledge-based approach, contrastive approach, Communicative Language Teaching, intercultural communicative competence approach) to teaching cultural competence in foreign language teaching.

Another major trend in recent studies on ICC has been the research on the production and use of original and effective materials, activities and strategies in the classroom so as to foster the students' acquisition of intercultural competence. Nurutdinova *et al.* (2017) examined the sociocultural and intercultural factors which might develop ESL learners' communicative skills. Siek-Piskozub (2018) provided an example of intercultural activities joining language and intercultural teaching in an EFL class with Erasmus+ students in Poland. Likewise, Lwin and Marlina (2018) called attention to the international role of the English language in the 21st century and the consequences it brings to the English classroom as far as the learners' awareness of linguistic and cultural diversity is concerned. More specifically, the authors suggested the use of folktales to teach English as an International Language and provide teachers with a guiding framework to engage students in developing intercultural communicative competence. Orsini-Jones and Lee (2018) explored the linguistic, digital and critical intercultural components of global citizenship in order to help students engage in effective online interaction. Grounded on a web-based intercultural telecollaborative project between the UK and France, the authors analyze linguistic politeness and intercultural awareness in written

exchanges in internet-mediated communication and identify emerging politeness patterns. In a similar vein, Vilbar and Ferrer-Malaque's (2016) study aimed at training ESL teachers to develop interactive multimedia courseware through a syllabus that promoted reading skills, grammar and intercultural communicative competence. Aiming at assisting pre-school children in a multicultural and multilingual educational setting in Russia acquire intercultural competence, Gabdulchakov and Shishova (2017) provided teachers with materials, such as exercises, games and assessment tools so as to build the students' communicative competence to allow them to successfully participate in a multilingual and multicultural environment. Lastly, Wagner, Perugini and Byram's (2017) pioneering action research suggested how teachers should plan and execute materials and activities based on the theory of teaching and learning ICC in the foreign language classroom. Based on a collaborative project involving graduate students and foreign language teachers, this study bridges theory to practice by showing teachers how to integrate the intercultural component into their classroom activities.

However, a few studies focused directly on the students' attitudes and perceptions of their ICC. For example, Ware (2013) identified the pedagogical and conceptual factors within the integration of intercultural communication competence in an online exchange project between secondary students in the USA and Spain. Briefly, the author examined the students' online comments hoping to identify the subjects' ICC through their use of interactive intercultural strategies. Moreover, Lin and Wang (2018) aimed at examining the usefulness of using open educational resource videos in university EFL classes in Taiwan so as to improve learners' multicultural competence. In essence, the use of TED Talks videos with multicultural themes enabled students to use communicative strategies and develop awareness of multicultural encounters.

4. Research Methods used in ICC Studies

Due to the diversity of topics and aims, the studies analyzed made use of different types of methodology. Significantly, a great number of studies used quantitative methods through the employment of paper-based or online questionnaires and surveys. Some, however, made exclusive use of qualitative methods. In these studies, a variety of data collection instruments were used, such as interviews, field notes, classroom observations, interviews, debriefing conversations, written reflective pieces by teachers, documents, materials analysis, online interchange, the reading of short-stories, ICC measurement scales, testing and self-testing, diagnostic methods, portfolio, intercultural tasks and post-study open-ended questions.

However, possibly aiming at a stronger triangulation of data, a number of studies made use of mixed-method research design, sometimes using both quantitative and qualitative data, though other times making use of a plethora of data collection techniques, such as diaries, focus groups, questionnaires, observations, conversations, pedagogical experiments, interviews, and students' assessments.

On the whole, the studies analyzed exhibited a heterogeneous approach to data collection. Although there is a great amount of quantitative data collection and, to a certain extent, quantitative data, it is possible to state that the different aims of the studies allow for a more diverse approach through data collection.

5. Findings of the ICC Research

Most of the studies reviewed in this chapter produced significant results that help understand the current conditions of research on ICC. To begin with, some significant findings of the studies focusing on the training of pre-service teachers around the world will be briefly highlighted. Not surprisingly, such studies revealed the relevant role played by ICC in teacher education, not only in EFL curricula, but also in other disciplines (Czura, 2016). In fact, underpinned by varied perspectives and contexts in language and culture teaching, most of the research findings revealed that ICC broadened the understanding of cultural diversity and promoted readiness to intercultural dialogue in diverse settings, encouraging pre-service teachers to question preconceived ideas and adopt a more critical and reflexive approach towards the role of interculturality in the classroom (Yucel and Yavuz, 2017).

Reflecting on the establishment of partnerships, Dooly (2010) concluded that Colombian pre-service teachers started to interpret and contextualize cultural practices and raised their awareness of contextual complexities; in Turkey, however, despite the significant effects on developing cultural knowledge, intercultural skills and awareness, there was no significant attitudinal change in an EFL context. Salazar and Aguero (2016) showed that most European student teachers who participated in their research displayed an intermediate level of IC, which indicated the need to improve their IC training, highlighting such dimensions as behavioral flexibility or communicative awareness. Smolcic and Arends (2017) concluded that work with international partners stimulated both an introspective process and cultural self-awareness that may not have come about through traditional course readings and discussions, nor through field experience in public classrooms. Saricoban and Oz (2014) stated that there were no significant differences in male and female levels of ICC, nor any relationship between their ICC and their academic achievement. Before the strong positive correlations between studying abroad and levels of ICC, the authors concluded that pre-service students should be encouraged to participate in study-abroad programs and take elective intercultural education

courses. Czura (2018) defended that despite some minor discrepancies in the understanding of ICC between participants with different international experience, it was clear that future teachers linked this concept to the ability to communicate cross-culturally. However, regardless of the time spent abroad, participants seemed to lack practical skills to develop this competence in the classroom context.

Rodriguez (2105), defending the importance of deep culture, showed that participants in his study were able to build critical thinking and intercultural awareness when they read and talked about controversial topics present in the texts and related them to their own culture and life experiences. On its turn, Leh *et al.* (2015) reported that online intercultural exchange (OIE) reduced concerns before meeting face-to-face and that this process facilitated a deeper understanding of cultural diversity in education. Regarding assessment tools in a Serbian ICC course for pre-service teachers, Lazarecic (2017) concluded that further adjustments were needed taking into consideration the student profile and required outcomes for teacher education.

There were some research findings which showed that student teachers' perception of the role of culture in a language classroom was, to some extent, based on traditional knowledge-oriented approaches and that the major field of study affected their approaches to developing ICC in the classroom (Czura 2016). Demir and Kuran (2016) further concluded that teacher candidates' ethnocentrism level significantly differed depending on gender. Bektas-Cetinkaya (2014) stated that despite the significant effects on developing cultural knowledge, intercultural skills and awareness, there was no significant attitudinal change in a Turkish EFL context, hence suggesting systematic instruction in teacher education departments in the absence of study-abroad programs.

The design of national curricula was highlighted by Quintriqueo *et al.* (2017) who reported that the preparation of Chilean new teachers had failed to transversely implement an intercultural educational approach, resulting in the student teachers' insufficient understanding of the cultures present in the classroom.

Subsequently, some of the most relevant findings of the studies regarding ICC and intercultural language teaching for in-service teachers which examined teachers' beliefs, perceptions and practices will be briefly identified. It is interesting to note that several studies share similar findings as far as teachers' attitudes and practices are concerned. Gu's (2016) survey on Chinese EFL teachers' perceptions and practices revealed that although teachers are willing to deal with ICC in their classes, they are not so sure about the concept itself, ultimately not knowing what to assess and how to measure their students' ICC. In the same way, Sercu (2005) identified quite positive attitudes towards the

implementation of intercultural education. However, the author also found out that teachers tend to perpetrate the use of communicative competence approaches instead of moving towards the acquisition of ICC. Young and Sachdev's (2011) subjects also displayed positive attitudes regarding the relevance of interculturality in ELT. Yet, they stated that there is a lack of support mainly from textbooks and syllabi which fail to provide suitable approaches to promote interculturality. Oranje and Smith's (2018) findings also showed discrepancies between teachers' attitudes and beliefs and their practices; although teachers regard ICC quite positively they have not incorporated it into their classes. Finally, Dolinar and Mlekuž's (2018) subjects showed that teachers place particular emphasis on the acquisition of speaking, vocabulary and written skills, grammar and pronunciation, giving little relevance to intercultural competence.

A number of studies which examined the link between teachers' beliefs and their pedagogical practices also presented significant findings. Chao's (2015) construction of a self-assessment inventory of ICC for EFL teachers identified four dimensions of ICC in ELT: (a) affective orientations to intercultural communication; (b) capabilities for intercultural communication; (c) perspectives on ELT; and (d) employment of intercultural strategies in ELT. Breka and Petravić (2015) confirmed the teachers' positive attitude towards the development of intercultural competence although the results showed some inconsistencies between the subjects' beliefs as opposed to their self-assessment of their culture teaching experiences. Interestingly, Mostafaei Alaei and Nosrati's (2018) Iranian EFL teachers displayed high levels of ICC and Intercultural Sensitivity. However, other studies did not display such optimistic results, especially regarding the lack of classroom practices which aimed at developing ICC. In Cheng's (2012) study, Taiwanese EFL teachers' perceptions of ICC and cultural self-awareness did not play a significant role in their pedagogical practices, although most of them acknowledged the importance of intercultural learning. Similarly, although Bickley, Rossiter and Abbott's (2014) ESL instructors displayed a strong belief in the importance of ICC, they also stated that ICC was not systematically developed in their teaching practices. The Thai EFL teachers in Cheewasukthaworn and Suwanarak's (2017) paper had a general grasp of ICC, and believed that ICC could be incorporated into their teaching. Most interestingly, although those subjects viewed ICC as an important element in ELT, they did not think it had a crucial role in fostering learners' communicative competence. Finally, Wang (2016) suggested that overall, the higher vocational college English language teachers who participated in his study demonstrated Intercultural Sensitivity on an average level although far from what was expected in their teaching context.

Accordingly, a couple of studies focusing on learners' acquisition and development of communicative competence revealed quite interesting results.

Ware (2013) found out that secondary school students from Spain and the USA interacting online exhibited interculturally strategic interactional features which fostered their acquisition of ICC while Lin and Wang's (2018) Taiwanese EFL university students also displayed multicultural competence through the use of communicative strategies through the use of open educational resource videos (TED Talks).

6. Conclusion

The considerable amount of literature and case studies that have been produced on ICC all over the world forced us to delimit the span of time of our review work. Furthermore, article size dimension implied the choice of some fairly and accredited representative research studies that comprised the *corpus* under analysis.

In a globalized world under constant social, political, economic and cultural change, Intercultural Communicative Competence is of paramount importance; its perception and practical application have generated and will generate discussions as the world evolves. In times of increasingly diverse multicultural societies, ICC is vital for living and working in global or local contexts and, consequently, to understand and accept otherness. The corpus analyzed clearly revealed this preoccupation.

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Chapter 23

Studies related to own language (L1) use in ELT from 2000 to 2018

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Abstract

This article reviews 20 studies related to own language use in English language teaching and language teacher education. Thus, it investigates the studies published in nine prestigious journals from 2000 to 2018, and groups them under three categories: topic, method, and findings. As a result, this principled review indicates that (1) own language use is beneficial for general language learners and for teacher education programs, and (2) the number of mix-method studies are much higher than single-method studies.

Keywords: own language use; topic; method; findings; teacher education

1.Introduction

Teaching and learning a new language has been one of the main fields in educational sciences. Until recently, most of the literature were in favor of teaching and learning a new language monolingually without using students' mother tongue to explain, translate, or test (Hall & Cook, 2012). As stated by Hall & Cook (2013), for much of the 20th century, researches related to ELT have suggested that 'English is best taught and learnt without the use of the students' own language(s), leaving to the promotion of monolingual, English-only teaching' (p.7). As cited in Hall & Cook (2013), the use of learners' own languages in language teaching and learning was not acceptable by many ELT theorist and methodologists (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004; Cook, 2010; Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Hall & Cook, 2012). This approach was named as monolingual approach in ELT literature. According to Latsanyphone and Bouangeune (2009), Ellis (1985), and Auerbach (1993), who were the advocators of the monolingual approach, the use of L1 in the classroom may hinder L2 exposure of the learners.

On the other hand, the use of L1 has been a controversial issue in ELT literature and research. As opposed to monolingual approach advocators, Cook et al. (1979) states that ignoring L1 would reduce the cognitive level of a learner since learning the mother tongue not only consists of learning syntax and vocabulary. Similarly, Tang (2002) believes that the use of L1 at a moderate level can help learning and teaching of the target language. L1 might serve different purposes such as teaching grammar, giving instruction, motivating students, building rapport (Atkinson, 1987; Duff & Polio. 1990; Greggio & Gil, 2007). Harmer (2007) believes that L1 use has a significant role to foster interaction between teacher and students and construct a positive atmosphere in the classroom. Atkinson (1987), one of the prominent supporters of L1 use in L2 classroom, suggests some uses for L1 in EFL classroom such as eliciting language, checking comprehension, giving complex instructions to basic level, co-operating in groups, explaining classroom methodology at basic level, using translation to highlight a recently taught language item, checking for sense, testing, developing circumlocution strategies. However, the overuse of L1 might direct learners to translate most language items in L1, decrease the amount of L2 language input, deprive the learners of sufficient L2 practice (Atkinson, 1987; Cook, 2001; Nation, 2003).

The studies mentioned above indicate that researchers, theorists and methodologists cannot reach a consensus on L1 use in L2 class. Therefore, the main purpose of this article is to deeply analyze the research which was carried out on the use of L1 for teaching and learning English language and published in prestigious journals in the field of ELT since 2000 to 2018. Hence, this principled review primarily focused on research topics, methods, and results of the related studies in the field.

In most of these researches, students' own language(s) were referred as first language (L1), mother tongue, native language etc. In this research, all these terms are used interchangeably.

2.Method

In this article, reviewing the ELT literature in terms of the use of L1 is the main aim whereas detecting the gap in the literature and giving suggestions are the secondary aims. Thus, this article gives detailed analysis of the related studies in the form of a principled review. In this process, the related articles published in the prominent ELT journals were scanned in terms of research topics, methods, and results. As a result, related articles published in *TESOL Quarterly, The Modern Language Journal, World Englishes, Applied Linguistics, Language Teaching (published by Cambridge University Press), Social and Behavioural Sciences, Eurasian Journal of Educational Research (EJER), The Open Applied Linguistic*

Journal, Journal of International Education Research, Critical Inquiry in Language Studies were selected to be analyzed comprehensively. Some articles involved in this research were published in institute journals.

   To decide the articles to be involved in this study, these keywords were used to reach the related articles in the above-mentioned journals: "L1 use in ELT", "Own Language use in ELT", "Native Language in language learning", "mother tongue", "Own language use"+ "teacher education", "first language"+ "language learning" and "L1's role"+ "language learning and teaching".

 After the selected articles were reached, the main parts of each article (abstract, method, findings) were grouped and organized for systematic document analysis, and then were studied intricately.

2.1.Principal themes in studies related to own language use

   Own language use in ELT literature consists of two main domains: own language use in language learning/teaching and language teacher education. The articles involved in this review, therefore, are categorized under these two headings. The first group, which is more common in literature, is concerned with the use of students' L1 while they are taught English whereas the second group, though very limited in literature, is related to the use of teacher trainees' L1 in the process of becoming a language teacher.

2.2.Studies related to own language use in language learning and teaching

 There are ample articles in LT literature related to this section. Hall & Cook (2013), for instance, conducted a research on own language use in ELT: exploring global practices and attitudes, a survey of the extent to which, how and why teachers deploy learners' own language in English language classrooms around the world. Another research carried out by pdf4 aims at investigating whether learners in an ESL context would use their L1 as a meditation tool in performing complex tasks and, if so, what cognitive functions the L1 would serve. In a similar study by Bhooth, Azman & Ismail (2014), the role of L1 as a scaffolding tool in the ELF learning classroom was studied. The researchers planned to find out whether the use of L1 in the ELF/ESL classroom facilitates or impedes target language learning.

