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From research-as-practice to exploratory practice-as-research in language teaching and beyond.

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Abstract

Practitioner research is a flourishing area with a significant body of theoretical and empirical research, but often researchers remain isolated, unaware of impactful work by colleagues in related fields. Exploratory Practice (EP) is one innovative form, uniting creative pedagogy and research methods, the potential contribution of which has hitherto been neglected. EP's emphasis on puzzling and understanding is a means of demystifying occluded practices which places learners, teachers and researchers as co-investigators at the heart of the research-practice nexus. Its radical positioning of learners as co-researchers, alongside teachers, teacher educators and others, means crossing boundaries, (re-)negotiating identities, in language learning/teaching/researching, thus raising epistemological challenges for the field. The contribution of this state-of-the-art article is to provide a meta-analysis of these themes and challenges, critically analyzing the complexities involved as the

paradigms of research, practice and practitioner research shift from notions of research-as-practice towards practice-as-research.

1. Introduction

Notions of what it means for practitioners to engage in researching teaching and learning are changing rapidly, impacting on the related fields of Applied Linguistics and Language Education. Calls abound for research which is reflexive and responsive to context (e.g. Zeichner & Noffke 2001; Wedell & Malderez 2013). Proposals are made for the involvement of practitioners in theorizing their own practice (Yoshida et al. 2009; K.E. Johnson & Golombek 2011; Mann & Walsh 2017). Teachers are encouraged to position themselves as researchers in their own right (Cochran-Smith & Lytle 2009; Borg 2013), with valuable insights to offer. The paradigms of research and pedagogy are subtly shifting as practitioners actualize their skills, expertise and insights as researchers. However, as Kuhn notes: ‘novelty emerges only with difficulty, manifested by resistance’ (1962/1996: 64) and too often this can be seen as practitioners are marginalized (K.E. Johnson & Golombek 2002) in the field. The field is defined as the mesh between Applied Linguistics and Language Education. This article traces the intricacies of this mesh, concurrently highlighting interdisciplinary connections, in order to explore empirical and theoretical developments in/from praxis.

An innovative form of practitioner research, EXPLORATORY PRACTICE (Allwright 2003; Allwright & Hanks 2009), proposes a fully inclusive approach whereby learners are seen as KEY DEVELOPING PRACTITIONERS; co-researchers alongside their teachers. Exploratory Practice (EP) promotes principles of puzzling, working for understanding and quality of life; it prioritizes practitioners working

together for mutual development, and knits research with pedagogy, in the search for deep and relevant understandings of praxis. An organic framework (Hanks 2017a), EP has developed quickly, aiming to utilize everyday pedagogic practices as multimodal methodological tools for investigation. Crucially, EP's involvement of learners, working as researchers of their own practice alongside teachers, teacher educators, psychologists, curriculum designers, means that rather than separating research and pedagogy, they are united. This nexus of theory and practice has the potential to enrich our understandings of culture and wellbeing in language learning/teaching. Until recently, though, discussions have tended to focus on internal arguments, and a lack of awareness of interdisciplinary connections means that debate has been limited.

This article is a meta-analysis which goes beyond systematically reviewing the literature to consider implications of established and emergent themes and contested ideas from/for different perspectives. It addresses the following questions:

1. What, if any, is the impact of Exploratory Practice in terms of
 - a. Global reach?
 - b. Global uptake?
 - c. Implementation in different contexts (e.g. primary, secondary, tertiary education)?
2. What are the theoretical themes and insights emerging from the literature?
3. What are the (epistemological, methodological, pedagogical) affordances and/or constraints of enacting Exploratory Practice?
4. How do the conceptual and theoretical developments in Exploratory Practice relate to Applied Linguistics, Language Education and beyond?

Despite the wealth of material available, EP has frequently been downplayed. Critics assert: (i) EP only takes place in limited, privileged contexts, (ii) there is not enough published work to warrant attention, or (iii) the work lacks theoretical heft. Typical comments include: ‘it lacks global reach’, ‘it exists in small, isolated geographical/institutional areas’, ‘it’s just another name for Action Research/Reflective Practice/Teacher Research’, ‘it’s ephemeral, just a flash-in-the-pan’. This article provides a comprehensive review of the EP literature which (i) sets it in geographical, historical, theoretical context, (ii) shows the development of the EP framework, (iii) critically examines developments in theory, methodology and practice, (iv) discusses the affordances of such work in language teaching and beyond. This is timely because it chimes with recent currents of debate focusing on agency, identity, interculturality, trust and wellbeing as key concepts for theory-building. The article aims first to dispel common misconceptions, then discuss EP as a vibrant area of creative research and pedagogy.

2. Method

Criteria for the review began with work in the public domain. I surveyed a range of international journals using key words such as ‘exploratory practice’, ‘integrating research and pedagogy’, ‘understanding’, ‘collegiality’, ‘quality of life’ (i.e. the EP principles – see Section 6 below). The search was refined by adding synonyms or related terms (e.g. ‘wellbeing’). I also selected ten journals in which work on EP might be published and searched these manually. I examined international publications: Applied Linguistics, ELT Journal, Innovations in Education and Teaching International, Journal of EAP, Language Teaching, Language Teaching Research, Modern Language Journal, System, Teacher Education, TESOL Quarterly

and monographs, chapters, edited volumes, all of which are subject to rigorous peer-review processes. I included Doctoral theses, since these are exemplars of cutting-edge work in research methods with novel theoretical insights, whose peer-review processes (i.e. examination criteria) are as robust as those for publication. I deliberately included publications in languages other than English, notably Portuguese.

Related areas where there are already comprehensive reviews, such as Teacher Research (Borg 2009, 2013), Action Research (Burns 2005, 2010), and Reflective Practice (Edge 2011; Mann & Walsh 2017), were excluded from the search parameters. They informed the analysis but as they do not address EP directly they are not the locus for discussion. Newsletter articles and Masters' dissertations/theses were also not included, as the level of the peer-review process is not comparable. However, a rich corpus is available at https://www.maxwell.vrac.puc-rio.br/menu_etds.php for future analysis.

The survey went beyond settings of English Language Teaching (ELT), English as a Foreign Language (EFL), and teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). It included Second Language Acquisition (SLA), teaching 'other' languages, i.e. Modern Foreign Languages (MFL), English for Academic Purposes (EAP), and Language Teacher Education (LTE). The discussion then connects these areas with developments in general Education, Professional Development and Healthcare.

Before continuing, a note regarding the epistemology of writing. As a member of the EP network, with extensive access to EP publications, I bring a wealth of insights and a comprehensive overview of global activity in this arena. I am, inevitably, an advocate and a presence in the writing, yet this does not preclude a

critical, rigorous approach. In presenting a transparent account of the analytical work, I break here with the tradition of a third-party stance (see Clark & Ivanič 1997; Holliday 2002 for critique). Instead, I take a dialogic (Bakhtin 1986) approach. I contacted authors of doctoral theses directly and engaged in conversations with key figures across continents. Moreover, I aligned myself with Breen (2006) and Gieve & Miller (2006a), positing that practitioners are actors with agency. Therefore I acknowledged narratives/case studies written by teachers and learners and represented them as authors alongside more recognized researchers. This contributes to robust, creative theory-building and exemplifies developing THEORY-IN-DIALOGUE with those at the forefront of research and practice.

3. Exploratory Practice: Global reach, uptake and contexts

I analyzed 97 articles, chapters, and books published over twenty-seven years. Each text focused on EP, either giving an account of empirical research, or exemplifying and developing the conceptual framework.

<<Insert Table 1 about here >>

As Table 1 demonstrates, EP grew from small beginnings in the 1990s (first mention is ‘Exploratory Teaching’ in Allwright & Bailey 1991), with the bulk of publications appearing from 2003 onwards. The corpus includes two books focusing on conceptual developments of the EP framework (Allwright & Hanks 2009; Hanks 2017a), and five further volumes, engaging in theory-building rooted in praxis (Gieve & Miller 2006b; Gunn 2009a; Tarone & Swierzbis 2009; Dikilitaş & Hanks 2018;

Slimani-Rolls & Kiely 2018). With a recent surge of publications, EP is entering a new phase, demonstrating the impact of the framework across the field.

The numbers in Table 1 alone do not convey the full impact of EP, however. Key critical questions remain:

- What is the global reach of EP?
- How much uptake of EP has there been globally?
- In which contexts has EP been implemented?

Table 2 summarizes 94 empirical studies according to country, context and focus.

There is demonstrable global uptake, crossing seventeen countries: Australia, Brazil, China, Finland, Italy, Israel, Japan, Jordan, Northern Cyprus, Oman, Singapore, Taiwan, Thailand, Turkey, United Arab Emirates (UAE), United Kingdom (UK), United States of America (USA). However, I was unable to find any articles about EP in Russia, Canada or countries in Africa and found few from the Indian subcontinent. Moreover, although EP is well-established in Rio de Janeiro, it does not appear to have had the same uptake elsewhere in Brazil or South America.

Contexts where EP has been implemented go beyond the geographical, as Table 2 shows. EP has taken place in state schools¹, universities and private language schools.

Educational contexts included:

- Primary (learners aged approximately 6–11 years)
- Secondary (learners aged approximately 12+ years)
- Tertiary (learners aged 18+ years)
 - Pre-sessional students

¹ Note: In Brazil the state school system includes ‘Municipal’ schools, which does not adequately translate into English. In the UK, the term ‘public school’ has connotations of fee-paying schools (seen as elitist and only for the rich). I have therefore avoided using these terms, preferring instead ‘state schools’.

- Undergraduate students
- Post-graduate students
- Private language schools and institutions.

