Teachers' Engagement in Professional Development: A Study of the Influences that Affect Groups of National and International English Language Teachers

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Abstract

To be globally competitive, an increasing number of higher education (HE) establishments around the world offer English-medium instruction (EMI) degree programmes. Many of these universities provide students with preparatory year programmes (PYP) of international English language tuition prior to commencing an EMI degree course. The English language teachers who lead the PYP courses are either national or international and come with a wide variety of learning and professional backgrounds. Professional development (PD) is often available to teachers to enhance their knowledge and understanding of new learning and teaching approaches. However, there is little research on the factors that influence these national and international PYP teachers' engagement in PD. The objective of this study is to explore how groups of international and national PYP teachers engage in PD. The study examines how the teachers' learning and professional backgrounds, their interactions with each other, and the PYP curricula influence their engagement. The theoretical framework for this study is based on both adult learning theories and social learning theories, such as professional learning communities and situated learning. While staff at HE institutions are increasingly international, research concerning the influences of teachers' engagement in PD in international teaching contexts is more limited. This thesis aims to contribute to the field by exploring how teachers from different nations, cultures, and learning backgrounds are influenced to engage in PD.

The study takes an interpretive, qualitative approach in analysing the experiences and perceptions of 20 teachers at three private universities—one in each of the three main cities of Turkey. The international participants include native English-speaking teachers and non-native English-speaking teachers. The international teachers were predominantly male and originally from countries other than Turkey, while the national teachers were predominantly female and from Turkey. They had a wide variety of qualifications, as well as work and learning experiences.

The participants first took part in a pre-reflection task, followed by a one-hour semi-structured interview, and finally, a post-reflection task. These three tasks provided opportunities for rich data to be gathered. The participants were invited to share, in detail, their perceptions of PD in their current and previous work contexts and to identify what engaged them and supported their PD as well as what inhibited it.

All the data gathered were analysed in a systematic way and were coded in NVIVO to identify themes and evidence in relation to the factors that influence engagement in PD. After the first sweep of the data, Biesta, Priestley, and Robinson's (2015) analytical paradigm of agency was used to facilitate an understanding of the teachers' engagement.

This study produced a number of key findings: the influence of teachers' learning and professional backgrounds on developing a common understanding of teaching, curriculum, PD, collaboration, and educational culture was explored. Additionally, longevity in the profession was also found to affect teachers' perceptions of PD as was the presence of high-stakes, inflexible assessment, both of which can influence the smooth running of a teacher's engagement in collaborative PD.

In the current climate of internationalisation in HE, where international staff and students are increasingly the norm rather than the exception, consideration of the factors influencing engagement with PD has relevance for everyone with responsibility for teachers' PD in HE.

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Author's Declaration

I declare that, except where explicit reference is made to the contribution of others, this dissertation is the result of my own work and has not been submitted for any other degree at the University of Glasgow or any other institutions.

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Signature

List of Abbreviations

CoP:	community of practice
ELF:	English as a lingua franca
ELT:	English language teaching
EMI:	English medium instruction
L1:	first language
L2:	second language
NES:	native English speaker
NNES:	non-native English speaker
ÖLYS:	Öğrenci Seçme ve Yerleştirme Sistemi (Student Selection and Placement System [Turkey's state university entrance exam])
PD:	professional development
PLC:	professional learning community
PYP:	preparatory year programme
TC:	teaching community
TEPAV:	Economic Policy Research Foundation (Turkish Acronym)
TRM:	teacher research mentoring
YÖK:	Yükseköğretim Kurulu (Turkey's Council of Higher Education)

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This chapter is an introduction to the study and the research problem from which the study arose, and it provides a discussion of the context of the study as well as a summary of the research paradigm chosen to investigate teacher engagement in professional development (PD); the chapter then introduces the research questions, gives a brief overview of the methodology and methods, and acknowledges both the significance of the study and its limitations.