   In his attitudinal research, Yavuz (2012) interviewed ELT teachers to find out their beliefs about using L1 in language teaching and related the findings with the literature. Alshammari (2011) also dealt with the use of native Arabic in

English classes at two collages. The chief objectives were to search the purpose of L1 use and the attitudes of teachers and students towards the role of L1 (Arabic) in the EFL context. Similarly, Sarıçoban (2010) investigated when and how much native language (Turkish) should be used in the foreign language learning by using Pre and Post Conference techniques to observe the need and to prepare a survey to be answered by 96 preparatory class students. Jingxia (2010) focused on the attitudes of teachers and students to divulge whether code-switching to L1 (Chinese in this context) affects L2 learning process. In a more detailed research conducted by Paker and Karaağaç (2015), the purpose was to find out to what extent the instructors use mother tongue in their classes and to reveal the variables which affect the amount of mother tongue use. Mahmutoğlu and Kıcır (2013), in accordance with the previous studies, inquired teachers' and students' perceptions on using the mother tongue in EFL classrooms and when to use it in the classroom. On the other hand, Koçoğlu and Gaba (2015) examined the effects of the use of L1 on the internalization of L2 grammar structures.

In a study different from the above-mentioned studies, Sen (2010) investigated the use of L1 in Turkish ELT classrooms to focus on form and how teachers' cognition regarding focus on form derives the use of L1 in foreign language classrooms. Moreover, Brooks- Lewis (2009) aimed at exploring how to promote chance in foreign language education by using English-only despite learners' positive attitudes towards using L1.

Littlewood and Yu (2011) suggested strategies for teachers who wish to use L1 and target language without rejecting the positive impacts of using L1 in language classes. However, the main objective in this research is to offer a framework of principles for balancing L1 and target language use in the classroom. Lee (2018), Jin and Cortazzi (2018), Kaufman (2018) alternatively reviewed the L1 preference issue in language classrooms and provided some pedagogical implication such as when, how and why to use L1 and to what degree include L1 in language teaching.

2.3. Studies related to own language use in language teacher education

The debate over using L1 is also one of the concern in language teacher education, but the related literature is limited to a few studies. One of these studies, conducted by Kolesnikova (2005), discussed the use of English or Russian in English language teacher training and education. Another parallel research carried out in Turkey by Yıldırım and Mersinligil (2000) investigated whether L1 is applied by teacher trainers and trainees at the faculty of education, and if so, when and why.

Miri, Alibakhshi and Mostafaei-Alaei (2017) seek out reshaping teachers' cognition and practices concerning L1 use through critical ELT teacher education. Similarly, Macaro (2001) set out to contribute to the field by analyzing student teachers' codeswitching in foreign language classrooms by presenting related theories.

3. Methodology in studies related to own language use in ELT

As the nature of the topic requires, most of the studies in this review article are attitude and perception studies. Thus, they mostly employ mix-method research designs instead of using only qualitative or quantitative research methods to reach in-depth understanding of teachers' and leaners' beliefs and practices. It was also found that the number of qualitative studies outnumbered the quantitative ones. It can be assumed from this fact that using different research methods is a way of triangulation, and mix-method is more applicable for article publication about this topic. Since most of the studies are related to attitude and perception of the teachers and learners, using mix-method might have been a limited option for the researchers of this topic. Concerning the data collection techniques in the reviewed articles, questionnaires/surveys stood out among other techniques. Questionnaires consisted of close and open-ended questions, and the biographic data parts of the surveys played a crucial role since the related researches were conducted in diverse cultural settings. Biographic data provided information about professional contexts, qualification and experience which are vital in defining the real beliefs and practices of the participants.

4. Findings in studies related to own language use

The reviewed articles revealed important findings about L1 use in language teaching/learning and language teacher education. It can be deduced from the related articles that own language use is a controversial topic in ELT and teacher education. The corpus of this research pointed out that there are some theorists, methodologists, and researchers who are in favor of using L1 as well as others who are against using L1 (monolingual approach). The principled review provided valuable outcome in terms of when, why, how and to what extent to use L1.

4.1. The findings of studies related to own language use in language learning and teaching

Hall and Cook (2013) put forward some key findings for L1 use in ELT. Firstly, participant teachers reported using L1 to explain unknown vocabulary

and grammar when they consider this necessary. This finding is also in parallel with Polio and Duff (1994), and Cook (2001). The participants also stated that L1 use is important to build relationship and develop a positive classroom atmosphere. The findings of Hall and Cook (2013) also ascertained that the participant teachers had a positive attitude towards using L1 without feeling guilty, which contradicted with some studies such as Littlewood and Yu (2011). Another salient finding of this article is that own language use is more appropriate with lower level language learners. Participants in Yavuz (2012) asserted several reasons to use L1 such as physical condition of the classroom and education system which is based on preparing for the examination, and course material.

The findings of Bhooth et al. (2014) revealed that participants agreed on the usefulness of the L1 use ELT. They though that it facilitates explaining complex grammar points, defining new vocabulary items, expressing themselves clearly, checking comprehension, engaging in pair and/or group work.

Depending on the results of Paker and Karaağaç (2015) where the participants consisted of both language instructors and learners, it was suggested that mother tongue has some crucial roles in language teaching such as building rapport, making the topic/mean clear, explaining difficult concept or ideas. It was also noted that both the teachers and learners accept using L1 though they confirm the importance of using the target language more often.

Koçoğlu & Gaba (2015) used a quantitative research method and pre and post test data collection technique to investigate the effects of the use of L1 on the internalization of L2 grammar structures in Turkish university English preparatory school. This empirical research aimed at finding out whether adult learners who received instruction and feedback in their mother tongue achieve a better internalization of grammar structures than those who received the instructions in target language. The paired sample t-test results indicated that there is no statistically significant difference between the experiment and control groups.

The research conducted by Jingxia (2010) aimed to prove that teachers' codeswitching to the L1 plays a positive role in EFL classroom of Chinese universities by investigating the terms of the attitudes of the teachers and students towards, the pattern, the factor, the function and the influence of codeswitching to the L1. This mix-typed research reached a conclusion that codeswitching to Chinese was inevitable in almost all English classes of the university where the study took place. The results also supported the idea that teachers and students were in favor of codeswitching to L1 but occasionally.

Namely, most of the participants agreed on the benefits of codeswitching to L1 (which is Chinese in this context). Students' English proficiency, the distance between the languages, pedagogical materials, lesson contents and objectives, teachers' English proficiency, department policy on target language use and teachers' attitudes towards codeswitching are the leading factors that fostered codeswitching to L1 in this article. As the functions of codeswitching, teachers asserted that codeswitching to L1 is beneficial to translate unknown vocabulary items, to explain grammar, and to manage class.

Alshammari (2011) used two different questionnaires to understand the beliefs and ideas of both students and teachers in Arabic EFL class regarding the use of L1 in language teaching and learning. The results of the research indicated that the participants were proponent of L1 use to explain the meaning of unfamiliar words, to explain grammar points, and to clarify difficult concepts. It was believed that using L1 saves times, enhances understating, and makes learning more fruitful. The results were in parallel with the similar studies which suggested L1 use.

Through the analysis of the data collected through teacher interviews and classroom observations, Sen (2010) showed that the three teachers in the study supported the use of L1 to guarantee understanding, to organize student learning, and to raise awareness about the target language structures. Different from the other participants, one of the teachers stated that L1 use is a tool to reach more students, which implicated teacher-student interaction.

Sarıçoban (2010) employed a questionnaire developed as a result of Pre and Post Conference Techniques and related literature to find out when and how much L1 (Turkish) should be used in language teaching, and the appropriateness of L1 in language classes. The findings of this research indicated that has a place in language classes for different purposes such as explaining difficult concepts, defining new vocabulary, explaining the relationships between native and foreign languages, motivating students, managing the classroom, and translating upon request.

Mahmutoğlu and Kıcır (2013) investigated the L1 use perception of language teachers and students via questionnaire and interviews. Mahmutoğlu and Kıcır (2013) found that there are similarities and differences between the teachers' and students' perception in terms of using L1 in language teaching and learning. Although both groups admitted the advantage of L1 use, they differed in the frequency of L1 use. Students thought that L1 should be '*usually*' used in language classrooms whereas teachers believed that L1 should be administered '*sometimes*'. The ideas were the same for teaching and learning of different (sub)skills such as reading, listening, vocabulary and grammar.

In a classroom-based research, Brooks-Lewis (2009) organized lessons by including and incorporating learners' L1 after the researcher gathered overwhelmingly positive feedback from the participants about the use of L1 in their language learning process. These lessons were started with only L1 initially, and then L2 was integrated gradually. The main data was the perception of the learners after the lessons were covered. The findings were parallel to recent studies in this field in terms of lowering anxiety, providing effective learning environment and enabling learner-centered curriculum development. Also, the results revealed that inclusion of L1 might allow students to detect the differences and similarities between the target language and their L1, and lower affective filter, which provides a positive classroom atmosphere. It was suggested that this pre-organized L1-initiated language classes can be applied in other EFL classes regardless of the learners' background.

Littlewood and Yu (2011) claimed that teachers overuse L1 according previous reports. Depending on this assertion, Littlewood and Yu (2011) suggested a framework of principles for teachers to integrate L2 at maximum levels by bearing in mind the potential of L1 to support foreign language learning. The principles offered by this research to maximize target language use were respectively (1) the teacher's own determination and competence, (2) communication strategies, and (3) starting simple.

Performing classroom observations and teacher interviews, Forman (2015) investigated the self-perception of teachers depending on their use of L1 and L2. The findings indicated that teachers' performance, role, and affective states are shaped according to languages (English or Thai) they use in class. Participant teachers in the article emphasized that L1 use made the communication easier, and some stated that they felt more open and relaxed when they used the target language in class.

4.2. The findings of studies related to own language use in language teacher education

Kolesnikova (2005) gives detailed explanation about teacher training courses for English teachers in Russia: state supported teacher training courses which are held in Russian, and the alternative program organized by charity organization and held in English. Kolesnikova (2005) also pointed out that each of the two approaches has its advantages and disadvantages. Though there is no specific research process in this article, the explanation can be useful to gain an idea over the use of first and second language in teacher education programs.

The descriptive study conducted by Yıldırım and Mersinligil (2000) with teacher trainers and student teachers found out that teachers refer to L1 for distinct reasons caused by the aim of the teachers, the nature of the given course, the level of students, and the nature of the ongoing conversation in class. The findings showed that using the L1 (Turkish in this context) makes the learning and teaching process effective. Teachers should feel free to use L1 when it is necessary, but it should not give way to any habit formation on the part of students.

In the study conducted by Miri et al. (2017), the effects of teacher education program on teacher cognition and belief was investigated through critical teacher education program. The results indicated that before the teacher education program most of the teachers showed negative attitudes towards L1, rarely use L1, and discourage their students from switching to it. After the program, the teachers reshaped their views and they express more positive attitudes to L1 use.

Macaro (2001) analyzed the student teachers' codeswitching in foreign language classrooms. This research investigated the amount of L1 (English in this context) used by student teachers and it was revealed that student teachers used L1 very rarely, which was explained to stem from their theoretical knowledge not from their personal beliefs or experiences.

5. Conclusion

In this article, 20 studies related to use of own language in language teaching/learning and language teacher education were analyzed thoroughly. These studies were published in nine prestigious journals from 2000 to 2018. As the results of this review, some salient findings were gathered. Firstly, the reviewed articles published in these journals mainly focused on the L1 use and its role in language teaching and learning. Secondly, mix-method research outnumbered the quantitative and qualitative research methods in the review articles. Finally, the use of L1 has its place in language teaching to make learning and teaching process more effective, to lower anxiety, to create a positive classroom atmosphere, to teach grammar structures and new vocabulary items. The studies after 2000 showed that monolingual approach is not currently supported as much as it was before 2000.

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Chapter 24

Studies on ELF-awareness in English language teacher education

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Abstract

This chapter considers the research conducted on ELF-awareness and English language teacher education. It examines studies published in well-known journals and in edited volumes between the years of 2008 and 2018, and that focus on both pre-service and in-service English language teacher education. Bearing in mind the results, this review reveals that pre- and in-service teachers continue to be largely dependent on standard norms and seem somewhat confused in terms of the implications of an ELF-aware pedagogy. In-service teachers also seem concerned especially about their teaching context and the restrictions associated with it. However, it is evident that English teachers are open to new ELF perspectives and could be potential agents of action if they receive the necessary educational and insitutional support.

Keywords: ELF-awareness; language teacher education; research focus; research methods; research findings.

1. Introduction

The use of English as a global language in a wide array of contexts (e.g. academia, higher education, business, tourism) has led to a multiplicty of communicative scenarios with both native and non-native speakers of the language, each person with his/her own variety or accent. As a result, studies on English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) use have been multifaceted over the years. According to Seidlhofer (2011), ELF is "any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option" (p. 7). Due to this increased role of English as the common medium of choice, in recent years much research has likewise been conducted on the impact it may have in English language teaching (ELT) and learning, especially when it is taught/learnt as a foreign language (see

Guerra and Bayyurt, in this volume, for a comprehensive understanding of ELF and ELT). Accordingly, a number of questions have been raised with regard to how ELF and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) may be linked. Sifakis *et al.* (2018) mention a number of issues, such as, "Should we replace current EFL practices with ELF practices? Or should we look for ways to integrate ELF issues within EFL, to the extent that this is possible?" (p. 156).

If the aim is to achieve the latter option, English language teachers need to be aware of "the needs and wants of their learners, the target situation, the curriculum, the textbooks selected, (…) and then they should be autonomous enough to make the adaptations necessary for such an integration." (Sifakis *et al*, 2018, p. 157). In view of this, the notion of ELF awareness (Bayyurt and Sifakis 2015a, 2015b; Sifakis 2017) has appeared to integrate these issues within ELT. If the aim is for teachers to become ELF-aware, they need to be critically engaged not only with the research literature on ELF, but also reflect upon how the concept may be applied to their own teaching contexts.

As a result, English language teacher education plays a key role in guiding teachers how to critically reflect on ELF, at a theoretical level, as well as providing suggestions on how to elaborate instructional sequences, adapt lessons, tests and policies, at a practical level (Sifakis *et al.*, 2018). These issues should be made relevant in both pre-service and in-service English language teacher education programs. Even though in the first case participants have little or no experience in teaching, implementing an ELF-aware approach allows student teachers to explore their attitudes and reactions towards a decentralized view of language within the ELF paradigm. In the latter case, language teachers may seek ways to enhance their ELF awareness and explore the possibilities of incorporating an ELF perspective into their own teaching practices. Ideally, the aim should always be to take into consideration each local and teaching context, as well as the learners' needs and wants.

In view of these several issues, the aim of this chapter is to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research conducted on ELF-awareness in pre- and in-service English language teacher education. In order to do so, articles and chapters that have been published in prominent journals as well as in edited volumes within the field of ELT, between 2008 and 2018, have been taken into consideration. To this end, this review examines the related studies according to their focal points of research, research methods used and the results verified in both types of language teacher education programs.

2. Method

The aim of this study is to present a comprehensive view of the most relevant research conducted on the issues concerning ELF-awareness in English language teacher education in the years spanning primarily from 2008 to 2018. Special attention is dedicated to focus, research questions, methods, techniques, interpretations and, naturally, the results of the research. This up-to-date awareness of the work of others was carried out by examining key sources of publications, such as top-tier journals and the most prominent edited volumes in the fields of both pre- and in-service education.

Upon selection of the sources, these studies were analysed so as to identify their implications for theory, practice, and research and, at the same time, consider any potential gap in the literature. In order to do so, the selected research studies were addressed separately, depending on whether they focused for the most part on pre-service education or alternatively on in-service education. Therefore, one section of the chapter deals with ELF studies and in-service language teacher education, where teachers' attitudes are taken into consideration, while a second section deals with ELF studies and pre-service language teacher education, with a focus on empirical evidence regarding the incorporation of ELF in education programs.

Having evaluated the literature in the field, this review highlights the main research methods used in ELF-awareness and language teacher education studies, and presents a description of the main research findings on ELF and teacher education.

3. Focal points of the research conducted in ELF and language teacher education

This section presents the principal foci of studies conducted in the area of ELF in relation to teacher education. For the sake of this study, it is convenient to distinguish between developments in in-service and pre-service language teacher education. Although the focal points of research are relatively similar for in-service and pre-service teachers in some respects, we find it is advantageous to keep them separate. This is because the circumstances under which these two groups relate to language teaching are fundamentally different. The set of studies that focus on in-service language teachers usually seek ways to enhance language teachers' ELF awareness and explore possibilities of incorporating an ELF perspective into their English language teaching practices by taking into account teacher beliefs and teaching contexts. On the other hand, the second group of studies that focus on pre-service language teachers usually investigate the existing attitudes of participant teachers towards

a decentralized view of language, or bring an ELF component to their pre-service teacher education process to explore the reactions of pre-service teachers to the ideas within the ELF paradigm.