<< Insert Table 2 about here >>

The resistance EP shows to superficial groupings is noteworthy. With an emphasis on collegial, multidisciplinary work, the boundaries between roles and contexts become porous. For example, Dalsky & Garant (2016) described their experience of EP with learners in Finland and Japan, focusing on intercultural issues emerging from an attempt at international learning collaboration in cyberspace. It could not therefore be assigned to one country or another (it is flagged as Japan/Finland in Table 2, but this should not be taken as an indication of the primacy of either country). Hanks (2009a) investigated collegiality through case studies from Brazil and Turkey as teachers and learners incorporated EP in state schools, while Rose (2007) elucidated EP at a special needs institution in Finland. Moreover, Miller et al. (2008) exemplified the collegiality principle, by not only researching jointly, but also co-writing about their experiences as language teachers (Braga), teacher educators (Barreto, Cunha, Kuschmir), student-teacher (Bezerra). They wove Sette's experience as a psychoanalyst into their multi-voiced account of researching their learning/teaching practice in state schools, university and private language institutions. Thus EP celebrates the dynamic complexity (Tudor 2001, 2003; van Lier 2013) of classroom language learning, defying casual categorizations. These interwoven strands exemplify the deliberate blurring of theory, practice, contexts and foci that Cochran-Smith & Lytle (2009) advocate for practitioner research.

A criticism is that EP only takes place in limited contexts, with adult learners in relatively small, well-resourced classes. But the literature contradicts this assumption. Table 2 shows a significant amount of EP work has been undertaken in different situations.

For example, in Brazil, Soares (2008) worked with her pupils to investigate the use of class blogs for language development and found mutual development in co-discovering technology for the classroom. Miller et al. (2008) brought together young learners, student-teachers, teacher-educators and teachers as they investigated their puzzles in state schools across Rio de Janeiro (hereafter Rio). This links to the theoretical work of Tarone & Swierzbina (2009) which focused on EP in SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION (SLA), investigating key issues such as interlanguage, learner developmental sequences, lexical complexity, scaffolding, strategies for communication and treatment of error. The work encompasses different categories in Applied Linguistics rooted in the USA. The work of the following practitioners, positioned as co-researchers unpacked issues central to SLA such as learner agency, anxiety, motivation.

In Thailand, Gunn (2001, 2003) worked with EFL young learners to investigate notions of communicative competence via EP. Gunn (2009a) also worked with twenty-two teachers in various educational institutions in Jordan, Oman, Saudi Arabia, UAE. Studies included: involving learners puzzling about student/teacher perspectives on 'native-speakerism/non-native-speakerism' (McLaren 2009); writing-tutor training (Ronesi 2009); studies investigating the use of 'webquests' (Al Zieni 2009; Jawabreh 2009) and on-line discussion (Gunn 2009b). At primary level, pupils puzzled using pictures and role plays (Al Falasi 2009; Naqi 2009), while at secondary school level, teachers worked with their young learners to explore attitudes to

textbooks or authentic materials (Sabbagh 2009; Thabit 2009), plagiarism (Bou-Mehdi 2009) and oral communication skills (Salari 2009). University students also joined their teachers in exploring student needs (Campa 2009; Hejjawi 2009; Saeed 2009), use of portfolios (John 2009), attitudes to communication (Malki 2009), critical thinking (Maharaj & Rowe 2009) and learner autonomy (Raven 2009; J.Ward, 2009), and perceptions of academic writing and plagiarism (Ahmed 2009; Al Mazrooei 2009; A.Ward 2009).

There is a proliferation of publications emanating from practitioner researchers working in ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES (EAP) in universities and colleges. This encompasses authors working on pre-sessional programmes, preparing students for Undergraduate (UG) or Post-graduate (PG) academic degrees, and in-sessional programmes for both UG and PG students.

For example, in Israel, Perpignan (2003) used EP principles to guide her investigation into written feedback with her students. In China, Zhang (2004) investigated the challenges of group work with her students in extensive reading classes, while Li (2006) problematized the notion of researching UG final-year student motivation(s), and C. Zheng (2012) explored university student learning through peer-feedback on writing. In the USA, Best et al. (2015) also examined student attitudes to writing and peer-feedback, and in the UAE, Gunn (2005) analyzed UG student perceptions of practitioner research. Meanwhile in Taiwan, Chu (2007) investigated student responses to empowerment, as they became decision-makers (rather than relying on the teacher) at a Junior College, and Chen (2016) examined the developing understandings of email literacy of UG students at a technology university.

In Japan, Tajino & C. Smith (2005) used Soft Systems Methodology (see Section 7) as a lens alongside EP to investigate UG student attitudes to speaking practices. Later, Tajino (2009) worked with his UG students to investigate their puzzles about language learning, while C. Smith (2009) investigated EAP curriculum design with his students. Nakamura (2008) focused on teacher/student talk inside and outside the classroom using Conversational Analysis as a tool to complement his EP work on developing understandings of student struggles with speaking. Pinner (2016) used narratives to investigate student attitudes to self-assessment in speaking classes. Stewart et al. (2014) worked on a longitudinal study with UG students critically examining the EP conceptualization of ‘quality of life’, while Smithers (Forthcoming) also investigated quality of life, working with students ‘of the third age’ (post-retirement) in Japan to investigate puzzles about language learning.

The EP framework itself is the focus of investigations. In the UK, Hanks (2012) interrogated the notion of collegiality when a teacher and her pre-sessional PG students preparing for Masters’ degrees in Business tried EP for the first time. Elsewhere, Dar (2015) probed the principle of ‘involve everyone’ as she worked with her PG pre-sessional students to find out why they appeared reluctant to do their homework, and Bond (2017) worked with her students to understand their difficulties with English spelling. In two companion articles, Hanks (2015a) invited UG pre-sessional learners to express their puzzles about language learning and analyzed the perceptions of teachers (Hanks 2015b) puzzling about, then co-constructing the meaning(s) of their work with learners, using their normal pedagogic practices as investigative tools. She found that researching, working for understanding, excited much interest in practitioners. In a separate case study, Hanks (2017b) probed the EP

principle of integrating research and pedagogy while working on an intensive summer pre-session with PG students in a UK university.

In Northern Cyprus, Karanfil (2018) examined his UG students' reading activities, discovering that they were reading more literature (through on-line media), than he expected. Öncül & Webb (2018) worked to investigate their puzzle about the frequent use of unannounced tests with their students. In Turkey, student attitudes to oral presentations (Mumford 2018) and reading comprehension (Ergünay 2018) were investigated, while Biçer (2018) and Doğdu & Arca (2018) investigated curriculum design through EP with learners and teachers at their universities.

EP, then, is well-represented in EAP. Arguably, it is even well-suited to EAP BECAUSE OF the principle of integrating research and pedagogy.

Many EP studies are situated in LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION (LTE). Miller, for example, is prolific in publishing accounts in (i) initial LTE of students destined for the teaching profession, (ii) in-service LTE involving both experienced and novice professionals, and (iii) CPD in educational communities of practice (Lave & Wenger 1991; Wenger 1998). In a longitudinal study, Miller worked with three participants to investigate the dialogic processes of pre- and post-lesson consultations over several years (Miller 2003). In another longitudinal study of twenty-two student-teachers (Miller 2009a, 2009b) she advocated a 'puzzle-driven syllabus' as a productive way to inspire novice language teachers.

Working with colleagues and pre-service student teachers (e.g. Miller & Barreto 2015; Moraes Bezerra & Miller 2015), Miller and colleagues used journals, autobiographies, interviews, materials design and lesson-planning as POTENTIALLY EXPLOITABLE PEDAGOGIC ACTIVITIES (PEPAs – see Section 4 below). Miller analyzed the written assignments (monographs) of 15 teachers, students and work

colleagues which described their engagement with PEPAs and EP, concluding that we need to acknowledge the academic affordances of such work, while also embracing a ‘meta-reflexiva’ (Miller 2012: 337) dimension to quotidian professional lives.

Wu (2004, 2005, 2006) investigated practitioner responses to the agentic possibilities of implementing curriculum change in LTE in China. His analysis merged activity theory, philosophy, narrative inquiry and critical realism through an EP lens. He probed the notions of language and understanding, concluding:

EP is essentially an ontological venture for the purpose of making a difference in teachers’ and learners’ lives, rather than for efficiency and effectiveness in passing words along.

(Wu 2006: 347)

In considering the long-established tradition of ‘team-teaching’, Hiratsuka (2016) investigated the common (in Japan) practice of pairing American/British/Australian teachers with Japanese teachers, using EP as a lens. Noting the complexities involved, Hiratsuka found that EP contributed to successful team-teaching, if both partners engaged in the questioning, researching process. Taking this further, Tajino et al. (2016) proposed an innovative shift: TEACHERS AS TEAM-LEARNERS. This has implications for LTE as well as teaching and learning more generally. As Tajino & C. Smith maintain: team-learning incorporates all those involved in a lesson, as a ‘more collaborative and inclusive approach to classroom language teaching and learning’ (2016: 12).

Confronting the spectre of professional BURNOUT, Allwright & Miller described working with ‘several hundred public and private sector teachers’ (2012: 105) in Rio engaging in EP over twenty years. They examined the incorporation of EP into a Teaching Practice course for learner-teachers and concluded that EP principles

fortify 'future teachers against the pressures of school life that threaten eventual burnout' (ibid.: 110). Similarly, Miller et al. (2015) examined PEPAs in action, as enacted by a teacher educator, novice teachers and the 'home' teacher with her pupils. More recently, Miller & Cunha (2017), provided a critical analysis of EP with twenty-one students, 16 in-service teachers and 5 translators on a specialization course. They expanded the idea of PEPAs into the notion of Potentially Exploitable Reflective Activities', or PERAs.

In Singapore, Silver adopted an EP stance to explore trainee-teachers' emotional and academic struggles, as well as their 'perspectives on language teaching, subject teaching [e.g. mathematics, science] and the role of language in subject teaching' (2008: 105) in primary classrooms. She highlighted the risks of positioning teachers and learners as objects of study and argued instead that EP affords opportunities for teachers and learner-teachers to actively co-construct their understandings. In the UAE, Gunn (2010) discussed the engagement of her students (language teachers themselves) on an MA TESOL programme. She analyzed student reluctance to engage in reflection by involving students in her EP puzzle and encouraged them to be critical in their reflective logs. She concluded that their frustration with a written reflection task framed in culturally specific terms, was potentially a hindrance. But by grappling with these issues, through collaborative puzzling, they developed their understandings of their own teaching identities for the future.

Also working with language teachers, this time in Australia, Rowland (2011) explored the potential of EP as a research method which acknowledges pre-existing teacher experience as a gateway to reading and critiquing research articles. He argued that EP, in challenging established hierarchies of academia, reminded these

potentially disempowered professionals of their right to hold and express opinions, and to engage in research themselves, thus contributing to the development of the field.

In the USA, Crane (2015, 2017a) examined the affordances of EP as implemented in a ‘methods course’ to aid graduate student instructors to develop their teaching skills. Her critical analysis points to the need for more research into mentoring relationships between novice and experienced instructors. Here, the languages taught have shifted from English to German and Spanish, moving beyond EFL to encompass the teaching of MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES (MFL).

A rich research stream is emerging in MFL (though see Hanks 2017a: 293 for the meta-puzzle ‘why the separation between MFL and EFL?’). For example, Slimani-Rolls (2003) worked with 2 teachers and 60 learners of business French at UG level in the UK and argued that collegial ways of working can enhance understandings and mutual development. She proceeded to examine notions of task-based learning in SLA (Slimani-Rolls 2005a, 2009), finding that ‘separating language from its sociocultural context will not bring us any closer to understanding language development in the classroom’ (Slimani-Rolls 2009: 68). This links with Tarone & Swierzbins’s (2009) argument that SLA theories in abstraction risk losing impact; instead, rooting theory in classroom practice indicates a better route for development.

Bloom (2007), working in the USA with UG and PG students on a Spanish-for-healthcare-professionals course, found that this type of non-traditional language classroom (i.e. focusing on Spanish for specialized purposes) exposed hidden tensions which needed attention. Elsewhere in the USA, Crane et al. (2013) conducted a study of EP with Graduate Student Instructors (GSIs) and experienced language teachers/programme directors of German, Japanese, Korean and Swahili. They

highlighted the EP principles of puzzling and collaboratively investigating and noted an added benefit. The project had originally been set up to support GSIs and ‘served an important mentoring function’ (Crane et al. 2013: 123). An unexpected bonus was that the teachers, directors and facilitators began to scrutinize their assumptions about pedagogy and to learn from one another across departments. Crane (2017b) provided further analysis of this reflexive approach, noting that as the GSIs investigated their puzzles and developed their understandings, she, the teacher-supervisor, was also able to unpack her puzzle about motivating novice teachers.

Turning to consider work with experienced language teachers, EP has impacted IN-SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION and CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT (CPD). Miller & Bannell (1998) used narratives and Critical Discourse Analysis (Fairclough 1989) to gain understandings of classroom life as experienced by 20 in-service teachers of English, French and Portuguese in primary and secondary state schools in Brazil. Meanwhile, in Italy, Hanks (1999) worked with a group of mid-to-late-career primary school teachers who were sent by their Ministry of Education to improve/update both English language and teaching methodology on a CPD course. From a disconsolate beginning, the teachers re-discovered their agency through puzzling together, and the teacher-trainer/researcher gained deeper understanding of the obstacles they faced at work.

In Turkey, Özdeniz (1996) suggested ways of using EP as a form of teacher development, Eken (1999) incorporated learners’ perspectives in teacher observation, and Bartu (2003) worked with experienced teachers incorporating EP as part of their CPD. More recently, Trotman (2018) worked to facilitate language teachers becoming practitioner researchers on a university-based CPD programme and presented a critical analysis of EP and Action Research through his case studies, concluding that

they can co-exist comfortably. Hanks & Dikilitaş (2018) discussed the mentoring process of working with experienced language professionals as they engaged in EP for the first time in sites in Turkey and Northern Cyprus. They concluded that mentoring through EP is ‘a form of collaborative learning based on socio-constructivist theory’ (2018: 33) which ‘turns the “cascade training model” upside down’ (ibid.).

In Australia, Benson et al. (2018) provided a multi-voiced account of their continuing professional development as teachers and teacher educator working together, concluding that the flexibility of the EP framework provided both structure and scope for ‘sustained and meaningful reflection on practice’ (2018: 16). And in the UK, Slimani-Rolls & Kiely (2014) reported on a project involving EP in CPD for 8 teachers/lecturers in Languages, Business Management and Law in Higher Education. They argued that this work aided teachers in reflecting critically on their own practices, realising only through data analysis that their beliefs about a learner-centred approach were not concomitant with their actions. Most recently, Slimani-Rolls & Kiely (2018) discussed their CPD work with EAP and MFL practitioners, concurring with Allwright (2009, 2015, 2016) and Miller (2010, 2012) that EP offers a range of emerging possibilities for the field.

In sum, this survey indicates that distinctions between areas of activity are fluid (see Bauman 2000/2012 on liquid modernity). Many of the studies above appear to be embedded in different settings and contexts (CPD, EAP, LTE, MFL, SLA), but these field-boundaries are dissolved by the agency-potential of EP. The principle of involving everyone in the research process means both collapsing barriers and embracing complexity to bring research and practice together. Conceptual

developments such as positioning learners and teachers as co-researchers and/or integrating research and pedagogy are challenging, but worth investigating further.

4. Learners and teachers as co-researchers integrating research and pedagogy

The EP principle of INTEGRATING RESEARCH AND PEDAGOGY proposes building research into teachers' normal teaching practices rather than adding to an already heavy teaching load. This foregrounds the ethical stance of involving practitioners puzzling about their pedagogy (Allwright & Hanks 2009) and eschewing third-party research (Allwright 2005a). However, ACKNOWLEDGEMENT/ANONYMITY is an issue. Common ethical practice of assigning pseudonyms to practitioners becomes dubious, since this anonymization strips them of their agency. Even when acknowledged by name, practitioners are not normally identified as authors themselves in the broader literature. For example, Carvalho (2009), Dikilitaş (2017), Goral (2018), Houghton (2018), Lecumberri (2018), Rawson (2018), Salvi (2017a), Sena (2009), and Siqueiros (2009) (teachers and teacher educators), Magno (2009), Santos (2009), and Souza (2009) (learners) contributed narratives in Allwright & Hanks (2009), Hanks (2017a) or Slimani-Rolls & Kiely (2018), but they do not appear in bibliographies/references reporting the work. This contributes to the myth that 'teachers and learners don't do research'. A conscious, ethical decision must be made to acknowledge individuals for their work, and to indicate their authorship. Therefore Table 3 summarizes case studies and narratives of empirical EP work written by learners and teachers as co-researchers which provide useful indicators of emerging concepts and themes.

<< Insert Table 3 about here >>

One might initially assume from Tables 2 and 3 that the instigators are (i) academic researchers guiding practitioners to develop better classroom practice, (ii) academics using EP as a theoretical framework for their doctoral and MA studies, or (iii) school/university teachers aiming to improve practice. However, a more critical eye observes that although published texts are assigned to academics (whose contracts oblige them to publish regularly), the original instigators frequently identify as teachers (Lyra et al. 2003; Perpignan 2009a, 2009b) or teacher educators (Miller & Moraes Bezerra 2005; Rowland 2011; Crane 2015). In my case, I was a teacher and teacher educator when I began researching/publishing (Hanks 1999) as were Gunn (2003), Miller (2003), and Wu (2004).

Naturally, much of the work discussed thus far has been conducted and reported by teachers, teacher educators and researchers or academics working as consultants. But EP proponents also argue for the inclusion of LEARNERS AS CO-RESEARCHERS; as key developing practitioners (Allwright & Hanks 2009) alongside their teachers in FULLY INCLUSIVE PRACTITIONER RESEARCH.

At first sight, there are no studies initiated by learners – logically, if they have never heard of practitioner research, it is difficult to see how they could initiate. However, in the UK, teachers reported that a learner, ‘Ted’, became excited by his EP work, and inspired his classmates in another class to try EP (see Hanks 2015a, 2017a). In Brazil, young learners (Santos 2009; Souza 2009) expressed their experiences of, and intentions to continue, EP. Another narrative (Simões, Braga & Fish Braga 2009) tells of a learner who transferred EP concepts to his new classmates when he moved to a new school. Evidently both learners and teachers can initiate EP themselves.

Central to EP is the idea of using pedagogic activities as tools for investigation. These POTENTIALLY EXPLOITABLE PEDAGOGIC ACTIVITIES (PEPAs) are defined as:

slightly adapted pedagogic activities that teachers and learners are familiar with [...] tools to involve practitioners in the reflexive process

(Moraes Bezerra & Miller 2015: 105)

The latter provide examples from their work, including a teacher who investigated racist attitudes reflected in/through language use in classrooms as part of his EP work.