3.1. Studies on ELF and in-service language teacher education

The studies included in this section consist of a selected number of relevant research-based and theoretical or descriptive journal articles or book chapters. While a number of these studies concentrate on attitudes of in-service language teachers, others discuss the implications of ELF on language teaching practices or experiment with ELF-related teacher education modules so as to explore the outcomes.

Among the studies that focus on attitudes of in-service teachers, Sifakis and Fay (2011) explore the views of English teachers in the Greek context. With a particular focus on state school teachers, the researchers are interested in the international functions of the English language and the multicultural situation in Greece. The intention of the researchers is to understand how willing teachers are to change their existing teaching practices and adopt a more international and intercultural perspective. Dewey (2012), critically approaching the relationship between what ELF research has theoretically produced and how English language teachers have responded, investigates the pedagogical views and ELF awareness of teachers. The researcher qualitatively evaluates questionnaire data from a few respondent teachers and discusses potential ways of incorporating an ELF perspective in teaching practices. Dewey (2015a), in another study, evaluates the professional beliefs of experienced language teachers in English Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics Master's programs in relation to the ELF paradigm. With similar concerns, Blair (2015) conducts interviews with language teachers from different European contexts, in order to tap into the views of teachers about the global functions of English and their implications on language teacher education. In addition to this, Blair (2017), in another paper, reports findings regarding the attitudes of experienced language teachers towards ELF perspectives. His particular interest is on whether teachers' awareness of ELF perspectives and their attitudes are related to their professional development and teaching contexts.

A number of authors also discuss the relevance of ELF to traditional ELT practices in a variety of contexts. Snow, Kamhi-Stein and Brinton (2006) describe two English language teacher program settings in an ELF context. They aim to show how issues discussed within the frame of ELF are relevant to teacher education in two settings, Egypt and Uzbekistan, where language

needs are increased. Sifakis (2007) puts forward an ELF-based teacher education framework considering the transformative framework for adult education, as suggested by Mezirow (1991). He provides details about the framework which is based on a series of phases that aim to influence teachers' perspectives regarding language teaching. An alternative framework for English as an International Language (EIL) aware teacher education is likewise proposed by Doğançay-Aktuna and Hardman (2012, 2017). The authors propose three variables that interact with each other, namely the context of teaching, language proficiency, and the merging of thought and desires into pedagogical action, all three of which are interrelated with our understanding of theories and research findings in the area of EIL (Doğançay-Aktuna & Hardman, 2017). Sifakis (2014), once again, restates his previously proposed transformative framework that aims at educating ELF-aware language teachers by creating alternative perspectives for them. Sifakis and Bayyurt (2015) as well as Bayyurt and Sifakis (2015a, 2015b), based on the transformative framework, describe the phases of a teacher education project that attempted to put this framework into practice. Within the project, they provided education for in-service language teachers in Turkey and Greece, and encouraged them to develop and teach ELF-aware lessons. Sifakis (2017) later goes on to conceptualize ELF awareness as composed of simply three aspects (in terms of usage, instruction, and learning), and suggests that an English for Specific Purposes approach to teaching English could benefit ELF-aware pedagogy, since both approaches are learner centered and context dependent. Dewey (2014) also discusses the pedagogic relevance of recent theory and research in the use of ELF, particularly focusing on the implications of this field for language teacher education and development. Similarly, Guofang (2017) reviews how the EIL paradigm has evolved and progressed over time, as well as what implications this has for language teachers. She also draws attention to the challenges regarding the incorporation of EIL in language teacher education.

Finally, a series of articles in Matsuda's (2017) edited book describe - from many aspects including materials and procedures as well as potential challenges - various education modules focusing on ELF and intercultural communication in the form of graduate programs, teacher education courses or components of courses (Galloway, 2017; Figueiredo & Sanfelici, 2017; Kang, 2017; Marlina, 2017; Mora & Golovátina-Mora, 2017; Rose, 2017). Similarly Sifakis and Tsantila's (2018) edited book also discusses the several issues and challenges that ELF raises in the EFL classroom, and shows how EFL teachers can apply ELF for teacher education (Llurda & Mocanu, 2018; Sougari, 2018), as well as

classroom instruction (Kordia, 2018; Tantiniranat & Fay, 2018) and the development of teaching materials (Lopriore & Vettorel, 2018; Guerra & Cavalheiro, 2018; Siqueira & Matos, 2018), for instance.

3.2. Studies on ELF and pre-service language teacher education

The papers incorporated in this section once again include a meticulous selection of prominent research-based and theoretical journal articles and book chapters. Although the attitudinal aspect is still a research focus in pre-service teacher education as well as in in-service teacher education, empirical evidence regarding ELF incorporation in pre-service teacher education programs and the outcomes of such incorporation is more abundant.

A series of studies explore the existing knowledge of pre-service teachers with respect to ELF and the possibilities of enhancing their awareness of issues regarding global role of English. Suzuki (2010), in the Japanese context, explores the ways in which increasing awareness of trainee teachers about the diversity of English through an education module influence their views and pedagogical preferences. Dewey (2015b) investigates the extent to which novice teachers (who have mostly no experience) in a UK-based teacher certification program are familiar with concepts regarding ELF and the diversity of English. Azuaga and Cavalheiro (2015) also discuss the disadvantages related to traditional ELT practices and present results from a survey conducted in Portugal on pre-service language teachers in several ELT Master's programs in relation their language abilities and which language/culture should be taught in EFL classrooms. In the Greek context, speculating about whether intercultural experiences of trainee teachers influence their attitude towards ELF and language teaching, Sougari and Faltzi (2015) explore the perceptions of pre-service language teachers on the relevant issues. Similarly, Deniz, Özkan and Bayyurt (2016) examine the perceptions of pre-service teachers in a teacher education program in Turkey. They aim to shed light on the role of teacher education programs through the exploration of pre-service language teachers' views on ELF and their language teaching philosophies. Vettorel (2016) and Vettorel and Corrizzato (2016) report results of an ongoing study conducted with trainee teachers at a university in Italy. In both papers, the researchers aim to reveal what participants think about the WE and ELF paradigms, as well as the inclusion of these paradigms in teacher education programs. The participants were introduced to the WE and ELF concepts as a part of their education and they participated in discussions on an e-learning platform. These two papers both investigate whether, how and to what extent trainee teachers' pedagogical knowledge and reasoning about a WE

and an ELF-informed perspective in teaching practices might undergo a change after attending courses on relevant topics (Vettorel, 2016; Vettorel & Corrizzato, 2016). Cavalheiro (2016) also analyzes the results of a case study on pre-service teachers' views at the onset and end of several ELT MA programs in Portugal. The researcher discusses potential alternatives which can better respond to the needs of international users of English as opposed to traditional dominant ELT approaches. In parallel with above studies, Kaçar and Bayyurt (2018) also aim to explore the influence of ELF education on pre-service teachers' professional development, i.e. their viewpoints and practices within the Turkish context. This two-semester long case study adopts Bayyurt and Sifakis' (2015a, 2015b) ELF-aware teacher education framework as part of participant teachers' pre-service education program. Again within the Turkish context, Kemaloglu-Er & Bayyurt (2018) also relate the concept of ELF-awareness to teacher education and teaching, and describe how pre-service teachers have integrated ELF into their lessons. Similarly, Sakhiyya, Agustien and Pratama (2018) examine the knowledge base demonstrated within the pre-service English language teacher education curricula in the Indonesian context by using the framework of English as a Lingua Franca. Finally, some researchers share their reflections and experiences regarding pre-service teacher education courses or part of courses focusing on EIL issues (Various articles from Matsuda, 2017 such as Dinh, 2017; Hino, 2017; Kadri, Calvo & Gimenez, 2017; Selvi, 2017; Zacharias, 2017).

A number of studies relevant to ELF and teacher education in the literature have implications for both pre-service and in-service language teachers. İnal and Özdemir (2015) survey academicians in ELT departments in Turkey, and pre- and in-service language teachers regarding their views about the current global role of English and how it is relevant to language pedagogy. Lopriore (2016) aims to show how pre- and in-service English language teachers are presented with ELF perspectives through in-class and out-of-class practices, which include exposing teachers to samples of language used in ELF contexts and critically analyzing these samples. Llurda, Bayyurt and Sifakis (2017) discuss teachers' language awareness with a particular focus on ELF. They address language awareness in relation to the changing characteristics of English as a global language and accordingly teaching the language for relevant purposes. And lastly, Dewey and Patsko (2018) discuss the possibilities of bringing an ELF perspective in pre- and in-service teacher education, with a particular focus on teaching certification in UK.

4. Research methods used in ELF-awareness and language teacher education studies

Although there are instances of quantitative data collection methods in the corpus of this review, chiefly in the form of surveys, the great majority of the research studies examined are descriptive and rely on qualitative data collection methods. These include individual interviews, as well as focus groups and observations of pre- and in-service teachers. Both types of language teacher education programs in force in different institutions around the world were also examined from a qualitative point of view so as to facilitate a more comprehensive understanding of the research topic. In addition to this, there are, to a lesser degree, several mixed-method studies. In order to gain an insight into underlying reasons, opinions, and motivations related to ELF-awareness and teacher education studies, participants who took part in these studies were purposely selected in terms of their place in the teaching career ladder. Furthermore, their teaching practices and contexts were also taken into account.

Considering the particularities of the research topic, it is understandable that researchers might have been required to adopt a descriptive research design. Moreover, the fact that many studies have resorted to interviews, discussions or observations has helped to uncover significant findings and provide awareness of teachers' attitudes and beliefs with respect to ELF.

5. Findings of research on ELF and teacher education

The considerable amount of research in the area of ELF and teacher education has born some valuable insights that help us understand how current and prospective language teachers conceptualize ELF and how they respond to professional development opportunities regarding ELF/EIL. The overall findings of the studies listed here indicate that although pre- and in-service teachers display similar kinds of attitudes and pedagogic beliefs in certain aspects, there are also some differences between the two groups.

The studies that mainly focus on perceptions and pedagogic philosophies of in-service teachers usually reveal that teachers have positive attitudes towards the ELF paradigm and different varieties of English; however, they are somehow reluctant to cut the bonds with native varieties of English as the model to teach in the classroom. To illustrate, Sifakis and Fay's (2011) survey on Greek teachers of English reveals that although teachers are still prevalently under the influence of the traditional EFL paradigm, they seem to be open to international and intercultural practices as well, which indicates that teachers are aware of the increasingly international and intercultural characteristics of language classes. Similarly, Dewey (2012) collects data from a group of teachers

with different levels of experience through a simple questionnaire and follow-up interviews, and finds that the participant teachers seem to be generally familiar with the diversity and international role of English. However, their previous experiences of learning and teaching the language somehow prevent them from understanding the relevance of ELF in their teaching context, and they regard it as fanciful and less relevant in that sense. This is also revealed in the form of a discrepancy between what teachers report regarding their openness to ELF as a concept and their stance about normativity (Dewey, 2012). Blair (2015) reports, depending on qualitative data from in-service teachers with varying experience, that as they become aware of the current status of English, teachers realize how limited the scope of their previous pre-service education is, and how these programs usually fail to inform them about the global role and plural characteristics of English.

The findings from the studies that involve an ELF education component for in-service teachers have revealed that in-service teacher education is a promising way for teachers to become more ELF-aware and accordingly adjust their pedagogical practices. For instance, Bayyurt and Sifakis (2015a, 2015b) report that education on ELF awareness has influenced in-service teachers and encouraged them to reexamine their existing practices. However, the researchers also report that while some participants are more open to ELF perspectives and willing to reflect such perspective in their teaching practices, others are more skeptic (Bayyurt & Sifakis, 2017). Lopriore (2016) also reveals that teachers' views regarding the language and themselves as teachers change in response to ELF involvement in the form of being exposed to language samples and reflecting on ELF issues. Similar findings are also reported by Blair (2017) who observes that critical thinking on current global role of English and a motivation to take action can lead to changes in the attitudes of experienced language teachers. On the other hand, Dewey and Patsko (2018), depending on observations regarding their attempt to integrate a session on ELF for tutors in a condensed teacher certification program, conclude that just one session is inadequate to influence the tutors' views and it is preferable to present such education to teachers at an earlier point of their training.

Related to the views and beliefs of pre-service language teachers, the research has also showed that pre-service teachers are usually aware of the lingua franca role of English and they welcome the existence of different varieties of English. However, they usually have difficulties in reshaping their pedagogical philosophy or feel restricted in terms of how to implement these ideas. For instance, Suzuki (2010) finds that although it is possible to raise trainee teachers' awareness regarding ELF/EIL, the extent to which the instruction

leads to a change depends on trainee teachers' former education and life experiences. The researcher also observes that the participant teachers were reluctant to incorporate the diversity of English in their teaching, which, as the researcher speculates, could be because they were unsure how to do so, since the education they had received did not inform them on ELF pedagogy (Suzuki, 2010). İnal and Özdemir (2015), exploring the views of pre-service teachers, in-service teachers and teacher educators in Turkey regarding ELF and its place in teaching, reveal that when compared to the other two groups, pre-service teachers are the most acceptive of ELF perspectives and their applicability in language teaching practices. Deniz, Özkan and Bayyurt (2016) also find that pre-service teachers usually accept the current realities of English language; nevertheless, they seem to be attached to native norms in their perspectives and pedagogical practices. Similar findings are also reported by Cavalheiro (2016) who found that teacher trainees' understanding of ELF increased as a result of a year of education in pre-service MA programs in which topics such as culture and international communication are dealt with; however, their convictions with regard to language teaching practices remained mostly native centered. Another study that incorporates ELF education is by Vettorel (2016). Vettorel (2016), also reported in Vettorel and Corrizzato (2016), observes that when trainee teachers' awareness of ELF is increased, they adopt a more critical perspective. The researchers observe that such perspective is reflected on the practices of teachers, for example, when evaluating teaching materials. The researchers also report that the participant teachers were mostly worried about the following regarding ELF-aware pedagogy: i) the fact that not many varieties can be presented, ii) learners can get confused with multiple varieties, and iii) assessing becomes obscure. Kaçar and Bayyurt (2018) find that pre-service teachers' views regarding concepts such as native speaker, standard variety and language errors have changed as a result of the ELF-oriented components integrated in their pre-service education courses, and they have become more open to concepts such as multilingualism and intelligibility. Moreover, some trainee teachers were able to deliver ELF-aware lessons in their practicum; however, some others found it difficult to claim ownership of English and to bring an ELF perspective in their teaching practices. On the other hand, Dewey (2015b) reveals that the novice teachers in a UK-based teacher education program had little familiarity with the terms such as ELF or WE and various varieties of English such as Indian English or Singlish, although being aware of the global status of English is explicitly accepted to be important in the program statements. The teachers demonstrated having little knowledge regarding the global characteristics and diversity of English, and its potential educational implications (Dewey, 2015b).

Finally, depending on the large amount of research reported in Matsuda (2017), the education components on ELF described or experimented by various researchers show that these components usually incorporate topics such as global spread of English (Figueiredo & Sanfelici, 2017; Hino, 2017; Selvi, 2017), diversity of English (Rose, 2017; Mora & Golovátina-Mora, 2017; Kang, 2017, Hino, 2017), intercultural communication (Rose, 2017; Kadri, Calvo, & Gimenez, 2017; Figueiredo & Sanfelici, 2017; Mora & Golovátina-Mora, 2017; Kang, 2017), communicative strategies in EIL interactions (Galloway, 2017; Rose, 2017), and pedagogical implications (Dinh, 2017; Zacharias, 2017; Marlina, 2017; Selvi, 2017). These studies also report some common challenges faced along the way such as time constraints that hinder coverage of contents (Zacharias, 2017; Rose, 2017; Kadri, Calvo, & Gimenez, 2017; Figueiredo & Sanfelici, 2017), persisting view of standard varieties as the model (Galloway, 2017; Kang, 2017; Zacharias, 2017), and limited materials and opportunities for pedagogical instruction (Rose, 2017; Marlina, 2017).

Overall, both pre- and in-service language teachers still seem to be largely depended on standard norms in their beliefs and practices due to their previous language learning experiences (Sifakis & Fay, 2011; Dewey, 2012; Deniz, Özkan, & Bayyurt, 2016), and both groups appear to be somewhat confused when it comes to implications of ELF in pedagogy due to a lack of previous education on the relevant issues (Blair, 2015; Deniz, Özkan, & Bayyurt, 2016). Furthermore, in-service teachers differ from pre-service teachers in that they have an additional concern about their teaching context, i.e. expectations of other stakeholders, and they seem to feel restricted by it (Bayyurt & Sifakis, 2015a). On the other hand, it is also clear that teachers are open to the new perspectives induced by ELF, and they could be potential agents of action if they are provided with educational and institutional support.