There are many instances of teachers and learners presenting their PEPAs. For example, A. Andrade (2009) described the PEPA she and her students undertook investigating student drop-out. Dividing the class into groups, each with a different task to illuminate the same puzzling matter gave a range of perspectives which then coalesced as one research/pedagogy enterprise, affording a wealth of opportunities to practise both language and research. In Hong Kong, Chuk (2009a, 2009b) used learner diaries, written self-reflection, questionnaires, and social media with her students on a Junior College EAP course. In the UK, Banister (2018a, 2018b) discussed the questions he faced when initiating puzzling with learners in his EAP classes. He shared his worries (If learners initiate puzzles would he lose control? Would they have any puzzles?) with disarming honesty. This is reminiscent of ‘Jenny²’ and ‘Bella’ in Hanks (2015b), or ‘John’ in Hanks (2017b) who also worried about whether their students would create manageable, researchable questions, but reported that once they allowed learners to participate, student (and teacher) motivation levels increased.

² Pseudonyms were required by the institution; participants jointly agreed monikers with the researcher.

With equal transparency, C. Andrade (2017) recounted her experiences with young learners in Rio who engaged in destructive behaviour in the classroom. She initially interpreted this as an expression of hostility (towards the language, the course book, or herself), but by sharing her puzzle, and inviting her students to investigate, a different picture emerged. She invited her pupils to investigate attitudes to English classes. They revised vocabulary for expressing likes/dislikes, wrote or drew examples on paper, and then worked together to make posters for a wall display. Consequently, she began to understand their struggles with not only language, or school discipline, but also their lives of proximity to criminal activity, deprivation, and violence.

Braga (2009a) worked with learners aged 11–16 in Rio. She elicited their puzzles (‘Why do we only have English classes once a week?’) and facilitated their investigations as they interviewed the school principal, teachers, and other learners. In a second narrative, Braga (2009b) described how her class of young learners went BEYOND THE CLASSROOM to investigate the world of employment and find out if/how English is useful in professions as diverse as shop-keepers, porters and hotel staff – in other words, the mundane, unglamorous world of work, not usually considered in course-books.

This transcendence of the institution to critically examine language learning experiences in everyday life has impacted elsewhere on the field. Parallels can be traced in Reinders & Benson’s (2017) article portraying language learning beyond the classroom, though sadly EP is missing from the discussion. Similarly, EP’s explicit inclusion of young learners likely influenced Pinter et al.’s (2016) study of teachers and children co-researching their classrooms in primary schools in India. EP’s

reciprocal links with Dogme (see Meddings & Thornbury 2009; Thornbury 2000, 2011) are also clear.

Braga co-wrote two further narratives, encouraging her students to share their experiences of being EP learner-researchers. Their accounts of the struggles they faced encompass a range of emotions, identities and motivations. First, Magno & Braga (2009) provided a double-voiced narrative of a group of students investigating their puzzle ‘Why do we cheat?’. They posed critical questions about wider attitudes to cheating and exposed a world beyond the classroom, where corruption is accepted in the workplace, politics, government. Second, Silva & Braga (2009) told the interwoven story of teenaged learners puzzled about the high incidence of pregnancy among their classmates, despite the availability of information and protection. They spoke to family members and classmates to collect information and narratives, which they presented as a poster (see Allwright & Hanks 2009, for full accounts).

Assertions that EP only takes place in privileged circumstances (i.e. universities), fail to note the extensive body of work taking place in more difficult situations. For obvious reasons, authors/practitioners have avoided positioning themselves as deprived, but careful reading reveals accounts alluding to struggles with poverty (A. Andrade 2009; Braga 2009a, 2009b; Barcellos & Miller 2013), overwork (Lyra et al. 2003; Santiago 2009; Z. Zheng & Hu 2017; Costantino 2018) racism (Moraes Bezerra & Miller, 2015) or proximity to criminal activity (Silva & Braga 2009; Miller 2010; C. Andrade 2017). Tales of resilience and resistance are emerging, but continue to challenge the field for recognition.

The problem, then, is not that PEPAs are rare, but rather that the concept is so different from traditional understandings of research, that they remain hidden in plain sight. Integrating research and pedagogy, using normal classroom activities as

investigative tools, means that the epistemological challenges EP raises are not limited to roles/identities of learners or teachers, but extend to conceptions of researchers.

5. Exploratory Practice in relation to other forms of practitioner research

EP is clearly part of a long tradition of practitioner research, encompassing many different forms including Action Research (AR) and Reflective Practice (RP). All trace their heritage back to the work of Dewey (1938, 1944), with influences from Freire (1972, 1973), Lortie (1975) and Stenhouse (1975). They are influenced by Aristotelian thinking (see Howie 1968; Carr 1987; 2004) and share characteristics of INQUIRY AS STANCE (Cochran-Smith & Lytle 2009).

While acknowledging this shared heritage, it is important to clarify the links and the distinctions between EP and other forms of practitioner research. Although some writers are clear about the philosophical, theoretical, and practical distinctiveness of EP (e.g. Wright 2005, 2006; Breen 2006; Tarone 2006), others have conflated EP with, variously, AR, RP or Teacher Research. For example, Borg acknowledges that EP is ‘a particular conceptualization of teacher research that merits attention’ (2013: 12) but asserts: ‘differences between EP and action research [...] need not be overstated’ (2013: 13). However, since EP explicitly includes learners, teacher educators, administrators, psychologists, the label ‘teacher research’ is, by definition, inadequate.

Dörnyei, on the other hand, claims that ‘a more teacher-friendly version of action research [is] “exploratory practice”’ (2007: 193) but goes no further. Confusion with AR or RP is understandable, particularly if only a few early EP texts are used

(e.g. Allwright & Bailey 1991; Allwright 1993, 1997b). Yet from 2001 onwards Allwright (2001, 2003, 2005a) has painstakingly distinguished EP from AR.

AR focuses on ACTION FOR CHANGE/IMPROVEMENT. As Burns notes: ‘action researchers use the findings from the investigations to deliberately change, modify and improve practices’ (2005: 60). It sits firmly within traditions of problematizing and problem-solving. The same can be said for RP, which also slips into the solution-seeking paradigm, with similar acceptance of the discourse of improvement. Yet RP has its own distinctive characteristics (Schön 1983, 1987; Edge 2011). To the notions of reflections ON action and reflections IN action, Farrell (2007) has added reflection FOR action, but the essential paradigm remains undisturbed: solutions to problems are still sought. Interestingly, Mann & Walsh have recently shifted ground to cite ‘enhancing understandings’ (2017: 264) as an aim for RP – were they influenced by EP’s principle of ‘working for understanding’, perhaps?

EP is often subsumed under AR (e.g. Dörnyei 2007; Burns 2010; Borg 2013), while some proponents of RP have taken the simple expedient of ignoring EP altogether (e.g. Farrell 2015). But if writers claim to be scientific, we need to incorporate scientific rigour into our thinking and naming systems. Creatures within the scientifically-identified family of ‘cat’ share certain characteristics (claws, whiskers, configurations of teeth/eyes, behaviours). Yet no-one would call a lion a tiger, nor would they insist that a leopard is the same as a lynx. Scientific rigour requires scrutiny that goes beyond superficial characteristics, to systematically, accurately, identify different entities. These issues are discussed further in Wyatt, Burns & Hanks (2016), who conclude practitioner research of all kinds involves practitioners learning together, in an atmosphere of mutual respect.

Hanks (2016, 2017a, 2018) has portrayed practitioner research as a human family, which allows for the incorporation of new arrivals, of half-sisters, step-brothers, adopted siblings, cousins, foster-siblings and visitors. This is particularly useful when considering more recent variations of Action Research such as Collaborative ‘CAR’ (Burns 1999), Participatory ‘PAR’ (Kemmis & McTaggart 2003), and Exploratory ‘EAR’ (R. Smith 2015; Wyatt & Pasamar Márquez 2016; Moran 2017). More recently, attention has returned to the notion of Lesson Study (Yoshida 2016), which is also part of the practitioner research ‘family’.

<< Insert Figure 1 around here >>

In Figure 1, I adapt my original ‘family tree’ to show CAR, PAR and EAR as offshoots of the AR branch, while RP, Lesson Study, and EP are, as yet, without subcategories. It is important to note the positioning: EP is ‘right in the middle between reflection for understanding [RP] and action for change [AR]. Exploratory Practice focuses on taking action for understanding’ (Allwright 2001: 105).

Arguably, AR, RP, Lesson Study, and early EP studies are exemplars of research-as-practice. Recent EP work advocates the involvement of learners, alongside teachers, and others, as researchers integrating research and pedagogy, and prioritizes working for understanding before problem-solving; it traverses/transgresses cultural boundaries of research. EP, then, is more than a subset of AR/RP. In championing agency EP engenders a challenging and complex approach to fully inclusive practitioner research: exploratory practice-as-research.

6. Developing Exploratory Practice principles

The significance and history of each EP principle requires attention if we are to understand the reasons for the insistence on EP's distinctiveness. The individual principles were developed with practitioners sharing their insights, concerns and discoveries to build the framework. This foundational work was first charted in a series of working papers (Allwright 1991a, 1991b, 1991c, 1997a), which show early ideas and developments, e.g. 'Exploratory Teaching' becoming 'Exploratory Practice'. The framework has variously presented six, seven or nine principles, sometimes with corollaries or suggestions, so it is worth examining the various iterations. Table 4 provides a series of 'snapshots' from publications over the years. It highlights the overlaps, offshoots, and repetitions of this organic framework. Complex theoretical ideas are co-constructed and refined in these iterative processes.

<< Insert Table 4 around here >>

Surface analysis highlights frequent use of the imperative, which gives the impression of injunctions or commandments. However, careful reading of the accompanying explanations shows a theoretically grounded, philosophically coherent stance, albeit one which runs counter to the popular discourses of deficit and improvement (see Breen 2006; Candlin & Crichton 2011, 2013a; 2013b for critique of these discourses).