6. Conclusion

This chapter focuses on documenting the state of the art with respect to ELF-awareness and language teaching education studies by reviewing the most relevant research published in an elected collection of renowned journals and volumes edited in the past decade. Accordingly, this review reveals a number of significant findings. To begin with, results show that English language teachers studying or working worldwide are seemingly receptive to the idea of new ELF perspectives. Nonetheless, both pre- and in-service teachers not only still acknowledge dependence on standard norms but are also, to some extent, uncertain about the potential implications of an ELF-aware pedagogy. Moreover, in-service teachers reveal concern regarding their specific teaching

context as well as the restrictions they might be faced with. Even so, providing they are given the required educational and institutional support, these teachers may take on the role of agents of action in reshaping pedagogical practices from an ELF-aware perspective.

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Chapter 25

Language Teacher Education and Standardization: A Review of Related Articles

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Abstract

This article reviewed research on language teacher education and standardization. Although there are few studies in this specific area of study, some relevant articles were reached and perused. For this purpose, the latest studies (N=15) published in distinguished journals were examined to identify the general inclination in language teacher education and standardization under three categories: topic, method, and findings. This qualitative analysis revealed valuable data on the mentioned categories. As a result, this systematic review indicates that (1) there seem to be few studies related to the standardization of language teacher education departments, and (2) the existing research studies, although not adequate, bear both similar and different characteristics. The results show that standardization is a complex and non-linear process that needs to be examined with more practical and intelligible elements. In addition, teachers should be involved in the processes of standardization so that micro teaching and in-service training could serve ad hoc purposes. Each element in standardization needs to be operationally defined so as to avoid the problem of vagueness in praxis. Pluralistic and pragmatic views regarding standardization in language teacher education should be adopted to reinforce the efficiency and effectiveness of this process. Besides, results obtained in applied linguistics need to be followed up and updated in standardization process. Experiential aspects and practical elements need to be taken into consideration so that fuzzy and obscure definitions of standardization in language teacher education can be avoided.

Keywords: teacher education; pre-service teacher education; language teacher education; systematic review; standardization

1. Introduction

Standardization in education is comprised of a range of characteristics that extensively determine the quality of educational services and productions that educational institutions put forth. Educational institutions have a number of facilities which provide great support for standardization. These facilities may be listed as:

- Efficiency of goals, requirements, and services.

- Efficiency of staff, material, and facilities.

- Coordination and efficiency of missions and services.

The standards in teacher education are closely related to the quality of education faculties as well as having an effect on both the required proficiency level of the students and the quality of the data used to upgrade the students (Zenor, 1989). The idea of standardization and the development of the standards were firstly mentioned at a science congress in the United States in 1869. While the significance of developing the standards of teacher education was emphasized in this congress, that the definition of teaching occupation would be more crystal clear, and more effective teaching methods would arise through standardization were stressed in this congress. Following the conference, a list of standards related to teaching profession was developed by means of developing measures (Edelfelt & Raths, 2004). Following this progress, accreditation of the institutions of teacher education was added to the agenda in terms of the development of the standards of teacher education programs and the convenience of these programs to the standards, with the aim of developing the quality and the productivity of the institutions educating teachers. Richardson (1994), who made the first conceptualization of standardization accepted by the overall authorities, reported two different dimensions of standardization. The first dimension is that standardization is a model or a sample designated by an authority, a tradition, or a shared understanding that requires to be observed. The second dimension is that standardization is a proper and adequate quality level for reaching a specific goal. For Basinger (2000), program standards in teacher education describes what novice teachers need to know and do in a specific time period. On the other hand, in Australia, the standards were initially seen as an indicator of the expectations of authority and bureaucracy from teachers, but afterwards, it was improved to determine the nature of learning, to construct the complications in learning, and to increase the efficiency of learning process (Sachs, 2003). The reason why standardization in teacher education is considered highly important is that standards are seen as teacher behaviours that ensure to accomplish the aimed performance and affect the novice teachers. Consequently, it is required to adjust program standards based on the aims and expected qualities indicated in the teacher education programs. The aim of this is that standards in teacher education includes such teacher competencies as acting consciously and as required in any unexpected situations in the education process, being able to work with culturally and socio-economically diverse students, and being more effective in the classroom setting (Basinger, 2000).

Some international organizations develop standards in education fields. One of them is The European Council of International Schools (ECIS) which is among the most famous standard developers. This institution ensures that all the member schools correspond to the specified conditions of their own native countries.

For this reason, it continuously develops standards for each field and step of education. ECIS developed some standardization areas for mainly teacher education field (ECIS, 2003):

- Standards for philosophy and aims

- Standards for educational programmes

- Standards for management

- Standards for staff

- Standards for student assistance services

- Standards for sources

- Standards for school life

Determining the standards structured on providing the required quality in teacher education may not always display the desired outcomes. Standards for instance may not solve such matters as organizational problems of institutions, educational programs that do not meet the requirements, unbalanced dispersion of the sources, and lack of social support for adults and youngsters. As a result, standards have to be the symptoms of Professional development rather than practices obliged by authorities. Standards should be flexible based on the conditions inside and outside the school rather than being stable. This flexibility should represent the following characteristics (Sachs, 2003):

- Standards should be based on improving teacher performance.

- Standards should be developing the skills of teachers in attaining and utilising data.

- Standards should be flexible enough to adapt to the occupational development and changes of teachers.

Accreditation and quality inspection are not only quantitative measures that display only standards, but also qualitative measures that encourage institutions. Working by oneself, establishing own rules, and self evaluation may be the compounds of the natural process at educational institutions. Within this context, it is claimed that teacher education programmes would be more productive and institutions of teacher education would be more qualified (Colleen, 1999). With the aim of providing the required quality in teacher education and enhancing the performance of novice teachers, new standards are constantly being developed

by the establishments that accredit the institutions of teacher education in accordance with economical, political, scientific, technological, and social changes and developments in society. Standards are formed in a system which is based on improvements. Accordingly, the standards which are not renewed may be insufficient in corresponding to changes and improvements. As for accreditation, it is formed in consequence based systems (Basinger, 2000).

Standards in teacher education are realized through cooperation among pre-service teachers, educators, parents, employers, and institutions. These developed standards are also utilized to evaluate the inputs and outcomes. Thus, standards which are the indicators of quality in accrediting the efficiency of an education program in preparing a novice teacher for the profession are used. Moreover, with the aim of providing quality in teacher education, national and international institutions require developing standards in the following aspects (Colleen, 1999):

- Clearly defined educational goals

- Positive output levels

- Conditions supplying constant development

Within this framework, standards are a group of criteria or specific indicators that are utilised to totally determine whether the individually or institutionally designated goals are achieved or not. Since the realization level of the assumed objectives at the end of the education process depends on the efficiency of educational activities, standards represent criteria related to the education process and the adequacy of the compounds of this process (Ann, 2002). In teacher education, the benefits of program standardization for teachers are as follows (Green, 2004):

- Helps determining and developing the content of the education program.

- Creates a mechanism for quality assurance.

- Forms criteria to evaluate the performance of new teachers.

- Ensures the success of the education process.

- Forms the pre-condition of performance evaluation.

- Determines the capabilities of teachers and managers.

Abdl-Haqq (1995) investigated the practices of developing standards in the USA by means of a review of the related studies. As he stated, there have been plenty of studies related to reform efforts in the last decade. The main principle of these practices was to increase the students' success and to provide the trust of the

public for education. For this aim, a number of projects were conducted and specific model standards were developed in the fields of science, maths, history, art, geography, and foreign languages. Besides, during the last decade, a big number of studies have firmly judged the conventional attitudes for second language teacher education and have demanded a reconceptualization of the field (Schulz, 2000) which called for the necessity of founding specific standards for the area of language teacher education. Consequently, effective teacher education models could be structured (Guntermann, 1993). Developing standards in teacher education institutions has been the focus of a number of review studies, but it seems that studies inquiring the standards in language teacher education have not been conducted decently. Additionally, regarding the foci of the previous review studies, not many of them particularly investigated the language teacher education standards. To fill this inadequacy in the related research area, the current review study aims to analyze research trends and issues in language teacher education and standards and offer suggestions for further research.

1.1. Aim and Significance of the Study

A growing number of studies have criticised the traditional views of foreign language teacher education and have urged for reconceptualization of the field for which specific standards need to be established. Thus, based on the growing interest in the mentioned issue, systematic review conducted here is noteworthy in incorporating pivotal studies in pre-service language education and standards from 2000 and onwards and suggesting implications for new venues of research. Based on the significance and aims of the study, the following research questions guided the systematic review:

> 1. What is the recent aptitude for pre-service teacher education and standards in terms of research topics, methods, and results?
>
> 2. What are the recent research trends and issues in pre-service teacher education and standards?

2. Method

Reviewing the related literature with respect to pre-service EFL teacher education and standardization is the main objective in this study while identifying the gap in the literature and giving suggestions are the secondary objectives. Therefore, this study provides an intricate analysis of the related articles in the form of a literature review. In this review of the related literature, the studies published in the high-profile foreign language journals were browsed with regard to research topics, methods, and results. Consequently, related studies published in *Foreign*

Language Annals, The International Journal of Research in Teacher Education, The European Journal of Social and Behavioural Sciences, Review of Research in Education, The Modern Language Journal, Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, Lang. Teach. by Cambridge University Press, Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics, RELC Journal, International Journal of Human Sciences, Journal of education for Teaching, Southern Cross University Library, The Language Learning Journal, and *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy* were opted to be evaluated thoroughly.

In order to determine the articles for the review, specific keywords were utilized to obtain the required articles in the above-mentioned journals: "standards in teacher education", "standardization in education faculties", "pre-service EFL teachers and standards", "developing standards for pre-service teachers", and "standards in teacher education".

Upon choosing the required studies, the main sections of each study (abstract, method, findings) were sorted and constructed for systematic document analysis, and then were elaborately examined. That's to say, this article studied the function of the reached documents as a data source and discussed the document analysis procedure in the context of definite research experiences, besides providing a source of suggestions for the related subjects.

2.1. Studies related to EFL teacher education and standards

The number of studies related to EFL teacher education and standards in the literature is extremely narrow because the chaotic nature of standardization in language teacher education renders the issue impractical. In addition, developing sound and practical methodology in this field also remains problematic because standardization entails constantly being updated based on the results in the filed of applied linguistics that often presents nee findings. Without tracking these findings, it seems unlikely to develop a practical standard in language teacher education. Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008) insistently raises the concern regarding complex systems and chaos in this field. However, the following data represent the theme and content of the hardly attained articles.

Vélez-Rendón (2002) conducted a research on second language teacher education which is a review of the related literature. She tried to outline the "state of the art" of second language teacher education by means of a systematic review of related literature and displayed an analysis of present views on the field's knowledge base. Moreover, she hinted on the issue of standardization by stating the requirement of establishing standards for language teacher education so that adequate teacher education models may be produced. In line with the study done by Vélez-Rendón (2002), in her study, Allen (2002) also inquired teachers' pedagogical beliefs and the standards for foreign language learning. She

inquired the views of foreign language teachers in order to find out the extent to which their beliefs are conforming to main constituents controlling the standards for foreign language education. Moreover, she also inspected foreign language teachers' awareness of the standards and supplied background data that was employed to diagnose determinants that affect teacher beliefs. That's to say, she aimed to show a direction for teacher education. Another study done in Turkey shows that standardization is important, because lack of standardization renders this issue more complicated. While examining the language proficiency level of pre-service English language teachers in Turkey, Çetinavcı and Yavuz (2010) also touched the issue of standards in foreign language learning and teaching from the viewpoints of the authorized standardization institutions. A similar concern was raised by Van Trao and Ngo (2015) who in their study examined EFL teachers' responses to the state language competency standards imposed on teachers. The study adopted a matrix of interrelated challenges contributing to the teachers' dilemma in their English proficiency development, while also hinting on plans that were made to "standardize" teachers' language competency.

In his research, Bunch (2013) suggested that those responsible for educating teachers cannot wait until such research is conducted to decide about what directions to follow to prepare teachers for EFL, specifically given the speed with which employment of the new accepted standards is moving. He also pointed out the significance of thinking questions about the pedagogical language knowledge that determines any likely way of educating teachers for working with EFL students and the extent of conformity between that knowledge and the language needs of EFL students. He, also adds that another question may also arise when the students involved in the kind of teaching called for by the common standards.

In his study, Donato (2009) mentioned the situation of teacher education in the age of standards of professional practice. Besides, he described what standards granted for teacher education programs and for the students, and what procedures for educating teachers stem from standards-based teacher education, either explicitly or implicitly.

Crandall (2000) probed language teacher education in his study and stated that language teacher education is a segment of teacher education, and most of the movements in contemporary language teacher education evolve from the procedures in general teacher education. He also mentioned that new teacher-evaluation schemes arise from the standards movement.

In his study, Glisan (2012) had a concise look at the structure of the research that has been conducted on the standards. She added that national standards for foreign language teacher education is still at elementary level even in the US. The

foreign language educational policy or even the classroom practices do not follow the research on the standards in the country. In a way, the language teaching profession is still in the primary steps of explaining the standards.

Fillmore and Snow (2000) state that language teachers should reach a pile of data in order to act properly in the classroom. The competencies asked by diverse state approved standards add up to a quite extensive list indeed. As this list is highly extensive, language teacher education faculties do not often spend time on important matters, rather they use a checklist technique to refer to different required skills of teachers. This study shows that a practical guide needs to be developed for language teachers so that they can be familiar with each element in standardization.

Kirkgöz (2007), in her study, evaluates the developments of English language teaching, and detects modifications and overall changes in English language teaching policy in Turkish education system. While inquiring the development of foreign language education in Turkey, she emphasizes some movements such as historical acceptance of English in Turkish education system and its expansion all over the country; employment of a major ELT curriculum reform in 1997; and several changes in ELT in 2005. These movements were all conducted as part of a state policy, with the aim of joining the EU, trying to standardize ELT through Europe Union standards. Certainly, standardization practices in language teacher education was affected by these movements. In recent years, considerable progress has been witnessed in applied linguistics whose results are quite varied. Standardization is a complex process because applied linguistics constantly produces new results. Therefore, these results need to be constantly updated in standardization process. Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008) note that complex systems are prevalent in second language acquisition. Therefore, linear approaches cannot be adopted in applied linguistics. Thus, it can be said that chaotic nature of second language acquisition renders standardization process an enigma (Larsen- Freeman, 1997, 2002) because standardization has been a buzzword in recent decades. However, standardization can be approached within the paradigm of critical thinking discipline (APA, 1990; Facione, 1990) because culture also plays a pivotal role in identifying the elements of standardization. Culture always challenges standardization process.

Yüksel (2014) mentions the effects of standardization in language teacher education on teachers' language proficiency. She also hints on the fact that with the educational reform movement in Turkey in 1999, teaching English as a foreign language program was reconstructed. With this reform, a standardization and uniformity in teacher education were developed and practiced. Specifically, as part of the integration movement in the EU, the Turkish Ministry of National Education started an extensive project for the reconstruction of education in

1999. This project confirmed and supported the national language teacher standards in 2006. However, the problem is that a pluralistic view has not been adopted in this field because experiences of teachers were hardly taken into consideration. Standardization has been denoted only as a policy of the Turkish Ministry of National Education. However, local problems and practices may be varied owing to the diversity and variety of the context in Turkey because schools in Turkey do not have the same equal conditions. Therefore, locality needs to be taken into consideration while standardizinig teacher education.

Seferoğlu (2006), in her research, inquired pre-service teachers' reflections on some constituents of an English teacher education programme employed in Turkey. While indicating the concerns of pre-service EFL teachers' concerns on not having enough opportunities for micro-teaching and practice teaching, she mentioned the significance of standardization in language teacher education. Similar concerns have also been addressed in other studies because lack of equal opportunities hardens the problem of standardization. Thus, experience and usage-based models need to be improved to serve better.