EP emerged in the 1990s (Allwright 1992, 1993, 1997b; Allwright & Lenzen 1997) partly as a reaction against assumptions about traditional (mainly positivist) approaches to research in Applied Linguistics. Allwright (2005a) reiterates that the EP principles were generated in/through discussions with practitioners (i.e. teachers,

teacher educators, and learners) in Rio de Janeiro, in Lancaster, and via the EP website:

<http://www.lettras.puc-rio.br/unidades&nucleos/epcentre/links.htm>

It is through this explicitly dialogic process that the principles of EP formed. Theorizing is rooted in classroom practice, thus ‘bottom-up’ rather than ‘top-down’. Reminiscent of Bourdieu’s (1991) contention that language is both social and political practice, the process of language learning, teaching, and research, is seen as not merely individual or individualistic, but involves others in time-and-space continua (Wu, 2004; Costantino 2018). Research, pedagogy and language, combine as people engage in this social practice, e.g. Miller scrupulously includes learners as well as teachers (novice or experienced) in her publications (Miller et al. 2009; Miller et al. 2015). Crucially, EP is

a way of getting teaching and learning done so that the teachers and the learners simultaneously develop THEIR OWN UNDERSTANDINGS OF WHAT THEY ARE DOING as learners and teachers.

(Allwright 2006: 14, original emphases).

The EP framework developed further when Allwright & Hanks (2009) focused on learners as key developing practitioners and provided narratives from learners and teachers to elucidate EP principles. Later research and publications (outlined in Sections 4 and 5 above) examined one or more of the EP principles, to develop theory from practice. This culminated with Hanks (2017a) positing a new configuration of an interconnected web instead of a list. She places principles of quality of life, understanding and relevance at the centre, and adds the principle of avoiding burnout to the framework. Arguing that the work of human understanding is

always evolving, she contends that EP will continue to develop in creative ways, such as her notion of ‘meta-puzzling’.

A major EP principle is the need for practitioners to try to UNDERSTAND issues in learning/teaching before trying to solve problems. This concept seems difficult to grasp for those locked into finding quick solutions to complex problems. It is particularly challenging since the ‘lure of problems’ (Hanks 2017a: 314) has such a strong societal pull.

But beyond the confines of our field, we see others have identified the flaws inherent in quickly-reached solutions. Kahneman, discussing ‘fast’ versus ‘slow’ thinking argues:

System 1 provides the impressions that often turn into your beliefs [...and...] is also the origin of many of the systematic errors in your thinking
(2012: 58)

He continues:

Conscious doubt is not in the repertoire of System 1; it requires maintaining incompatible interpretations in mind at the same time, which demands mental effort. Uncertainty and doubt are the domain of System 2.
(2012: 80)

Like Kahneman’s concept of ‘System 1’ (quick to leap to conclusions, but prone to error) and ‘System 2’ (careful, analytical thinking, but difficult to initiate and frustratingly slow), EP’s promotion of puzzlement encourages researchers to think deeply. The insistence on puzzlement as a springboard for research both exposes cognitive dissonance (Festinger 1957) and values uncertainty. It challenges assumptions that complex issues can be construed as problems, investigated, then

solved and eliminated. Thus it is a way of activating Kahneman's (2012) 'System 2', with a view to scrutinizing speedily reached assumptions.

The emphasis on understanding is underpinned by the philosophical notion of Dasein (Heidegger 1962), which Dreyfus interprets as 'seeking to understand the understanding of our practices' (1991: 29). Flyvbjerg (2001), citing Aristotle's *phronesis*, describes this as ethical, practical wisdom. It leads to Gadamer's (1975/2013) focus on deeper understanding(s) within/across time, place and person(s). This affords an intrinsically rewarding stance which challenges the deficit discourse (Breen 2006; Candlin & Crichton 2011) across the field. Hanks's interest in *CURIOSITY* draws on earlier work in psychology (e.g. Cecchin 1987), where curious investigation is seen as an essential component of psychological research-as-practice. An early example is 'Why don't learners learn what teachers teach?' (Allwright 1984), and this thread of puzzling runs through EP. Thus EP asks 'why' (of the status quo), with the aim of understanding the contextual constraints, the people, and their practices in language learning/teaching and beyond.

Kahneman argues we need to step carefully through the 'cognitive minefield, slow down, and ask for reinforcement from System 2' (2012: 417). To this deliberate braking, EP adds another ethical dimension. The principle that we should INVOLVE EVERYONE in the research/pedagogy process, is proposed as a way of eliminating what Allwright (2005a) calls the 'parasitical' element of many traditionally-structured third-party-research projects. This recognition of the Other/others is a strong influence on the EP principles of collegiality and mutual development, seen as Gieve & Miller (2006a) draw on Bakhtin (1986), noting the linguistic resonances echoing between people researching praxis. Similarly, the work of Freire (1972, 1973), which positions learners as potent forces, remains relevant:

As opposed to the mythicizing practices of the dominant elites, dialogical theory requires that the world be unveiled. No one can, however, unveil the world FOR another.

(Freire 1972: 137, original emphasis)

Freire illuminates the problem for outsider-researchers: despite their best efforts, they cannot do the work of understanding for others. The EP response to this dilemma is for all practitioners to engage in investigations of learning and teaching.

The EP principles of BRINGING PEOPLE TOGETHER and MUTUAL DEVELOPMENT suggest a view of pedagogy (and research) as situated social practice. People are inextricable from social context, whether in classrooms, or in society as a whole. For example, working with large classes in a Chinese university, Zhang (2004) used EP as a way of investigating and organizing group work in her extensive reading classes. Later, C. Zheng (2012) engaged in an ethnographic study using EP to focus on peer feedback. Both studies indicated the importance of involving learners as well as teachers in research activity, and both document the insights they all gained as a result. In the USA, Best et al. (2015) emphasized the importance of listening to students, and discussed the ways in which EP facilitated comprehension of otherwise hidden student struggles with academic writing.

These EP principles were influenced by Prabhu's (1987) work with his colleagues Naidu et al. (1992) in India. They researched the pedagogic implications of teaching classes with 100+ students as groups of teachers worked collaboratively to critically question approaches to teaching large classes at pre-university and at UG levels. They point to the powerful combination of knowledge, insight and skills of teachers-as-researchers, and argue that such research can 'yield cognitive and social gains' (Naidu et al. 1992: 262) for individuals, groups and the field.

Examples of such gains are found in the work of K.A. Johnson (2002), who identified the positive aspects of puzzling together. Likewise, Miller worked with others to investigate not only her puzzles, but also to facilitate practitioner research conducted by her colleagues (co-workers, learners, and others) as exemplified in Miller & Bannell (1998), Miller & Barreto (2015), Miller et al. (2008), Miller et al. (Forthcoming). Meanwhile, Silver (2008) involved trainee teachers in developing their understandings of the connections between content and language.

Exploring the fused elements of practice and theory through puzzling has been connected to a Vygotskian approach. The Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky 1978) was reconceived as a ‘Puzzlement Zone’ (Kuschnir & Machado 2003: 174) activating practitioner curiosity. Positioning learners and teachers as co-researchers extends to include teacher educators (Miller 2012; Miller & Cunha 2017) curriculum designers (C. Smith 2009; Biçer 2018; Doğdu & Arca 2018) educational psychologists (Apolinário 2015, 2017), and family members (Silva & Braga 2009). Ensuring the relevance of the research agenda to the participants contributes to the sustainability of practitioner research, and hence pedagogy.

Essential to this is the principle of QUALITY OF LIFE (QoL). In their analysis of this complex concept, Gieve & Miller argue that:

[t]hrough teachers and learners searching together for understandings and articulating them to each other they are developing an enriched ‘classroom awareness’ by which the nature of the experience of classroom life becomes qualitatively enhanced.

(2006a: 41)

The principle had its beginnings in investigating burnout. Noting that teachers are exhausted by increasing demands to be (in neoliberal, technicist, terms) ‘efficient’

and 'effective', Allwright (2003) argued for a shift of focus, to prioritize life as well as work in classrooms as an ethical principle. Likewise, Breen (2006) highlighted the tension for teachers attending professional development sessions which position them as 'novices' despite their expertise in the classroom. Breen suggested that one major reason for teachers leaving the profession is the 'intensification of workloads' (2006: 207) and (negative) judgments of teachers' worth by government bodies. Such issues have been highlighted in psychology (e.g. Maslach & Leiter 2008) as professionals fall prey to burnout.

Consequently, QoL is suggested as one way of circumventing burnout. Connecting teacher and learner development, and challenging traditional views of the two as separate, Allwright argued for 'an inextricably linked joint and mutual enterprise of working for understanding' (2008: 144). This was influenced by Bannell (1997, 1998) who posited the notion of developing teachers' theorizing through praxis.

Many accounts indicate the positive effects of EP as learners and teachers (and others) engage in researching their practices. Miller (2010, 2013) maintained that EP enriches the lives of learners and teachers by activating their interest, and respecting their findings, in classroom-based research work. Hanks (2017a, 2017b) found participants perceived time as well-spent, IF practitioner research is relevant to learning and teaching. EP work contributes to wellbeing by reminding practitioners of their agency and thus re-motivates them.