P. B. Hudson, Nguyen, and S. Hudson (2008) express that EFL education has caught great interest all over the world and has aroused the need of reforms for preservice EFL teachers' education for developing standards for teaching. So, EFL preservice teachers have been required to get prepared for meeting such standards. However, fulfilling these standards in practice may encounter some problems unless teachers' views are consulted. A more sound and practical action research can be used to understand the nature of standardization. Thus, reforms in language teachers education should approached with care so as to fulfill standardization.

While investigating the foreign language teachers' language proficiency and their language teaching practice, Richards, Conway, Roskvist, and Harvey (2013) mentioned the first standard for the official preparation of foreign language teachers in the USA as that teachers need to own a high level of language competency and comprehend how the target language is arranged. Semantic, pragmatic, syntactic and strategic competence of teachers needs to be fostered in order to present realistic standardization. Without developing these skills, it remains unrealistic to develop a set of standards.

In their study, Harper and De Jong (2004) declare that EFL teachers should be educated according to standardization features of teacher education and employ state standards to guide their teaching. They also add that since classroom practices correspond to national content standards and content learning emerges by considerable verbal and written discourse, teachers must know how to supply

scaffolded opportunities for EFL students. Therefore, discourse analysis of teachers' experiences in classroom settings should be conducted to understand the nature of standardization. National content standards may be at odds with practices and experiences that teachers have in their classroom environment. Frequent visits to practitioners can strengthen the applicability of standardization.

3.Methodology of the studies related to language teacher education and standardization

Most of the studies in this review article (n=8) are systematic review studies. They were all literature reviews that employed systematic methods to collect the secondary data. They critically gauged studies on language teacher education and standardization practices. Systematic review studies present an overall view of the related literature. Therefore, they are important in that they help identify the problems and questions in the field.Thus, a better conceptualization of language teacher education and standardization can be understood. A mix-method research design (n=3), rather than employing solely qualitative or quantitative research methods of data collection, to achieve a detailed understanding of the respondents' points of views was utilized in the study. In other words, triangulation was applied in these studies. Triangulation is often employed to represent that two or more methods of data collection are used in a study to control the results of the same subject. Further, based on a quantitative research design, some reviewed articles (n=2) inquired the personal views of respondents through surveys. Last but not the least, qualitative case studies (n=2) supported by semi-structured interviews, field notes, and observations were detected in the overall review.

4.Findings of the reviewed articles

In her review study, Vélez-Rendón (2002) found out that publications revealing theoretical perspectives and research on foreign or second language teacher education are increasing regularly. She has also suggested that this increase would give way to a more theoretical and research-driven attitude for educating language teachers and consequently for the development of program standards. Besides, she pointed out that language teacher education and developing standards for the institutions of language teacher education have been extensively excluded from the literature on general teacher education.

Allen (2002) investigated teachers' views on standardization practices for foreign language education in order to achieve directions for language teacher education and standardization practices. She discovered that pre-service language teachers, since their classroom experiences were most possibly led by the coverage model, are in need of being exposed to other different models which

are structured on contextualized language use. In a similar vein, she figured out that in-service language teachers may benefit from the chance of experimenting and interpreting standards-based models in their own setting. Besides, studies inquiring programs which do not use the coverage model and utilize standards-based practices state that standards-based practices are more beneficial in educational practices.

Çetinavcı and Yavuz (2010) realized that a high number of pre-service language teachers feel either depreciation or having no development in their grammatical and lexical ability, which are the parts of overall language competency. They also clarified that in Turkey, the shortage of the research on the problem may mean that we are either pleased with the competency level of the pre-service language teachers or likely to neglect the emerging problems. Therefore, this study is significant as an effort to draw attention to an issue not inquired enough in Turkey. It has focused on generating opinions about a new research plan and review of foreign language teacher education programs with high standards in the country.

Van Trao and Ngo (2015) define the most significant finding of their research as teachers' being dissatisfied with their low language capacity. This finding reveals the respondents' eagerness to develop themselves and desiring support and standardization in their education programs. Moreover, most participants believe that the aims of teaching EFL at schools are still based on teaching grammar and vocabulary. It was also discovered from the study that such attitudes need to be deeply gauged for a better quality of language teaching and learning.

Bunch (2013) has discovered that studies evaluating EFL teacher and student proficiency based on diverse methods of language teacher preparation will be essential since shared standards are to be implemented in the following years. He has also added that the coming reform will be extensive with respect to how teachers should approach language teaching to aid students' commitment in courses and improvement of the language and literacy practices asked by the standards. Therefore, this study referred to the necessity of thinking over questions about the pedagogical knowledge that guides any possible approach to educate EFL teachers, the extent of coherence between that knowledge and the language requirements students will experience in involving in the kind of teaching demanded by the common standards, and the competency required to be enhanced among language teachers to carry out the approach.

In his review study, Donato (2009) discovered that an internal problem remains between the requirement to develop teacher capacity and views as being taught according to standards. Initially, standards acknowledge us about what teachers

have to know, but do not provide supervision regarding how to reach the objectives.

Crandall (2000), in his review study, found out that studies on teacher education have focused more on pre-service teacher training. However, there are also studies related to the certain issues like teacher development with expert teachers. These studies contain the significance of shared duty for the formation and implementation of language teacher education programs and standardization. In the review, it was also emphasized that there should be a standardization of equal opportunities to practice microteaching, peer teaching, and poster sessions.

Glisan (2012) states that since the National Standards for language teachers are still in beginning level, studies on standardization in language teacher education have not yet been necessarily mirrored in even in classroom practices. She also figured out that language teaching profession is still in the first phases of interpreting the standards, just like the new research in educational settings. Besides, it was seen that most studies about the National Standards in the US have been standards related, rather than standards focused. The overall aim of diverse kinds of standards-focused studies may be to understand whether the standards rationally depict what students can attain in certain contexts, where standards might be in need of modifications, and how they can best be delivered to classroom practices.

In their study, Fillmore and Snow (2000) figured out that the dimensions of language that the educators should be aware of, knowledge types about language, and course topics that include the content or field knowledge should be formulated without considering the constraints of traditional language teacher education programs through developing standards. Besides, they also hinted on what teachers need to comprehend about language learning and teaching for working efficiently. Moreover, they discovered that training pre-service language teachers for basic coursework is the minimum requirement for preparing teachers, as well as being an essential constituent for standardization among all the other education faculties.

Kirkgöz (2007), in her study, outlined variations in ELT in Turkey in specific stages going back to the admittance of English as a foreign language in Turkey up until recent policy adaptations that mirror the enhancing significance of English since Turkey desires to be a member of the EU. So, English education at all school levels in Turkey has gradually been a challenge and necessitated developments and high standards fort he language teacher education.

Yüksel (2014) has concluded that schools which are authentic learning environments must be empowered for providing language teachers to work in collaboration with other teachers; and to form new learning cultures, teaching norms, and educational standards. Clinical experience support pre-service teachers in contextualizing their learning process and understanding how students learn and behave. Through high standards of language teacher education provided at each education faculty, the self-esteem, comprehension and capability of novice teachers increasingly develop. However, new facilities and high standards should be provided for every language education faculty to work with students before starting the profession.

The findings of the study conducted by Seferoğlu (2006) clarify that there is a close relation between the education materials and the actual practice in classrooms. This issue is occasionally underestimated in the methodology and practice courses pre-service teachers take as part of their pre-service language teacher education programs. Therefore, it is vital to provide a standardization among language teacher education faculties to overcome this hindrance. Further, there should be more opportunities for practice teaching which should be at least the minimal required standard for language teacher education programs.

P.B. Hudson, Nguyen, and S. Hudson (2008) examined pre-service EFL teachers' views and found out the requirement of a theoretical framework which needs to be structured. This framework should be based on pre-service EFL teachers' requirements, as well as classroom setting variables that affect learning to teach before their practicum. Some pre-service EFL teachers might have undervalued the challenges they would encounter during their practicum. For some pre-service EFL teachers, there might be a crack between their competency of classroom practices from their university education and the reality of the actual classroom, which might be as a result of lack of standardization or of poor standards. Moreover, pre-service language teachers should be equipped with the required knowledge and skills to adjust themselves to new teaching contexts which should be a standard opportunity in each language teacher education faculty.

Richards, Conway, Roskvist, and Harvey (2013) indicated that language teachers with a low level of English proficiency might execute some dimensions of proper language teaching. However, they need need to own an advanced level of English language proficiency so that they can assist learners by meaningful teaching. Being proficient in the target language should be the minimal requirement for pre-service language teachers and there should be a standardization among education faculties which equip novice language teachers with this proficiency.

In their findings, Harper and De Jong (2004) clarified that pre-service and in-service language teachers employ state standards to shape their teaching. Despite the reality of student diversity, many standards depend on common features of language teachers. Standardization efforts require student teachers to have achieved sufficient levels of four English language skills to adequately join in actual classrooms.

5.Conclusion

In this study, 15 studies related to foreign language teacher education and standardization were inquired thoroughly. These studies were published in fourteen high-ranking journals between 2000 and 2015. As the results of this systematic review, some conspicuous findings were reached. Initially, the reviewed studies published in these journals chiefly focused on the quality of foreign language teacher education and standardization among the institutions to maintain this quality. Next, review studies surpassed the number of mix-method research studies, quantitative studies, and case studies subsequently in the reviewed articles. Lastly, it may be concluded that it is vital to improve the quality of foreign language teacher education through enhancing and improving the standards of education faculties and sustaining standardization among these institutions by means of supplying every pre-service foreign language teacher with the required opportunities to improve them.

However, it should be borne in mind that standardization is an enigma and a complex process because the results obtained in applied linguistics need to be fed into the process of standardization. In addition, these results and processes need to be shared with pre-service teachers in micro teaching or in-service training. Teachers should be involved in the process, and their views need to be consulted. Otherwise, standardization may encounter the problem of being mechanical and deus ex machina because practitioners of second and foreign language teaching should be aware of each element in standardization process. In addition, each element in standardization of language teacher education should be practical and intelligible because praxis should be prioritized in the process of standardization. Lack of pluralistic views may hinder the practice of standardization since this term may appear controversial in postmodern era that deconstructs and goes against standardization. Therefore, the main bona fide problem as to standardization is its applicability in language teacher education.

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Chapter 26

A literary (anti)canon for an intercultural world

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Abstract

Literary texts seem to no longer occupy a relevant place in ELT, generally favouring the use of informative texts to promote reading comprehension skills. This functional view of a foreign language fails to address the complexity of language as social practice implying interpreting and making meanings and used to establish and maintain personal relationships. We will argue for the need to revisit the type of materials and reading approach in the EFL classroom of the twenty-first century. In a world made smaller in space and time by the internationalization of contemporary life, the concept of language as a mere code is clearly insufficient to meet the needs of learners as speakers in a supercomplex world. Educational programmes and European policies have underlined the importance of intercultural learning and how FL classrooms should integrate an intercultural dimension. Literary texts should, therefore, play a significant role in ELT while promoting an encounter with cultural alterity, stimulating decentring and the building of empathy while mobilizing key tools such as interpretation, and reflection.

Keywords: Literary texts; intercultural learning; ELT

1. Introduction

This paper will consider the idea of a literary (anti)canon from the perspective of foreign language education and intercultural learning, and argue that literary texts can play a relevant role in a time marked by globalization, the cultural hybridity of our students in multicultural classroom settings, and in a world made smaller in space and time by the internationalization of contemporary life, and the impact of deterritorialized virtual media.

Literature has a much smaller presence today in Portuguese secondary school syllabuses in the case of English as a Foreign Language (EFL), where more 'pragmatic' types of reading texts are favoured. In fact, generally speaking, reading and studying literary texts in the foreign language (FL) classroom has become the exception rather than the rule as students and teachers alike consider there is no longer any need to read literature in a foreign language.

The emphasis on the use of different types of authentic material brought about by communicative language teaching (CLT) has reinforced a study of language that still considers this concept – 'language' - as a mere functional skill. However, the notion of 'language' in use today in formal education reference documents, specifically in the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages – Companion Volume with New Descriptors* (CEFR/CV) (Council of Europe, 2018), implies the study of language-and-culture, and this broader and richer concept cannot be limited to the study of informative texts or reading comprehension activities and tasks. Languages are no longer mere utilitarian communicative instruments; they are seen as 'languaging' (Gonzalez & Phipps, 2004) tools and contribute to the personal development of the student as an intercultural mediator. Moreover, as Kramsch points out:

> Learners do not just acquire new words or structures for conveying and receiving information, nor are they simply intermediaries between cultures. Instead, they are affected intellectually, emotionally, and even physically as they draw on new metaphors and ways of conceiving not just language but life and the world. (Kramsch, 2009, p. 101)

Teachers of foreign languages may have lost their interest in literary texts as a consequence of changes in foreign language teaching methodology - CLT and l'approche actionelle, and the influence of education sciences and linguistics (Kramsch & Kramsch, 2000, p. 553) - and gradual changes in practices and institutions that absorbed these tendencies and tended to look at literature in ELT as antiquated or irrelevant for the modern FL classroom[1].

Nonetheless, it should be underlined that it is not the case that literary texts have been discarded from the FL classroom because they have been refuted or because serious objections have been made to them. Our belief is, therefore, that arguments for the use of literary texts in the FL classroom should be revisited

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[1] Kramsch and Kramsch identify a number of factors that have '[...] gradually made literature obsolete as the major discipline associated with language study' (2000, p. 553). The reasons are the '[...] demise of philology since the late 1910s, the rise of the social sciences in the 1930s, the triumph of the sciences of education in the 1930s and the overwhelming influence of linguistics since the 1950s [...]' (2000, p. 553). The authors claim a role for literature in the foreign language classroom since '[...] the teaching of foreign literatures intersects with the social and political history of nation-states and their symbolic cultural capital'.

and reconsidered in view of intercultural competences so much needed by users of foreign languages in our compolex and problematic world.

2. For the use of literary texts in the FL classroom

The Portuguese syllabus for ELF in secondary education (15-17-year-olds), for example, underlines the need to stimulate intercultural learning and critical thinking. However, while the syllabus indicates that students should read extensively at least one literary work each school year, such as one short story, no connection is offered between the two competences above, intercultural competence and critical thinking, and the experience of reading literary texts.

In a nutshell, arguments for the reading and study of literary texts may refer to two fundamental goals of foreign language education: first, to develop a humanistic dimension that includes the cultural facet of language and intercultural competence, and, secondly, to promote critical thinking skills. Moreover, literary texts make it possible to explore the cognitive and the affective dimensions in FL education using interpretation, analysis and reflectivity as central tools to handle ambiguity, paradox and other difficulties in building meaning as well as to relate language and culture within a meaningful context.

Nowadays the need to equip our students and citizens with competences that will enable them to mediate complex linguistic and cultural situations, at both the personal and professional level, is probably more pressing than ever in our rapidly changing societies. Mia Couto, one of the most prominent writers in Portuguese-speaking Africa, reflects on how communication involves so much more beyond the ability to read the written word and relates those elements, that encompassing competence to read the world, with a sense of plurality in Mozambican identity as follows:

> Falamos em ler e pensamos apenas nos livros, nos textos escritos. O senso comum diz que lemos apenas nas palavras. Mas a ideia de leitura aplica-se a um vasto universo. Nós lemos emoções nos rostos, lemos os sinais climáticos nas nuvens, lemos o chão, lemos o Mundo, lemos a Vida. Tudo pode ser página. Depende apenas da intenção de descoberta do nosso olhar. (Couto, 2009, p.109)

> We talk about reading and we only think about books, written texts. Common sense tells us that we only read in words. But the idea of reading applies to a vast universe. We read emotions in faces, we read climate signs in the clouds, we read the ground, we read the World, we read Life. Everything can be a page. It merely depends on the intention of the discovery of our eyes. (our translation)

The writer's wise words and reflection on the many diverse, intersecting, conflicting and (inter) cultural voices that make up Mozambican identity serve our purpose, to account for the parallel between developing these competences through reading books and reading the world.

What should be at stake then is a notion of ELT that integrates intercultural education, helping learners to acknowledge that our lenses are neither universal nor fixed and to position themselves in our global, complex world by becoming socially valid and critical intercultural citizens.

3. Texts as de facto canon

In order to promote and develop the competences referred to as 'languaging' tools above – interpretation, analysis, reflection, interculturality - foreign language education requires the use of meaningful, relevant and challenging texts. Nevertheless, when considering ELT textbooks several authors have noted that the materials presented are usually informative texts, quite often on trivial matters, generally used as a pretext to study linguistic features of the language and which usually present 'a meagre and frequently distorted sample of the target language' (Gilmore, 2007, p.103), thus limiting their potential to be explored communicatively as meaningful or relevant texts for the learners. Such text types do not allow the exploration of different text genres and discourse types and often converge in offering a reductive and essentialist cultural perspective, becoming merely a pretext to practise linguistic structures.