Increased motivation (Li 2006; Rose 2007; Hanks 2012; Chen 2016;), heightened awareness of pedagogy (K.A. Johnson 2002; Slimani-Rolls 2005a, 2005b; Hanks 2009b, 2014; Crane 2015) and pleasure in learning and teaching (Zhang 2004; Chu 2007; Rowland 2011; Barreto et al. 2015; Barreto et al. 2016) are indicated as the

results of engagement in EP. This points to recent developments in theories about MOTIVATION, with Ushioda (2016) highlighting the affordances of learners and teachers researching together, and Sahakyan, Lamb & Chambers (2018) noting the potential for learners to develop FEASIBLE SELVES by actively engaging in praxis.

Taking a more critical view, Stewart et al. (2014) assessed the notion of QoL. They probed the concept, working together third and fourth year UG students to investigate their puzzles about language learning. In her thoroughly dialogic chapter, Stewart questioned the distinction between ‘life’ and ‘learning’ and asked if it is necessary to divide the two. Elsewhere, Allwright & Miller (2012) and Hanks (2009a, 2017a) note that puzzling may be uncomfortable, as it involves challenging previous assumptions about learning and teaching.

It is important to note, therefore, that QoL is not presented as unmitigated joy-in-a-bubble. As discussed above, EP is situated in a world where participants regularly confront social injustices. Arguably, EP’s approach of inviting everyone to question socially situated practice(s) acknowledges these battles. The proposition is that whatever we do in our classrooms, whether teaching, learning or researching, all contributes to our quality of life, our wellbeing. Research should help, not hinder, our developing understandings of praxis.

In sum, the EP framework positions QoL as positive and hopeful, while also recognizing the socio-cultural political world in which individuals and groups must negotiate complex issues. This is a multifaceted concept, which encompasses not only positive emotions such as joy, pleasure, intellectual stimulation, happiness, but also the more difficult processes and struggles (anxiety, reluctance, and resistance) which give depth and ‘bite’ to human existence.

7. Critical methodological analysis

Denzin & Lincoln argued that tensions in ‘messy, uncertain, multivoiced texts [...] will become more common’ (2003: 38) and EP exemplifies this. Although EP presents an innovative approach to research methods and pedagogy, the methodological contributions have yet to be foregrounded. Therefore this section critically examines methodology/ies with particular emphasis on case studies and doctoral work which push both theory and methodology forward.

Practitioner research has long been a major factor in the development of the field, but critics claim it is not rigorous enough, and some still seek to dismiss it. Burns skewers such ‘outsider’ arguments, stating that they misunderstand ‘the scope and complexity of the research approaches and methodologies that have emerged over the last two decades.’ (2005: 67). But more than a decade later, the debate continues. Capturing arguments, Borg concludes:

All criticisms of teacher research, of course, reflect particular views about the nature of research. [...] The common criticism that teacher research is of poor quality, methodologically speaking, is also underpinned by conventional scientific notions (e.g. of large-scale replicable quantitative research).

(Borg 2013: 19)

EP is just as vulnerable to these ‘particular views’ as AR, Lesson Study or RP, and the rebuffs given by Borg and Burns are equally valid here. It seems pointless, then, to engage further in a sterile debate. But questions do remain. What scope and complexity is there? Are there creative ways for practitioners to engage in conducting, presenting and disseminating their research?

Some have struggled to understand the originality potential of EP. For example, Dörnyei dismissed EP as falling ‘outside the remit of this book’ (2007: 193)

despite his claim to consider original approaches under the title of ‘Research Methods in Applied Linguistics’. Across the field, there is little cross-referencing of practitioner research articles, and even EP writers keep to a narrow scope. Partly this is due to the lack of awareness of existing work across the field (including inside the EP movement), which this article aims to address.

The innovation of EP is ethically rooted in the stance of gearing research towards, and integrating it into, aiding learning and teaching, rather than interrupting pedagogy. This is the move from research-as-practice to practice-as-research alluded to earlier. PEPAs avoid imposing unfamiliar techniques, since practitioners should use whatever is normally done in class. Using PEPAs as investigative instruments is a way of ensuring that time is well-spent, yet the potential for creative research methodologies is often overlooked. For example, links between EP and Soft Systems Methodology or SSM (Checkland 1981, cited in Tajino & C. Smith 2005) need further attention. SSM ‘places priority on the process, rather than the product, by which all the participants in a given situation come to mutual understandings of the situation itself.’ (Tajino & C. Smith 2005: 450) hence a holistic approach related to the EP framework. Uniting SSM and EP in their investigations into UG student interpersonal relations while learning English, gave both insights into learner difficulties with making friends in class, and a broader understanding of SSM/EP potential as flexible and culturally sensitive approaches to research.

Surveying the corpus of EP publications, it is clear that much of the work is qualitative and sometimes radically so (e.g. Li 2006; Miller et al. 2008; Braga 2009a; Crane 2015; Hanks 2017a; Benson et al. 2018). Given EP’s emphasis on empowerment, social relations, individual engagement, and on developing understanding, ideally in multi-directional ways (i.e. not just for individuals, but in

communities of practice), this is unsurprising. The EP principles of insider-research based on observations/analysis of co-created classroom cultures, lend themselves to ethnography. Arguably many of the studies are more-or-less ethnographic in conception, with influences traceable to Hammersley & Atkinson (2009) or Watson-Gegeo (1988). Tables 2 and 3 show a preponderance of case studies, some of which are thematically or contextually linked, while others are stand-alone (see Stake 1995, 2003, for discussion of the importance of the unique case as well as the need to identify patterns). Likewise, many accounts are presented as narratives. Some operate specifically within the traditions of Narrative Inquiry (Clandinin & Connelly 1995; K.E. Johnson & Golombek 2002; Clandinin 2007), while others are more loosely linked to this methodological approach. Understandably so, for, as Flyvbjerg (2001) observes, clear, well-constructed narrative is an essential component of a good case study.

Only one study appears to have used a large-scale questionnaire-based survey (Gunn 2007) to gather data. However, some studies (notably Zhang 2004; Li 2006; C. Zheng 2012) included classes of 60 or more students, and Lyra et al. (2003) analyzed 88 puzzles emanating from a large group of teachers over several years. Thus although most of the work is fine-grained, there is a degree of breadth too.

In early studies, analytical techniques tended to stem from Grounded Theory (Glaser & Strauss 1967; Strauss & Corbin 1990; Glaser 1992; Charmaz 2003). However, in tune with developments across the field, this was superseded by coding according to theme (Richards 2003; Saldaña 2016). Critical Discourse Analysis (Fairclough 1989) and Template Analysis (King 2012) have been used to good effect. A caveat is that some writers are vague about numbers (e.g. 'a class' could mean fifteen or fifty students) and hazy on data analysis techniques used. Future work needs

to be more precise about methodology, and more explicit regarding methodological innovations.

Focusing solely on accepted research methods, though, risks missing the point. For if the radical move of integrating research and pedagogy is taken seriously, then the methodologies used are the normal pedagogic practices that teachers and learners use as part of their classroom language learning/teaching work. Hanks (2017a) posits that the puzzles are forms of Research Questions and the innovation of PEPAs means teachers and learners using and adapting classroom activities as investigative (research) tools. Arguably, EP is becoming a new research method (e.g. Fay & Dawson 2017) as much as it is a form of pedagogy. Innovations can be seen most clearly in doctoral work.

Wu (2002) exemplified the EP approach in his PhD thesis examining the responses and discourses of teachers engaging in curriculum change. He used Critical Discourse Analysis, Critical Realism and Narrative Inquiry, to analyze participants' experiences in a reflexive account of their joint efforts to understand. He characterized his inclusive approach as promoting authentic teacher interaction and hence development. Concurrently, Miller (2001) engaged in a dialogic activity with her participants as she analyzed teacher consultancy praxis, while Perpignan (2001) was equally dialogic in her examination of written feedback between teachers and learners. Later, Hanks (2013) explicitly invited teachers and learners to puzzle together as co-researchers in her thesis examining challenges of implementing the principles of EP. Here, students created artefacts such as posters and essays charting the development of their understandings, and teachers started a trajectory towards conference presentations and publications of their EP explorations. The semiotics of the posters as indications of student and teacher beliefs about research remains an

untapped area. Elsewhere, Pinner (2017) used journals, creative writing and narratives as he engaged his learners in self-assessment, and Salvi (2017b) investigated the connections between EP and Learner Autonomy. Their findings indicate the complexity of collegial working, highlighting paradoxes, probing criticality, and inviting further research.

Taking an ethical perspective, Dawson (2016) problematized the notion of QoL. In her thoughtful analysis of work with language students and EP, she argued that QoL goes beyond the Aristotelian idea of *phronesis* (the combination of ethical and practical wisdom – as discussed in Carr 1987, 2004; Flyvbjerg 2001; Hanks 2017a), to encompass Aristotle's equally powerful theme of *eudaimonia*. This, Dawson posits, is EP as THE STATE OF LIVING WELL combined with the PRACTICE OF LIVING WELL (both BEING and DOING) in the present. This again connects QoL with current interest in wellbeing across the field.

Elsewhere, the social consequences of teachers engaging in professional development (while their colleagues did not) were examined by Drijkoningen (2017). She used EP as her theoretical framework as she worked with teachers of Dutch as a Second Language (DSL) on a professional development programme. A key finding (described as a result of the 'wheels of change' turning), is the neglected issue of DISHARMONY. As the teachers went into their workplaces and tried out theories and techniques, their colleagues were not always welcoming. For when practitioners engage in questioning, puzzling, problematizing, they unsettle the status quo. This can be an issue for teachers unwilling to examine their pedagogy, likewise for established academics unwilling to critically question their assumptions about ways of doing research.

Radical innovations can be found in the work of Ewald (2015), Mendes Moura (2016) and Apolinário (2015). Apolinário, an educational psychologist, brings together three related areas via language. She writes that the thesis is:

...an interface between three fields of knowledge intertwined with Language, Educational Psychology, Exploratory Practice and Interactional Sociolinguistics. [It] aims to investigate how the discursive practice between an educational psychologist, [children,] and the teachers involved can contribute to the understanding and the handling of socio-emotional hardship in the school scenario.

(2017: personal communication).

In other words, ‘involving everyone/working together’ has gone beyond the teachers and learners, to include an educational psychologist (Apolinário herself) and family members and colleagues in the school administration.

Ewald (2015) worked with teachers and learners to investigate the (mutual) development of practitioner-researchers and began breaking down traditional assumptions about the form and shape of a PhD. At the annual Rio EP Event, in a highly creative approach, she transformed the pages of her thesis into a ‘dress’, which she wore to disseminate her work amongst the learners, teachers, learner-teachers, in an accessible, creative and playful approach.

Considering the thesis as an academic artefact itself, Mendes Moura (2016) involved her learners in the writing up as well as the researching of puzzles. She:

... transform[ed] the writing of [the] thesis into a Potentially Exploitable Pedagogic Activity by inviting her undergrad[uate] students and fellow teachers to come up with puzzles on the differences between common sense and academic knowledge

(Mendes Moura, 2017: personal communication)

Here, learners are re-positioned as co-authors as well as co-researchers, engaging in co-constructing meanings. They are beginning the understanding ‘journey’ through the ENTEXTUALISATION of academic knowledge. This supremely collaborative act brings ideological assumptions around assessment into sharp focus: can a thesis be co-created, and what are the implications for examiners?

Mendes Moura’s (2016) account of mutual development is rarely seen in research. Usually the genre is set up to encourage third-party, hierarchical reporting (even if the research was non-hierarchical in intent). Consequently, authors seldom admit to developments in their own thinking/practice as a result of the research, though Benson et al. (2018) and Hanks & Dikilitaş (2018), provide exceptions. Most researchers prefer instead to focus on how practitioners’ learning/teaching is ‘improved’. It is through the work outlined here that we can observe teachers/learners IN-THE-PROCESS-OF-BECOMING researchers and read their responses to this process.

8. Challenges

TIME is frequently cited as a barrier to practitioner research. Yet EP studies rarely mention time as a constraint. They have varied in length, from as little as a week (Dar 2015, 2017) to several months (Hanks 2015a, 2015b, 2017b; Dawson 2017; Dawson et al. 2017), a year (Miller 2009a; Barcellos & Miller 2013; Crane 2015), two years (Wu 2004, 2005; Stewart et al. 2014; Slimani-Rolls & Kiely 2018), or three years and more (Miller 2003; Stewart 2017). The longest stretches over twenty years (the Rio EP Group started in the 1990s). Arguably, though, the time-span is immaterial; what is interesting is why people continue, and why they drop out. The MOTIVATION (or lack thereof) of practitioner-researchers requires attention.

The length of time that many practitioners need to reflect and marshal their thoughts for publication is noteworthy, however. Many practitioners report surprise at the effort involved. Hence for neophyte researchers, collaboration with mentors, as described in Dikilitaş & Hanks (2018), or Slimani-Rolls & Kiely (2018), may be helpful. Yet there are also examples (Crane 2015; Dar 2015) of practitioners engaging in EP without a mentor. More research is needed to understand issues of mentoring.

A major challenge involves outlets for practitioner publications. Established academic journals are notably intolerant of alternative forms of reportage (see Seidlhofer's 2011 critique), while many practitioners remain modest about their methodological or theoretical contributions. The recent emergence of on-line spaces such as the Learner Development Journal, Teacher Development Journal, TESL-EJ and English Language Teacher Education and Development as well as the Practitioner Research strand of Language Teaching Research, might encourage learners and teachers to publish their work in innovative, creative ways. The work of K.E. Johnson and R. Smith in establishing welcoming, yet rigorous, spaces for practitioners to disseminate their work is impactful here.

In sum, the principle of FULLY INCLUSIVE PRACTITIONER RESEARCH challenges assumptions about who does what in learning/teaching/research inside (and outside) classrooms. Identities shift and re-form, cultures of research and pedagogy likewise. A consequent issue for the field is the question of how learners, learner-teachers, or teachers, can garner the acknowledgement they deserve. Honouring their work as well-informed language professionals with insights to offer the field becomes essential. This ethical stance is important because their stories provide insights and analyses of issues in Language Education and Applied Linguistics from within. As with all practitioner research, championing is needed, alongside investment and belief

in the contributions they make to developing theory as well as practice. Key people and institutions play a part in valuing and facilitating such work.

9. Implications

Throughout this article, I have surveyed the field of EP publications with a critical eye and identified threads in the intricate mesh connecting Applied Linguistics and Language Education. The meta-analysis extends beyond these intertwined fields to identify connections with developments in fields of Education, Higher Education, Healthcare. At the end of the article a box summarizes Questions Arising and future directions for research.

Affinities between the EP framework and recent developments in SLA are clear. They can be seen, for example, in the interest in researching LANGUAGE LEARNING ANXIETY (e.g. Gkonou et al. 2017) which shares the aim of promoting engaging and enjoyable language learning. When Lyra et al. (2003) analyzed teacher puzzles, they found many themes of anxiety, worries about student behaviour, and disengagement. EP thus also connects with theories of MOTIVATION in language learning and teaching (Ushioda 2016; Lamb 2017). Ushioda notes the potential EP offers for learners to be involved in ‘identifying “critical” events in a particular lesson’ (2016: 573) and calls for the research emanating from practitioners to be published in spaces such as this journal’s ‘Research Agenda’ strand. Practical/physical/political factors such as classroom environment, lack of resources, and lack of respect for the work of teachers and learners affect the take-up of learning opportunities (Allwright 2005b). Ushioda (2016) suggests this contributes to our understandings of learner anxiety, motivation, and, I would add, burnout. Z. Zheng & Hu (2017) used the metaphor of burnt-out candles to graphically illustrate the

struggles language teachers experience throughout their careers and argue that EP helped to reignite the flame of interest. The latest thinking is that motivation, and conversely, DE-MOTIVATION (whether of teachers or learners) is intertwined with agency and affective factors such as EMPATHY. Mercer (2016) hints at this, when she argues for empathy as a ‘fundamental human social capacity that we need to succeed’ (2016: 107) and which therefore requires further research. The EP principles resonate with work in MacIntyre et al. (2016) investigating positive psychology (Seligman 1991) and hence WELLBEING in education.

EP’s focus on mutual development and quality of life aligns with current thinking in CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT (CPD). For example, Brown & Flood (2018) argue that if teachers are encouraged to be professionals, engaging in research-informed practice, it is necessary to engage in capacity-building and trust them to create independent ways of researching. This connects with Kelchtermans (2004, 2009, 2016), who notes that teachers require professional support which goes beyond conveying content or pedagogic knowledge. He points to the complex cognitive and affective aspects of their work and suggests that professional development which allows for vulnerability and a deeper examination of the self can be beneficial for both teachers and learners. In this way, he argues,

genuine PROFESSIONAL development becomes possible, allowing for professional learning, the generation of relevant knowledge and its application in practices that do justice to the educational needs of all learners – pupils, students and teachers.

(Kelchtermans 2004: 234, original emphasis).

K.E. Johnson & Golombek (2011) argue for a Vygotskyan approach which enables visualization and also articulations of supportive interventions from teacher educators

as essential to professional development. Parallels exist in Hanks & Dikilitaş (2018), Slimani-Rolls & Kiely (2014, 2018), Tajino et al. (2016), and Trotman (2018). All enacted EP principles in mentoring, teacher education and CPD, and engaged in meaning-making with language professionals. Further work is needed to understand the role EP could play in enhancing these experiences. This is particularly crucial at a time when, Kelchtermans argues, teachers (and educators) are battling with low attendance at CPD sessions and demotivation.

The EP principle of integrating research and pedagogy promises a rich stream for future research. It connects to current thinking in education more broadly, such as the twin notions of INQUIRY-BASED LEARNING and RESEARCH-BASED TEACHING (Healey 2005; Healey et al. 2014). Although rooted in the problem-based paradigm, Healey notes that ‘[t]here are many pressures that are still pulling research and teaching apart’ (2005: 73) and suggests that universities need to encourage students to engage with research. Identifying a common malaise of top-down transmission of knowledge via lecture and consequent lack of engagement from UG students, he argues:

Putting greater emphasis on actively engaging students with research suitably adapted to recognize the variation and complexity of constructing knowledge in different disciplines, is one way of re-linking them in the twenty-first century.

(Healey 2005: 73-74)

Initial work to tease out the connections with Healey’s notion of inquiry-based learning can be seen in Webb & Sarina (2018) who used EP as part of their inquiry-based learning with UG students in Australia and Northern Cyprus. Gunn has initiated similar work in the UAE (Gunn 2009a; Al Nashash & Gunn 2016; Gouia & Gunn

2016). Concurrently, Hanks' (2015b, 2017b) inquiry-based pedagogy with PG and UG students and teachers in the UK suggests EP has hitherto untapped potential for inquiry-based learning, research-based teaching and scholarship.

Shulman (1986, 2000) has long been a promoter of SCHOLARSHIP in Higher Education. He argues for the notion of understanding used strategically, and with professional expertise, to critically assess the commonly-accepted rules of the field, adding:

[W]e bear the responsibilities of scholars – to discover, to connect, to apply and to teach. As scholars we take on the obligation to add to the core of understanding, skepticism, method and critique that defines our fields and their ever-changing borders.