These materials could be considered, in our view, canonical, in the sense that they constitute a predominant tendency in ELT textbooks officially approved by schools, thus reinforcing the implicit suggestion that these are the model materials through which one should be learning a foreign language, thereby constituting a de facto canon. These texts predominate as a result of the influence of publishers and, maybe, the passivity of educators who adopt them without contesting or questioning text choice and approach.

Siqueira & Scheyerl (2012), amongst others, question the culturally homogenizing and universalizing premises underlying the design of FL materials in textbooks and underline the pressing need for more democratic and interculturally relevant approaches towards critical and ethically-oriented materials development. Siqueira pertinently asks: if the English language is in the world, where is the world in ELT materials? (Siqueira, 2012, pp. 311-353).

What we call here a de facto canon seems to find no resistance from such a well-established and authoritative European document for the teaching and

learning of modern languages as the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (Council of Europe, 2001), even in the recently revised version, CEFR/CV, (Council of Europe, 2018). References to literary texts are scarce in this document and, as in the case of the Portuguese national syllabus for ELT, it establishes no connection between literary texts and competences to be developed, such as intercultural competence, despite the significant tradition, as Olsbu and Salkjelsvik (2008) have noted, that associates the teaching of language and literature. These authors contrast this position with the equivalent document in the North American context, the *Standards for Foreign Language Learning. Preparing for the 21st Century* (1996). The latter document refers to the use of literary texts from the first years of education and gradually includes mention of the skills of interpreting, commenting, analysing, comparing and arguing about different types of literary texts. Interestingly, Guilherme (2002, pp. 219-224) includes these skills, which she calls 'operations', as some of the principles underlying critical pedagogy. Literary texts can therefore become a space to explore students' critical thinking, creativity and affective and aesthetic responses, besides offering the traditional benefits for language learning and development. This then becomes a reflective space to learn about interculturality and to interrogate language-and-culture.

It has become almost commonplace to state that literary texts are relevant in the FL classroom because they may be used as a vehicle to understand the foreign culture. The reasons that would sustain such an assertion and the methodology or strategy that would give rise to this process are, however, taken for granted or remain implicit. In the Portuguese context, for example, literary texts are often randomly selected by teachers and when asked for the reasons behind their selection, the criteria invoked usually relate, in the first place, to the level of language difficulty; to the extension, measured according to the number of pages; or to concerns about motivation, based on the assumption that detective stories, for example, should motivate students as readers (Sawyer & Matos, 2015). Moreover, the Portuguese syllabuses for basic education (12-14 years old) and for secondary education (15-17 years old) do not establish any general purposes for the use of literary texts nor do they provide any specific learning targets for reading such texts. Important aspects of learning with literary texts are therefore ignored and neglected, which makes it imperative that arguments for the use of literature in the FL classroom be made visible and that criteria for text choice be made available. The present article aims to present a reflection and a conceptual contribution to the latter. It argues against the routinized and uncritical selection of predominantly informative texts as found in most textbooks and in favour of the existence of an (anti)canon of literary works in the FL, which implies the need

for a reading curriculum and for principles as a means by which to select texts for intercultural learning in the FL classroom and beyond.

4. Canonicity

It is not our purpose to document contemporary canon discussions and wars, but to review some of the arguments put forward in order to make a proposal for the ELT classroom.

In order to clarify what is meant by the use of the term 'canon', we can consider its etymological meaning in Ancient Greek (κανών) as a 'measuring rod, standard'. So 'canon' came to refer to anything that serves as a model, a principle, or a rule. The modern idea of a canon has been broadly understood as institutionalized literature or, more commonly, used to refer to major works of authors considered to be of central importance in a certain culture, with the term 'culture' often implying a national culture.

Among several distinct positions regarding contemporary approaches to the idea of a literary canon, as discussed by Anderson and Zanetti (2000), two propositions seem to be more relevant to the current perspective. Scholes advocates a canon of critical methods in the place of a canon of selected texts. Said, on the other hand, '[…] advocates a 'nomadic' canon that would be receptive to post-colonial and non-Western voices as well as to Western ones' (2000, p. 344). While these authors are not referring to the EFL classroom, we would like to argue for a combination of the two positions.

The multiple ways in which the term 'canon' has been employed displays the ambiguity of the term. However, the realization that canon formation is a construction implying certain criteria and certain models can be used to counter propose an anti-canon, now from the perspective of ELT, a canon that contrasts with the canonical texts found in textbooks offering a functional view of a FL. The prposed anti-canon is also to be understood as a flexible and open selection of texts based on specific criteria and models, contrary to the notion of canon as a prescribed stable collection of authors and/or texts.

In the place of a canon that often stops at national or cultural borders, ELT in the twenty-first century requires a canon that transcends these boundaries and may actually question any boundaries, considering linguistic and cultural flows.

5. An anti-canon

Punter (2006) discusses the canon within literary criticism theory and points out how recent developments in the theory of the subject bring to the foreground the critical question of 'location' – here referring to the position from which the critic speaks:

> This questioning of position, which is in effect a new critique of the pretensions of universalism, is in fact very closely related to political events, and can be seen as a refraction of the interpretative difficulties attendant on the notion of 'globalization'. The ongoing exposure of the rhetoric of imperialism, the resurgence of problematically desperate fundamentalisms (in the United States as much as in the Islamic world), the impossibilities of the search for 'native culture' – all these can be seen as material underpinnings for the evolution of a critical strand that takes seriously the uncertainty of location and voice, the way in which the 'ground beneath her feet', to quote the title of one of Salman Rushdie's novels, erodes as fast as the critic can seek to put scaffolding in place to shore it up. (p. 519)

This questioning of position, dis-location, or deterritorialization requires, therefore, new criteria to account for the sptatial and cultural in-betweenness that signal a move away from a well-defined identity and alterity (I vs. you; us vs. them) towards complexifying alterity and identity. An intercultural approach to the literary text in the foreign language classroom involves exploring the concept and boundaries of cultural identity, moving away from the idea of a literary canon as a means of promoting cultural nationalism and, instead, facing 'the uncertainty of location and voice'.

We have argued elsewhere (Matos, 2012) for the use of Sauerberg's concept (2001, p. 9), a 'compound voice', as a criterion, or principle, to follow when selecting texts to be explored in an intercultural perspective. This compound voice would, in our opinion, signal an instability characteristic of Bhabha's in-betweenness (Bhabha, 2004), revealing a sense of displacement with frontiers being challenged and pointing to an identitary disquietness regarding identities being questioned and (re)configured. This instability, or disequilibrium, voiced in the text would help locate the intercultural dimension and the potential to read and explore the text in the ELT classroom.

Phelan's concept of 'judgements' (2007) and the three main types - interpretive, ethical and aesthetic - account for the possibility of shared reading experience. Although encoded in the text, readers produce these judgements through their interaction with the text originating multi-layered responses. These readers' responses, thus organized, sustain, in our view, the opportunity of exploring how learners as readers may be affected by literary texts. These three dimensions may relate to reading in an intercultural perspective as follows:

- interpretation is a major tool for students as readers to develop Byram's 'savoir comprendre' (skills of interpreting and relating). Interpreting meanings, comparing and relating; identifying discrepancies and inconsistencies; building alternative possible meanings and relationships between elements; imagining and exploring new possibilities and alternatives, are some of the operations that sustain acceptance of complexity and the acknowledgemnent of multiple perspectives and interpretations of a given issue.

- the ethical component provides a basis for discussion and reflection, thereby engaging readers actively and critically. Through literature, the reader may confront life in its moral complexity. Contrary to the tendency, observed in textbooks, to sanitise social interaction and avoid 'hot' topics, foreign language education should prepare learners to face diversity and to engage in research and discussions on controversial issues. Youngsters are exposed to information and 'fake news' via the modern communication technologies, such as mobile phones, Twitter, Facebook. Critical thinking and analytical skills help learners of EFL to learn about how to deal with controversial issues in order to be better prepared to deal with them in the future.

- the aesthetic dimension of texts implies a reaction to the experience of the text, stimulating imagination and valuing the affective experience of the text, not only the cognitive experience. More attention should be placed on the role of emotional intelligence and on how affect interferes with learning and with building our perceptions of the world around us. Moreover, by understanding one's emotions and clarifying one's values, learners may become better learners and more confident individuals.

Furthermore, the current perspective on the use of literary texts will be able to address Phipps and Levine's five Cs (2011) regarding language teaching and learning: context, complexity, capacity, compassion and conflict (disquietness, conflicting emotional impulses as a stimulus for thinking).

We therefore propose to consider the possibilities offered by the use of a canon, as a complex term, in the context of FL education, and to challenge the use of a de facto canon (one not inscribed officially in an educational context), arguing for an (anti)canon based on the construction of a set of parameters for the selection and use of literary texts. A literary (anti)canon is therefore proposed as an inclusive, critical, non-finite collection of textual readings in the FL classroom with a view to a pedagogy of interculturality that may well assure foreign language teachers a role as educators in the challenging world in which we are living.

Fleming (2007, p. 32) calls our attention to two axes regarding the concept of a canon in an educational context. According to the author, attention should be paid to the interplay between the content (texts, in the current discussion) and the teaching-learning process, or the way the specified content is approached in the classroom. It is not possible to rely solely on a judicious selection of literary texts and on their potential to be able to determine the result of the educational experience for the students. Theoretical perspectives on how reading could be promoted and how the readers' insights should be explored, expanded and deepened should be provided by such a view of a canon.

6. An (anti)canon as process

We would like to argue for a pedagogy based on literary reading and comprehension as a construction, for the promotion of reflection on contextualized otherness, thus sustaining an 'epistemology of complexity' (Abdallah-Pretceille & Porcher, 2005, p. 116), and we maintain that literary texts should be reconsidered, in the light of new criteria, to promote intercultural learning for the twenty-first century.

Teachers as reflective intellectuals should be able to select particular authors and texts based on their particular context and interests and should express a preference for issues of race, class, gender, difference, marginality, cultural essentialism, domination, national identity, or other issues that contribute to discuss, problematize, and examine how much we know about such topics and how we are affected by those realities.

Unlike many other types of text, for example, informative texts, literary texts require time. In contrast to the instantaneous communication of virtual and social media, reading demands time to be able to pause and become immersed in the fictional world while reading. Furthermore, the reading process implies reflection and readers engaging cognitively and affectively in this secondary world, making them notice details, subtleties, contradictions, ambiguities. Handling and managing these is crucial to be able to understand and interpret our world's transformations, challenges and contradictions. Reading the world, i.e. reading other cultures, people and texts, needs to take place, therefore, in relation to reading the self and implying the self. Ultimately, through the reading experience, readers are affected, build empathy, and may gain multiple perspectives of self, society and alterity as well as of the frontiers and connections between these, and they may change, by questioning the contradictions of their own initial positioning. A good reading should, therefore, leave a trace of intercultural disquietness.

In view of technological developments and the importance of the image (filmic, photographic, etc.) in our society, the traditionally exclusive focus on the written text could also be questioned and broadened so as to include an open and inclusive definition of 'text' (cf. Pegrum, 2008). The use of picturebooks could be a suitable example of how an (anti)canon could be expanded and made more inclusive. Tan's *The Arrival* (2007) and Greder's *The Island* (2008) provide two wonderful examples of works with intercultural potential. Although these two titles could be explored within a wide range of ages, depending on the approach and proposed tasks, I would suggest *The Arrival* be worked with 14-17-year-old students, and *The Island* with 6-14-year-old students.

The Island is an internationally acclaimed and award-winning picturebook. The opening lines announce a painful and very actual topic, exploring how a vulnerable (and completely harmless) outsider can cause such suspicion, hatred, and violence: 'One morning, the people of the island found a man on the beach, where fate and ocean currents had washed his raft ashore. When he saw them coming, he stood up. He wasn't like them' (2007, n.p.). While it is not convenient to reproduce here the graphic disposition of the words, the carefully constructed phrases and the drawings that accompany these words, where the predominance of charcoal creates sombre illustrations, it is possible to guess some of the topics that this story will unfold, such as prejudice, fear, xenophobia, intolerance, lack of compassion. Readers are immediately transported to this familiar world while at the same dealing with harsh judgements and cruel decisions, starting with the initial verdict about the small, naked man: 'He wasn't like them'. He is isolated and defenseless, contrasting with the huge men, brandishing pitchforks. Exploring the visual and written narrative with 'why' questions that gradually are formed within the readers' minds prepares the ground to handle those matters critically and to arrive at contemporaneity: 'And they built a great wall all around the island, with watchtowers from which they could search the sea for signs of rafts, and shoot down passing seagulls and cormorants so that no one would ever find their island again' (2007, n.p.).

The written text should be read in combination with the pictures, allowing to develop visual literacy and train the ability to read beyond the written words. This dialogue between the written words and the drawings makes the villagers' fears visible and illuminates the cruelty of their intolerance.

The Arrival is a visual narrative, with no words, telling the story of a family man looking for a better life in a foreign country. The shared familiarity of the strangeness of the man's experience is reinforced by the absence of written words or language. This original wordless tale invites the reader to share the point of

view of the courageous migrant as he struggles to build meanings, a stranger in a strange land that, to his eyes, seems simultaneously confusing, puzzling, and exciting. Tan's work combines photo-realistic sepia drawings with fantastic, imaginative creatures and scenarios, which may convey at once a familiar and a bewildering world. The enduring experience of forced migration associated to the pain of missing your loved ones, to the dependence on others to survive, to the vast strangeness surrounding you while not being able to use verbal language is conveyed throught Tan's memorable artistic talent.

Another example illustrating the principles discussed in this article with the aim to educate and to transform, from an intercultural perspective, can be found in poetry:

MINORITY

I was born a foreigner.

[…]

And, who knows, these lines
may scratch their way
into your head –
through all the chatter of community,
family, clattering spoons,
children being fed –
immigrate into your bed,
squat in your home,
and in a corner, eat your bread,

until, one day, you meet
the stranger sidling down your street,
realise you know the face
simplified to the bone,
look into its outcast eyes
and recognise it as your own.

Dharker (2009, p. 10)

Dharker's work and literay voice also illustrates the criteria proposed to shape a literary (anti)canon for an intercultural world given the insightful representation of cultural difference, otherness, identity, and the way the poetic subject turns to the reader, involving him/her reflectively in 'these lines' which are already in our

heads, i.e., hoping the lines of the poem will infiltrate our life and change our perspective. The poem begins by using the first person point of view - 'I was born a foreigner' (how can you be born a foreigner?) - eventually changing to the second person, making the reader a participant in the poem. In the last stanza, the reader is therefore summoned to realize that s/he is the foreigner. The images of food, family meals, and use of a shared language, communicate a familiar sense of belonging. The change of perspective marked by the use of different subject positions allows the reader to identify and relate with the speaker who reflects on the experience of belonging to different places, of feeling an outcast, an immigrant, squatting 'in your home', as if imposing a presence within one's private familiar space, an intruder who 'infiltrates', who does not belong, is not welcome, until a metamorphosis operates a dramatic change of perspective and the awareness of the intrinsic humanity of an individual's sense of belonging, living a life similar to our own.

7. Conclusion

A concept of language in ELT that focuses on meaning-making and interpretation as social practice must promote language use to build meanings and to engage in communicating and building relationships with others.

The exclusive practice of text reading comprehension as efferent reading and the use of predominantly informative materials with linguistic objectives in the foreign language classroom should be reviewed critically, sensitizing teachers of the foreign language to the humanistic dimension of learning foreign languages and to the potential of literary texts in promoting intercultural education (Matos, 2012) and raising an awareness of how language use impacts our social and cultural worlds.

Teachers of EFL, as language educators, should develop a clearer understanding of the concept of 'language' at stake and an awareness of how this view of language should affect the choice of the reading materials and tasks proposed to the learners. Reading literary texts in the EFL classroom invites learners to decentre from their own cultural assumptions while exploring and problematising the borders between self and other. By making the literary text part of the intercultural experience, readers develop the use of such tools as interpretation, critical thinking and reflectivity, thereby becoming more competent interpreters of the world they live in.

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Chapter 27

A Review of Research on Teaching English to Young Learners in EFL Contexts (2008-2018)

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Abstract

Teaching English to young learners (TEYL) is growing in popularity around the world. It has the potential to make significant contributions to the policy making, developing effective methodologies for young learners, teacher education, and research methodologies in English as a foreign language (EFL) contexts. This chapter reviews a selection of international research on teaching English to young learners in relation to misconceptions about the critical period hypothesis (CPH), curriculum and policy implementations in EFL contexts, and current pedagogical trends in TEYL. We begin by summarizing what the CPH is and how the research informs us about the CPH in EFL contexts. Then, we review recent findings of age-related CPH studies since 2008 to determine the optimal conditions for a foreign language learning attainment of young learners. Moving from these findings, we identify EFL teachers' contextual challenges and policy-related concerns in implementing the English language curriculum for young learners. Examining the similarities and differences of TEYL practices in EFL contexts, we aim to focus on professional development needs of teachers of young learners. Finally, we conclude by presenting the future research agenda.

Keywords: young learners, critical period hypothesis, professional development needs, EFL teachers

1.Introduction

English is widely recognised as an international contact language or Lingua Franca and proficiency in English is regarded as a must to be able to compete and foster in the global world. Given the historical, political, and economic reasons, many governments tend to lower the starting age for English language teaching. As English is being introduced to younger learners globally, there is a need to define who young learners are and to understand the drive that makes English a part of primary schools' curriculum and the way young learners learn.

In an attempt to define who "young learners" are, Pinter (2006) categorizes young learners into three groups: pre-schoolers, children who start primary school at around the age of 5-7, and finish primary school at age 11 or 12.

Cameron (2001) defines young learners as "those between five and twelve years of age." The point is within the commonly accepted age range, there is a big difference as to what children can do. A five-year old differs greatly from an eleven-year old in terms of cognitive, physical, socio-emotional and motor skills, which should definitely lead to very different approaches in instruction.

Research into teaching English to young learners (TEYL) has developed rapidly in recent years (Copland, Garton, & Burns, 2014; Enever & Moon, 2009; Garton, Copland & Burns, 2011; Munoz, 2006). The last three decades have witnessed a tendency to introduce foreign language instruction as a compulsory subject in the primary schools, even from the first grade in many countries (Nikolov, 2009; Pinter, 2006). In their study involving 62 countries around the world, Burns, Morris-Adams, Garton and Copland (2013) found that more than half of the countries introduced compulsory English language courses by third grade.

Among the several reasons for the early start, the often-declared rationale behind such decisions is the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) and to make the best of innate capacity and greater plasticity of young learners to acquire a language. The issue is highly debated in the literature (Nikolov & Mihaljevic Djigunovic, 2006; Pinter, 2006). It is acknowledged that young learners might have some advantages than those who start L2 learning later. However, for this advantage to operate an abundance of exposure is needed. Harmer (2007), on the other hand, states that younger learners are not necessarily better learners compared to older learners. Though children display a better capacity to master L1 phonological system and a more intuitive grasp of L2 structures, there is little empirical study that shows children are able to perform better than teens or adults in formal education settings (Larson-Hall, 2008). Several studies, on the other hand, show that older children and adolescents make more progress than younger learners (Marinova-Todd, Marshall, & Snow, 2000; Munoz, 2006; Nikolov, 2009). "The younger the better" might be a fallacy, particularly in formal settings where exposure is extremely limited. There are many other factors other than age and exposure that are influential in the success or failure of foreign language instruction to children such as the nature of language instruction given, psychological and social factors, teaching materials, individual differences in cognitive and learning styles, highly skilled and dedicated teachers, systematic exposure, continuous instruction, continuity in syllabus and smooth transition from the primary to secondary level of education and so on (Marinova-Todd et al., 2000).

 Still, early introduction to a foreign language has some advantages as well. Advocates of early L2 instruction believe that longer exposure leads to greater proficiency by the end of formal instruction process (Enever & Moon, 2009). Other benefits may be the value of English for education and employment. Garton et al. (2011:5) point that English is "overwhelmingly the first choice" of parents due to their belief that proficiency in English might provide their children with a better education and better employment opportunities (Enever & Moon, 2009; Gimenez, 2009). Considering these views, we aim to review a selection of international research on teaching English to young learners in relation to misconceptions about the critical period hypothesis (CPH), curriculum and policy implementations in EFL contexts, and current methodological trends in TEYL.

2.Method

 In choosing studies for this review, we searched for published work examining how the research informs us on CPH, what the TEYL practices are in EFL contexts, and how the policy reforms and curriculum implementations enrich our repertoire in TEYL. Included in the review are 26 studies: articles, projects, books, and policy documents that were published over the last ten years (2008-2018). Some older studies are also included to provide context for current research. However, there were not clear international studies published in 2010, so we excluded this year from the table below.

 Table 1. Chronology of research in TEYL

Publication year	Number of the studies in this review
2018	2
2017	3
2016	1
2015	1
2014	5

2013	3
2012	2
2011	4
2009	1
2008	5
Total	27

Table 2. Topics and contexts in TEYL research

Source	Type of the study	Focus	Context
Abello-Contesse (2008)	State of the art	To understand how age informs CPH	Relevant articles
Aksoy, et al. (2018)	Qualitative case study	To understand the advantages, disadvantages, success, and possible challenges of the implementation of the fifth grade English language learning programme from teachers' perspectives	170 English teachers in Turkey

Artieda, et al. (2017)	Experimental	To investigate the role of age and L2 exposure on the achievement of young learners' grammatical, receptive and productive skills	100 EFL young learners in Spain
Brining (2015)	Phenomenological, Mixed methods	To identify the challenges of young learner teachers	41 English teachers from 26 countries
Burns, et al. (2013)	Mixed methods	Teachers' perception of their roles and responsibilities in transition	881 English teachers in 62 different countries
Butler (2014)	State of the art	To identify the major-policy related concerns of teachers	EFL context in East Asia
Butler (2015)	State of the art		Related articles in East Asian region published between 2004-2014
Chen (2013)	Qualitative, document analysis	The evaluation of primary English education in Taiwan	Language-in-education policy types

Collins & Munoz (2016)	Review analysis	To understand the profile of foreign language classrooms in terms of geographical locations, languages being taught, the amount of exposure, the demographics of young learners	All studies published in MLJ between 2001-2014
Copland, Garton, & Burns (2014)	Mixed methods	To detect the challenges of young learner teachers	4459 EFL & ESL teachers in 5 different countries
DeKeyser (2013)	State of the art	To introduce the controversy topics on the effect of age on L2 acquisition and to suggest ways to improve data collection and do research	Relevant articles
Dixon, et al. (2012)	Review analysis	The optimal conditions for L2 acquisition, facilitative L2 learner and teacher characteristics, and speed of L2 acquisition	71 peer reviewed articles

Djigunovic (2012)	Review analysis	To understand how young learners' attitudes and motivation is approached in European studies	Related articles published in different European context
Enever & Moon (2009)	State of the art	To identify the persistent themes mostly studied in conferences and papers	
Garton, Copland, Burns (2011)	Mixed methods	To investigate global pedagogical practices in TEYL	EFL & ESL teachers of young learners
Garton (2014)	Mixed methods	To understand how, why, and by whom English is taught in an EFL setting	152 EFL teachers in South Korea
Güngör & Güngör (2018)	Qualitative, exploratory case study	To understand how pre-service teachers' knowledge base in TEYL is shaped by macro-policy implementations	34 EFL pre-service teachers in TEYL in Turkey

Kırkgöz (2008a)	Mixed methods	To understand how teacher implement the communicative oriented curriculum and factors that impact on their classroom practices	50 EFL teachers in Turkey
Kırkgöz (2008b)	2 year-long case study	The effect of teachers' understanding, instructional practices, and their training on their implementation of the communicative language teaching	32 EFL teachers in Turkey
Larson-Hall (2008)	Quantitative	Whether the early start in an EFL context makes a difference	Over 200 Japanese EFL students
Munoz (2017)	Longitudinal, mixed methods	To examine the relation of trajectories to learners' language learning aptitude and motivation	14 EFL learners in Spain
Munoz & Singleton (2010)	Critical review study	To explore the effects of age-related attainment on the	Relevant articles

CPH

Nikolov & Mihaljevic Djigunovic (2011)	State of the art	To understand how EFL learners learn English and the reasons why early start is thought to beneficial	Recent publications and projects
Orafi & Borg (2008)	Qualitative, case study	cognitive and contextual factors of teachers in implementing the curriculum	3 EFL teachers in Libya
Rixon (2011)	Survey	The trends in teaching young learners, planning policy, and lowering the starting age worldwide	English teachers from 64 countries
Romero, et al. (2014)	Qualitative	To determine teachers' practices and challenges in implementing the national language programme	EFL context
Zhu & Shu (2017)	Ethnographic, longitudinal	Teacher cognition in TEYL with the introduction of new curriculum	1 EFL teacher in China

3.Results

After reviewing the studies through content analysis, the mostly debated international topics were found to be the misconceptions about the critical period hypothesis in EFL settings and challenges regarding policy making and curriculum implementation in young learner classrooms.

3. 1. Misconceptions about the Critical Period Hypothesis: Is the younger really the better?

3.1.1.*What is the younger the better?*

"The younger the better" notion is often used as a rationale behind the starting age discussions in EFL contexts. Many EFL countries in Europe and East Asia are progressively lowering the starting age with this notion in mind. The rationale for this notion lies in the critical period hypothesis. The term *critical period* for language acquisition refers to a period when learning a language is easy and becomes successful (Marinova-Todd et al., 2000). It is claimed that there is a fixed span of years during which language learning can happen naturally effortlessly, and after which it is not possible to be completely successful (Ellis, 2008). Accordingly, Penfield and Roberts think that language acquisition is most effective before the age of 9 when the human brain gets stiff and rigid (as cited in Butler, 2014). It is thought that after this critical period one may not achieve native-like ability in the first (L1) language (Munoz & Singleton, 2010). Some scholars in the field transform this view into foreign language learning period and argue that more exposure to the target language (L2) at earlier ages has a positive impact on early starters (Artieda, Roquet, & Nicolas-Conesa, 2017). Birdsong (2006) refers to this view as the conventional notion of the critical period in which language acquisition is blocked for all learners once the critical age passes.

However, the recent empirically evident research does not importantly support this hypothesis considering the age related factors on L2 acquisition. Birdsong (2006) considers this as unconventional notion of the critical period. In other words, there is no agreement as to whether there is a critical period for L2 learning. De Keyser (2013), for example, argues that there is little research on age effects that offers methodologically sound evidence. Even Birdsong (2006) who supported the CPH admitted doubting about the issue. Munoz warns us that young learners cannot gain the advantages of an early start unless being cognitively advanced to benefit from explicit instruction and being exposed to sufficient input (as cited in Larson Hall, 2008).

Considering the foreign language learning setting, no specific linguistic advantage was found for young learners in the recent studies. Specifically, the Barcelona Age Factor (BAF) Project, which aimed to explore the effects of age on foreign language learning at different moments in time and for different language abilities, provided significant evidence for the view that the ultimate attainment of young learners in a classroom setting would take a longer period to come true due to the density of the input to which learners have access (Munoz, 2006). The results of the BAF project implied that an early start in foreign language learning settings did not guarantee the ultimate attainment of young learners. Similarly, Copland et al. (2014) also argue that there is no clear conclusive evidence for the supposed benefits of the early introduction into English. For them, there are optimal requirements such as the amount and the quality of input that young learners receive, the quality of English teachers, and the choice of appropriate teaching strategies for teaching English to younger ages in EFL settings. Larson Hall (2008) criticizes the studies conducted so far for not examining the long-run consequences of input in foreign language contexts because the critical period studies advocating the "the younger the better" hypothesis consider the immigrant young learners who were immersed in the target language environment and were exposed to larger hours of the target language at schools. In his correlational analysis study with 200 Japanese EFL learners, Larson Hall (2008) found that starting at an earlier age made a modest difference in terms of phonological and morphosynthactic abilities, given the increased total input – significant amount of homework and studying outside in the target language. Although the results may seem to offer a possible effect for a younger starting age, she warns us for interpreting the results in broader EFL contexts. Cenoz (2003) and Munoz (2006) also showed that learners who were consistently exposed to L2 at the age of 11 achieved higher levels of proficiency than those who started at the age of 4-5. Abello-Contesse (2008) similarly states that adults can also make faster initial progress in acquiring the grammatical and lexical components of an L2 due to their higher level of cognitive development and greater analytical abilities. From pedagogical perspective, she concludes that there is not a specific single age for learning L2 better and that both adults and young learners can achieve higher levels of proficiency given the effective learning setting and input.

Given the number of experimental studies, Butler (2015) in his review study found out that research in EFL contexts on the effect of critical period hypothesis over the language learning and processing did not necessarily support the notion. He categorized these studies according to the countries in

East Asia. For instance, Kwon compared high school students who received EFL in primary education with those who did not (as cited in Butler, 2015). The results showed that early starters had better improvement on listening, reading, writing skills, and motivation and confidence. However, the fact that these early starters had private tutoring and extensive work after school was also noted as a contributing factor to this improvement. In Japan, similarly, there is no clear consensus on the positive effects of the critical period hypothesis on young learners' foreign language learning process. Although some comparative studies found positive influence of an early start on listening, reading, and speaking, some others failed to find positive effects on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and morphosyntax. In these studies, researchers cautioned us that the reason behind the positive relation between their better performances on those skills and the early start for L2 learning might be the fact that the participating young learners in these studies might have been exposed to extensive work such as language learning studies before or after primary school, or formal and informal schooling (Butler, 2014).

3.1.2. *What are the optimal conditions for young learners' L2 attainment?*

The recent research informs us that there are certain requirements for a foreign language learning to be successful at younger ages (Collins & Munoz, 2016; Djigunovic, 2012; Munoz, 2007). First of all, depending on the quality of the input and quantity of the exposure in a naturalistic setting, some instructed young learners may outperform those who start late (Ellis, 2008; Munoz, 2007). Rixon (2013) acknowledges that the age of the young learners is of paramount condition determining the success of the language learning. So, L2 attainment of young learners depends mostly on the quality of the input given by well-educated teachers, the adequate exposure to and active interaction of young learners into the subject. It is reported that the problems in implementing the primary English curricula in many EFL contexts mainly stem from the lack of materials and teacher education resources (Aksoy, Bozdoğan, Akbaş, & Seferoğlu, 2018; Haznedar, 2012; Rixon, 2013). For example, Haznedar (2012) investigated the language teacher competencies, and their level of knowledge and skills on teaching English to young learners in Turkey. She found out that almost half of the participating English language teachers had a low level of knowledge and skills for TEYL. Similar to Haznedar (2012), Aksoy et al. (2018) investigated the views of secondary school English language teachers on the implementation of a fifth-grade English language preparation programme in Turkey and came up with significant results. Their suggestions included but were not limited to language teachers'

limited mastery of second language acquisition, assessment and evaluation of young learners, child development, and their self-assessment on professional and personal development. They further discussed the necessity of exposing young learners to English through communicative methods and materials consistently, and of training well-educated primary and secondary school English teachers for young learners' successful language learning process.

In addition, Dixon, Zhao, Shin, Wu, Su, Burgess-Brigham, Gezer and Snow (2012) put forth that language policy reforms about lowering the starting age to learn a foreign language and educating young learners are often enacted without consulting relevant research on the optimal conditions for L2 acquisition, teacher qualifications and learner characteristics, and materials. They analysed 71 articles written on the optimal conditions for L2 acquisition of young learners. Their findings indicated that the input in learning contexts, pedagogical goals, programme setup, learner characteristics, and the interactions among these contextual variables all contributed to the success of L2 acquisition. Specifically, it was suggested that the exposure to L2 at school be supported with parents' use of L2 at home by reading books to children frequently, taking them to the library, asking and answering questions in L1 or L2. These home literacy practices were thought to affect L2 acquisition achievement. In EFL contexts, it was found that the explicit instruction to L2 grammar was found to be beneficial for young learners (Dixon et al., 2012). Age factor is not considered to be a strong determiner for a successful L2 acquisition. Given the long input hours and the quality of instruction, it was stated that older learners outperformed younger ones (Dixon et al., 2012). Only for the purposes of providing long hours of L2 exposure to learners, it may be beneficial to start L2 instruction at earlier ages; however, it should be noted that learners may start performing high level of proficiency only after a long time. In other words, starting at earlier ages and providing consistent and qualified input are the important factors for a successful L2 acquisition in EFL contexts (Dixon et al., 2012). However, due to the policy implementations which include an early introduction of L2 into the primary English language curriculum, they caution us that it is now important to take the social, environmental, and individual factors into consideration. Moving from these factors, the importance of developing age-appropriate teaching methods, educating competent teachers of young learners, and considering the needs of learners for the successful implementation of policy reforms has caught the attention in the literature.