(Shulman 2000: 49)

However, Shulman's notion of scholarship, which has been taken up by many institutions (it has even been inserted into teachers' contracts) is frequently an add-on, rather than integral to the work of learning and teaching, thus adding significantly to workload. Since, as K. E. Johnson & Golombek (2011) argue, there is a deep interdependence between the content and the delivery of teaching, and the shaping of learning, EP may offer one fruitful way for practitioners to engage in productive scholarship.

As mentioned earlier, a challenge for scholarship/research is to find ways for practitioners to publish their accounts. This requires a more open-minded approach to creative research methods and to innovative ways of disseminating research.

Examples of this include Harvey's (Forthcoming) work translating her thesis into theatrical performance, which is reminiscent of Ewald's (2015) and Mendes Moura's (2016) performance-related disseminations outlined above. More radically, Fay &

Dawson's (2017) ground-breaking work positions EP as research method within the project, 'Researching Multilingually at the Borders of Language, the Body, Law and the State' (<http://researching-multilingually-at-borders.com/>).

Elsewhere, the example of Sousanis (2015) stands out. His well-argued, theoretically-grounded thesis in graphic novel form inspires those who wish to take a more creative approach to dissemination. Sousanis' work influenced, *inter alia*, Elliott (2016, 2017) who explored the potential of comic-book and narrative formats for reporting his classroom-based EP research. Creative approaches are also visible in the work of Bradley et al. (2017). Bradley's approach, using collage to convey participants' understandings of linguistic landscapes in super-diverse settings, has connections with Hanks (2013, 2015a), who analyzed posters created by her students. Work on the semiotics of posters as representations of beliefs about research and pedagogy is beginning. These original moves are pregnant with possibility and beg further investigation.

The principles of EP resonate with Lefstein & Snell's work on TEACHER EDUCATION in state schools in the UK. They critique the current vogue for best practice, noting that it 'tends to iron out or overlook complexities' (2014: 5) in learning-teaching, and propose instead a multifaceted 'dialogic pedagogy' (*ibid.*: 13) rooted in classroom practice. They also reject the idea of one-sized solutions, and argue for an attitude of inquiry, but they have not (yet) hit upon the notion of puzzlement (Hanks 1999, 2017a; Miller 2009a) for practitioners. Echoing the EP principles summarized in Table 4 above, Lefstein & Snell present their own, positing that teacher learning:

1. should be dialogic
2. thrives in a collaborative and supportive professional community

3. should be driven by evidence from the classroom
4. [and teachers] should be actively involved in interpreting and constructing knowledge
5. should be continuous and integrated into teachers' work

(Adapted from Lefstein & Snell 2014: 175-176)

Notably absent is the notion of learners as co-researchers and equal partners in the co-construction of knowledge. Similarly, the idea that the process can be shared not only amongst teachers (novices or experts alike) but also with others (e.g. educational psychologists, teacher educators, managers, administrators, family members) is missing. Nevertheless, Lefstein & Snell's work maps onto the EP framework of collegiality, relevance, sustainability, and integrating research and pedagogy.

Research into the worlds contained in classrooms begins to loosen the bonds surrounding roles of learners, teachers, teacher educators, administrators and managers. EP surfaces theories and connections between IDENTITY (Kramersch 2006, 2009, 2011; Norton 2013) and INTERCULTURALITY (Holliday 2006, 2013; Holliday et al. 2010; Holmes & Dervin 2016). The EP framework enables classroom 'insiders' (teachers, learners, teacher educators) to illuminate classroom cultures and intercultural negotiations in language learning/teaching. EP plays with traditional assumptions about who does what in language learning, teaching, researching (Hanks, 2017a, Forthcoming) thus questioning fixed identities. This is rooted in the social-cultural realities of participants (Holliday 2013) and it recognizes the individual histories, cultures and emotions (Kramersch 2009) of learners as well as teachers. The value of EP is that it facilitates the notion of teachers as people who are constantly learning, and that they, like researchers, may be learning from the learners (and vice versa). This is not uncomplicated, however. Shifting identities and interactions,

slippery cultural and intercultural boundaries, and fluid social positioning require scrutiny. More research is needed to fully understand the symbolic dimensions (Kramsch 2011) involved. The EP framework offers a way of exploring learner and teacher identities, and the intercultural tensions generated in classroom cultures co-created in moments of space-time by practitioners working together.

The principles and concepts emerging from EP are consistent, too, with recent developments in the field of HEALTHCARE. Here, Iedema et al. argue:

In suggesting we need to collaborate with those who are the ‘subjects’ in our study, we advocate an axiology, an ETHICS, of relationships and collaboration. [...] We do so also knowing that subjects’ involvement enriches research outcomes (2013: 73, emphasis in original)

This collaborative approach, which re-positions ‘subjects’ as potent agents at the centre of the research enterprise, empowering them to wrest control from more rigid authoritative figures, is analogous to the ethical, collegial stance of EP.

When teachers, learners, teacher educators, and researchers, begin to play with different identities and cross intercultural boundaries, TRUST is an issue. Allwright & Hanks (2009), and Miller et al. (2009) point to the need for trust to be engendered across the field, and Hanks (2017a) argues that trust is a vital component for any kind of research to progress. This links with Candlin & Crichton’s view that trust is a fluid, constantly renegotiated concept at once ‘situated and bound by context’ (2013a: 9), and at the same time ‘discursively constructed’ (ibid.). Likewise, Brown et al. (2016) conclude that trust is a form of social capital, which, allied with professional capital, is essential for learning. Arguably, then, a new discourse of trust is required to combat the ‘discourse of deficit’ which is demoralizing so many teachers and learners.

This comes with a warning, however. EP is based on an egalitarian approach which breaks down hierarchies. To impose EP from above as a requirement (in the way that AR has sometimes been imposed) would risk derailing the enterprise. EP would not work in a dogmatic, hierarchical system which insists on practitioners adding research to their already heavy workloads. Like all forms of practitioner research, it needs liberty, respect, and autonomy to thrive. An epistemological challenge, then, is for professional researchers/academics to relinquish their control of definitions of research/scholarship, and to trust the capability, seriousness and resourcefulness of practitioners as they engage in conducting and disseminating their research.

10. Conclusions

This article began with critical questions about EP and its significance for the field. The evidence is clear: there is impact in a wide range of contexts and settings. EP is enacted in schools, colleges, universities and private language schools. EP has reached across five continents and exists in both privileged and deprived contexts. Both teachers and learners have taken part, as have teacher educators, curriculum developers and educational psychologists/psychoanalysts, inside/outside the classroom with potential for more. Analysis of the principles in the framework indicates that EP is an entity in its own right, with its own characteristics, its own liquid identity. Emerging themes point towards the affordances of puzzling for deep understanding, as research and pedagogy are integrated.

Novel insights include questioning learner/teacher/researcher identity, agency and intercultural issues involved in integrating research and pedagogy. Thus EP has profound implications. It reconceptualizes the epistemology of research itself as more

than a search for solutions; EP reminds us of the human endeavour to UNDERSTAND (Heidegger 1962; Dreyfus 1991) language, culture and education. But since ‘solutions are seductive’ (Hanks, 2017a: 297), we need to consciously interrupt that seduction with curiosity as we puzzle about the processes of learning and teaching.

The contribution of this meta-analysis indicates a re-definition of epistemological and ontological foundations of interdisciplinary research. What is needed now is the further surfacing of hitherto hidden links and connections across disciplines, with acknowledgement of the potency of practitioners researching. Herein lies the paradigm shift. But as Kuhn (1962/1996) noted, a paradigm shift it is no easy matter. Here I have taken the first step in articulating the web of threads connecting different fields. RESEARCH-AS-PRACTICE, in the form of practitioner research of all kinds, has been discussed. The nexus of theory and practice encapsulated in the notion of Exploratory PRACTICE-AS-RESEARCH in language teaching, and beyond, can enrich our understandings of learning, teaching, researching. When practitioners are recognized (recognize themselves) as valuable and powerful actors contributing to theory-building discourses across fields, society as a whole benefits.

Questions Arising

1. Recent developments in Applied Linguistics and Language Education focus on anxiety, autonomy, burnout, (de-)motivation, and/or wellbeing. How might EP’s theory-practice nexus contribute to investigations of these themes?

2. What factors affect interculturality and identity in the boundary-crossings/small-culture-creations generated in/by EP? What factors affect evolutions of teacher/learner/teacher-educator/researcher identities?
3. Leadership in classrooms/programmes usually rests with teachers. What are the default roles of teachers and learners in classrooms? How do these affect agency, empowerment, transformation? If learner agency and transformation is to be achieved, then what strategies do teachers need to roll out? How accessible is EP to neophyte classroom teachers/researchers/learners?
4. How does EP's integration of research and pedagogy contribute to inquiry-based learning and research-based teaching in Higher Education? How does this link with research and scholarship in a discipline?
5. What is the impact that practitioner research, specifically EP, exerts on the people who do it and on those (e.g. policy-makers) who are exposed to the resulting insights and findings?
6. Which aspects of EP do practitioners find challenging and why? What aspects of classroom practice get explored?
7. How might EP help learners, teachers (etc) change and develop? How can insights be reached, and understandings gained? How do insights developed through EP differ from/relate to those obtained through the other family members of practitioner research?
8. What further ethical dilemmas are raised by practitioner research (and specifically EP) for research methodology?
9. How might the field explore innovative methodologies and creative dissemination of findings and insights for practitioners of learning/teaching/research?

10. What theoretical and philosophical developments need further work? E.g. What are the differences between puzzling, problem-solving and the problem-solution paradigm? What are the affordances of puzzling, curiosity and Dasein? What are the contributions of EP to the growing discourse around trust and discourses of deficit?

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References

Note: Given space limitations, titles are given in the original languages only.

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