3.2.Language teaching policy and curriculum implementations in TEYL

Despite the outweigh in unconventional views on the critical period hypothesis (Copland et al., 2014), the age related critical period hypothesis issue is an important one for making educational policy and determining language teaching methodologies for young learners. As also emphasised in British Council's report (Rixon, 2013), 22 countries in the world lowered the starting age for beginning English in primary schools. In this quantitative study, the data from young learners' teachers in 64 countries were collected through an online questionnaire and a survey. This early start in so many countries made English a compulsory part of the primary curriculum. It is also a matter of concern for language teachers and educators whether young learners will be more native like and successful in learning a foreign language at earlier ages compared to adults or not. Similarly, as Burns et al. (2013) revealed in another British Council report, teachers wanted to know the types of different language teaching approaches and methods for young learners at various ages. With the aim of discovering the current teaching experiences, and teachers' and schools' collaboration to help TEYL, Burns et al. (2013) conducted a survey with 881 primary and secondary school English language teachers from 62 countries. Their results implied the growing need for more collaboration between schools, teachers and ministries of education for curriculum, syllabus, and materials development. Also, participating teachers needed to establish links with their counterparts from different countries to learn from each other and to be introduced in-service teacher education seminars in TEYL.

With regard to the reasons for the worldwide introduction of English in primary schools which is also named world's biggest policy development in education, Copland et al. (2014) categorise three certain underlying motives for this. First, the widespread use of English as a lingua franca in politics, economics, science, and education has resulted in more need for English speaking workforce. Second, parents want their children to benefit from more opportunities in the world and so demand English to be introduced at younger ages. Third, the misinterpretation of the conventional views on the critical period hypothesis in foreign language settings resulted in lowering the starting age in state primary schools mostly regardless of the necessary conditions.

In parallel with this expansion, there has been an increasing criticism of the lack of background conditions for lowering the starting age in state schools. In different parts of the world it is found that the policy reforms affect many

issues such as learning and teaching pedagogies for young learners, the choice of teachers' methodology and material preferences, teachers' understanding of their roles, identities and responsibilities in young learner classrooms, and the physical facilities of schools, the workload of English teachers, and the quality and quantity of teachers (Butler, 2015; Munoz, 2017; Rixon, 2013).

First, the policy reform, which is lowering the starting age for learning English in state schools, affects teaching pedagogies in young learner classrooms. Due to the worldwide expansion of English and the place of English as an international language, L2 is seen to be used for communicative purposes rather than an aim to learn. In other words, certain approaches and methods such as communicative language teaching or task-based learning and teaching have been embedded in the primary and secondary English language curricula (Burns et al., 2013; Copland et al., 2014; Kırkgöz, 2008b; Talim Terbiye Kurulu Başkanlığı, 2017). However, such initiatives have caused several problems and challenges as reported by teachers, young learners, and educators.

Second, the policy implementation reflects closely the relationship between teachers' methodology preferences in the classroom and their understanding of TEYL based on their previous pre-service education. Recent studies (Butler, 2015; Copland et al., 2014; Kırkgöz, 2008a; Orafi & Borg, 2009; Rixon, 2013), for example, emphasise the challenges primary English teachers have experienced while implementing the curricular in different countries. In Turkey, for instance, foreign language policy reforms have a long history. In 1997, the basic compulsory education was extended from 5 to 8 years, in which English language learning started in grade 4 and 5 for two hours in primary levels, and for four hours in grades 6, 7, and 8 in secondary levels. In 2013, the basic compulsory education was extended to 12 years, which was known as the 4+4+4 policy reform. With this change in 2013, English language learning became compulsory from grade 2 and was offered for two hours for grades 2, 3, and 4. For grades 5, 6, 7, and 8, English instruction was offered for four hours. However, after considering the low English language proficiency levels of young learners, the limited exposure hours, and the need for being socially, culturally and economically competitive, the MoNE launched an intensive English language programme with 15 hours of instruction for grades 5 in Turkey (Aksoy et al., 2018).

The starting age for learning English was reduced to the second grade with the introduction of the 2013 primary and secondary English curriculum in Turkey. Moving from this reform, Kırkgöz (2008a) investigated the challenges during the implementation of the primary English curriculum in primary state

schools through longitudinal case studies with the data collection tools such as classroom observations, interviews with various stakeholders, and lesson transcripts. In her mixed-method study with 50 Turkish primary English teachers, it was found that teachers' prior pre-service education and understanding of teaching English to young learners had an impact on determining the implementation of the communicative approach in the young learner curriculum. Specifically, teachers' lack of experience in using the practical communicative activities, their tendency to teach grammar most of the time, and their previous teaching experience with only adults were reported to reduce the extent of implementation of communicative activities suggested in the curricular in young learners classrooms. Also, communicative activities require extra time, creativity, thought, and planning, so some teachers consider this as a major hindrance due to the English lesson hours in state schools. As a result, they prefer to follow only the course books (Kırkgöz, 2008a). This situation causes the mismatch between macro language policies and micro teaching practices. Similar to Kırkgöz (2008a), Güngör and Güngör (2018) also emphasised that the norms of teachers' schooling embedded in the national curriculum and the nature of training they received at pre-service level determined the English teachers' preferences of materials selection and the communicative approach implementation in Turkey.

Likewise, researchers in other countries revealed similar findings to the aforementioned studies with regard to the factors impacting teachers' preferences and tendencies to apply communicative activities in young learner classrooms. Chen (2013), for example, in discussing the problems and different aspects of primary English curriculum in a short time and without the necessary background, identified several reasons for the problems related to the implementation of the communicative primary and secondary English curricular in Taiwan. Taiwan lowered the starting age varying in different regions of the country to grade 3 or in some cities even to grade 1. In Chen's (2013) exploratory study, those reasons were the inconsistency in starting grade levels for English education across the country, the shortage of qualified English teachers, the low-level language proficiency of primary English teachers in TEYL, the divergence of textbooks being used, large classes with mixed-level students, and the effects of English as a foreign language policy on the learning of other foreign languages. Butler (2014), in his review analysis and state of the art study, investigated the language policy and curriculum implementation process in East Asia countries: China, Japan, Taiwan, and Korea. English was introduced as a foreign language to lower grades: grade 3 in China, Korea, and Taiwan, and grade 5 in Japan as of 2013 curriculum policies. The

aims in these curricular were to improve learners' basic communicative skills in L2 and to enhance cross-cultural and cross-linguistic understanding. English is taught as a formal subject mainly through oral skills (listening and speaking) in China, Korea, and Taiwan while it is seen as foreign language activities integrated in lessons and taught by homeroom teachers rather than as an academic subject (Butler, 2014). All in all, lowering the starting age in learning L2 stems from the widespread notion of the CPH in these four countries. The problems in the implementation of the young learner curriculum are based on teachers' lack of oral proficiency skills in L2, their lack of self-confidence and willingness to teach, and teachers' lack of methodology training on TEYL. In addition, several other factors such as the local traditional notions of learning and teaching, the large class size, and national high-stake examinations full of grammar and translation cause problems in the implementation process (Butler, 2014; Güngör & Güngör, 2018; Kırkgöz, 2008b). This is due to the fact that while communicative oriented activities are used in the classroom, young learners are assessed via traditional pen and paper based exams.

In their qualitative studies with multiple data collection tools such as extensive video/audio recorded classroom observations, semi-structured, in-depth, and focal group interviews with teachers, students, school administrators, programme coordinators, and parents, and field notes, Ramirez Romero, Sayer, and Irigoyen (2014) investigated the practices and problems of implementing a national primary English curriculum in Mexico. The Ministry of Education in Mexico initiated two reforms, one of which was introducing English from kindergarten to sixth grades, and the other one of which was extending the compulsory education throughout high school. As a result, English became the compulsory subject in K-12 education in Mexico (Ramirez Romero et al., 2014). They also report similar findings: the mismatch between the sociocultural theory driven pedagogical approach in the curriculum and teachers' incomplete knowledge about it. Particularly, students in kindergarten are not introduced to their official language yet; however, the curriculum suggests L2 writing activities for this age group. Although the curriculum is based on sociocultural theory in child pedagogy, most Mexican young learners' cultural and social needs are not taken into consideration while the activities are prepared. To illustrate, asking fifth-graders to write a wedding invitation card is not a part of Mexican culture though it has some linguistic aims. Another reason for the problems is that the selection of textbooks is done by publishers, which leads teachers to focus on the teaching methodology spelled out in the course book. Also, the course books arrive at schools towards the mid or end

of the term and in terms of content they are not well-suited to Mexican cul-
ture. Consequently, teachers on their own have to figure out the appropriate
activities and materials based on the curriculum without the course book.
While some of them try to apply the approaches and use a variety of re-
sources and activities in line with the curriculum guidelines, most of them
prefer to rely on traditional methods full of teacher-centred mechanical activi-
ties. It is highlighted that in curriculum implementation the new curriculum
should be applied gradually and with flexibility, allowing easy access to the
resources, providing in-service training for teachers, and considering various
stakeholders' opinions and needs.

Brining (2015), similar to Butler (2015) and Ramirez Romero et al. (2014),
investigated the challenges, professional development needs, and training op-
portunities of 155 mixed-nationality young learner EFL teachers in forty dif-
ferent countries. In this mixed-methods study, data were collected through
semi-structured interviews and questionnaires. The findings showed that 85%
of the participants did not take any formal pre-service TEYL training and
nearly half received no such training in their first job. The participants report-
ed that they found classroom management, age appropriate material selection,
motivation, and teaching multi-level classes most difficult to deal with (Brin-
ing, 2015). Hence, it was suggested in the study that young learner EFL
teachers needed local teacher education seminars, considering the needs of
the society, young learners, and the school.

On the other hand, Orafi and Borg (2009) examined three EFL teachers'
implementation of a new secondary English curriculum in Libya. In their
qualitative study with data coming from interviews and observations, it was
found out that key curricular principles relating to the use of English for
communicative purposes and pair work were not reflected in teachers' class-
room practices. This was mainly due to the fact that the new curriculum con-
flicted with so many features of the educational context in Libya. The other
reasons for the mismatch between the new curriculum and teachers' enact-
ment of it were: EFL teachers' low level of English language proficiency es-
pecially in oral skills and the teacher authoritative view which was promoted
in the previous curriculum but altered in the latest one, which challenged the
many years of convention. From teachers' perspective, there was a mismatch
between the young learners' real language levels and what curriculum asked
them to do. Given the traditional pen and paper-based examinations across
the country, teachers found implementing the new communicative curriculum
difficult. Considering these factors, it was suggested that teachers be support-
ed through on-going trainings and the new curriculum be evaluated from

teachers', parents' and learners' eyes (Orafi & Borg, 2009). In their four-year-long ethnographic study with ten Chinese EFL secondary teachers, Zhu and Shu (2017) reported similar findings: the need for offering systematic training of teachers, considering the context-specific needs, and evaluating the curriculum from multiple perspectives within time.

4.Conclusion and Future Directions

Drawing support from the recent research, it can be concluded that for a successful L2 acquisition there are optimal conditions varying according to the learning setting, pedagogical goals, programme setup, learner characteristics, and the interaction among these variables (Dixon et al., 2012). This chapter argues that there are crucial requirements for the ultimate attainment in teaching English to young learners in foreign language learning settings. First of all, it becomes obvious that long-term advantage of young learners is not found in a foreign language setting. This is due to several reasons. The amount and type of input in immersion classes are not equal to the ones in foreign language learning settings. In other words, while some young learner classes seem to comprise total physical activities, games, songs, others seem to focus on grammar exercises and comprehension-type activities (Copland et al., 2014). This prevents young learners from taking the advantage of implicit language learning. On the other hand, explicit teaching techniques are observed to be more useful for adult learners due to their cognitive skills. Still, it is emphasised that explicit instruction in limited L2 settings seems to be beneficial to young learners in grammar teaching. Therefore, effective approaches for teaching young learners need to be examined for context specific effectiveness through video-recorded classroom observations, experimental studies, and diary studies. The benefits of using technology in and out of the classroom to enhance the learning opportunities also deserves more attention.

Second, teachers' being competent and well-qualified enough to teach English to young learners from pedagogical aspect is found to be another determining factor. Teachers' understanding of the nature of young learners, being open to new ideas and innovations in the field, and their language proficiency to apply age-appropriate instructional practices are thought to be a contributing factor to the ultimate attainment. Accordingly, research by using in-depth classroom observation provides valuable insight into how young learners perform linguistic and non-linguistic behaviour, which activities they prefer to participate, and what factors are motivating for them. In order to manage classes properly, to give quality input, instructions, and feedback, and to simplify the target language components, teachers' language proficiency levels

need to be high. It is discussed that a successful teacher needs to know the learning strategies and motivation sources, and analyse the learning environment of these learners. Considering the English as an international language notion around the globe, the suggested approach in primary and secondary school English language curriculum in EFL countries turns to be communicative language teaching. This notion is due to the view that young learners need to learn English for communicative purposes rather than knowledge about English. However, teachers who are expected to be using CLT in young learner classrooms need to use L2 communicatively. However, some teachers may not see themselves competent enough in terms of language proficiency and pedagogical concerns (Copland et al., 2014; Kırkgöz, 2008a). Moving from here, it can be suggested that opportunities for teacher preparation and training need to be expanded. This can be achieved in different ways. First, teachers need to be introduced to research-based information about the recent trends and methodological techniques for young learners. They need to be well-equipped with the importance of and underlying concepts on TEYL. Second, English for specific purposes could be integrated into the methodology courses so as to inform pre-service teachers about the use of L2 in managing large classes, maintaining discipline, and increasing motivation. Such an ESP perspective may help pre-service teachers be used to the classroom language and effective, accurate, and fluent teacher talk which may then be a model for young learners (Copland et al., 2014; Freeman, 2016). In so doing, effective instruction and feedback giving, speaking and writing teaching, and classroom managing will be easier for these teachers. Parents, on the other hand, are found to be effective in helping young learners gain home literacy practices such as reading books, taking them to the library. Thus parents, in collaboration with school administration and teachers, need to be educated for the importance of starting to learn a foreign language at an early age (Munoz, 2017). An alternative research in the future may focus on the role of parents in shaping children's affective domains toward learning a foreign language.

Third, considering sociocultural differences in local contexts gains huge importance in recent years (Johnson, 2009; Güngör & Güngör, 2018). Teaching mixed-level students, students with learning difficulties, and students with diverse cultural backgrounds remains unexplored (Copland et al., 2014). In order to inform teachers about sociocultural differences in TEYL, various projects could be done in collaboration with universities, ministries of education, and state schools. Pre-service teachers need to be introduced with the sociocultural aspects of learning foreign languages and discuss the reasons for

young learners' unwillingness to learn a foreign language. They also need to gain insight into the appropriate strategies for young learners with different needs. One way to achieve this may be providing pre-service teachers who attend practice teaching with the experiences of novice teachers about the realities of TEYL in diverse regions (Akcan & Güngör, 2018). These new experiences may be discussed in the post observation sessions in the practicum. These experiences may be assigned problem solving and decision making tasks for pre-service teachers.

Finally, researchers interested in the CPH need to collect larger data from diverse geographical regions to better understand how affective varieties, individual characteristics, and identity issues contribute to or limit performance levels of young learners in learning a foreign language (DeKeyser, 2013; Marinova-Todd et al., 2000; Munoz, 2017). This is due to the common sense found in this review analysis that the length of exposure to the target language may affect the language proficiency levels of young learners positively, but not automatically guarantee better performance. That's to say, future research needs to be done to learn about the effective ways to increase young learners' motivation towards learning English, and how the CPH (if it does) helps young learners develop their language skills through longitudinal experimental studies in EFL contexts. While carrying out studies, researchers had better utilize various data collection tools ranging from questionnaires to diaries of young learners and teachers for triangulation to gain deeper insight into the most appropriate ways to establish different forms of knowledge such as implicit, explicit in TEYL and educating teachers. Furthermore, the future research needs to focus on how secondary school learners build on their English knowledge gained at primary levels and how they benefit from early start (Burns, et al. 2013; Nikolov & Mihaljevic-Djigunovic, 2011). This can be achieved through large-scale projects including observations, interviews, proficiency tests, diaries, and surveys with young learners and English teachers.

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