The chapter begins by outlining the research problem of teachers' engagement in PD. Then, the context of the study is discussed in detail. This includes discussion of English-medium instruction (EMI) universities and the role of preparatory year programmes (PYPs) (1.3), followed by a focus on the content (the English language) taught by the target teachers (1.3.1). This content is split into three sections: English as a lingua franca (1.3.1.1), the methods of teaching the current lingua franca (English) (1.3.1.2), and, finally, the teachers' profile in multinational PYPs (1.3.3.3).

The chapter then discusses how English became the medium of international academia and focuses specifically on the context of the study, Turkey. It begins with the spread of English throughout Turkey in (1.3.2), and then moves on to discuss English in Turkish universities in (1.3.2.1), which is broken down into three sub-sections: Turkish EMI universities (1.3.2.2), Turkish PYPs (1.3.2.3), and the teachers' profile in Turkish PYPs (1.3.2.4).

Next, ELT policies for PD in Turkey are addressed, starting with the Turkish government's ELT PD policies (1.3.3), which are broken down into two subsections: Turkish government policies for PD in HE (1.3.3.1) and Turkish PD educational partnerships (1.3.3.2). The last area considered is that of organisations supporting ELT PD in Turkey (1.3.3.3).

With the context of Turkish PYPs in mind the research approach is discussed in (1.4), starting with the research aims and questions (1.4.1) and (1.4.2) which resulted from

the research problem. Next, the significance of the study is explained (1.4.3), addressing why understanding how different nationalities engage in PD when working in a multi-national context is a modern issue, especially as the context is that of teaching the lingua franca which is important for providing communication with so much current international business and movement. This is followed by a short outline of the research design and methods (1.4.4), the research limitations and scope (1.4.5), and then the data analysis and analytical framework (1.4.6). Finally, the chapter presents the organisation of the thesis (1.5) and the chapter summary (1.6).

1.2 Research problem

In present globalised workplace environments, an increasing number of universities worldwide are implementing degree programmes in the current lingua franca, English. The means of delivering these programmes is termed English Medium Instruction (EMI) (Dearden, 2015). Many of these universities have PYPs to support students' English language learning prior to entering their chosen degree programmes. As a result, there is a great demand for teachers who are able to teach English. To meet this demand, the English language teaching departments (PYPs) often consist of a mixture of national and international teachers with a broad range of learning and professional backgrounds resulting from living, studying, or working in a number of different countries. As is common across higher education (HE) teaching departments, PYP teachers are provided with PD to give them the opportunity to receive support and reflect on their knowledge and understanding of both current and new learning and teaching approaches. This support and reflection on practices can take place individually or in groups, and the latter form can be a challenge for some teachers (Borg, 2009). The results from the Teaching and Learning International Survey (Schleicher, 2016) indicate that the nature and extent of teachers' professional practices vary significantly across countries; that is, their beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge (BAK) about teaching have evolved from different learning backgrounds and professional experiences. This phenomenon of international groups of teachers working together is increasing; consequently, more needs to be known about the factors that can influence engagement in PD with international and national groups of PYP teachers.

The research problem arose initially in an international PYP setting in which the researcher worked as a teacher trainer at an EMI university with both international and national staff in Turkey. The problem that manifested in this context was a perceived lack of engagement in PD expressed by many of the English language teachers in this international environment.

The researcher's perception that many English language teachers exhibited a lack of engagement in PD came from their noted reluctance to take part in the PD offered. This perception was formed from observing some teachers' poor attendance at voluntary in-house PD sessions, their negative feedback on compulsory in-house workshops, and their complaints to the programme director about being observed by teacher trainers. The PD at this institution took the form of trainer- and peer-led inset sessions modelled on the Cambridge Diploma in English Language Teaching of Adults (DELTA) as well as trainer-led observations, all of which were common practice in the context of PYPs in Turkey (Aydın, 2016).

As stated above, the context in which this study is set is private EMI institutions in Turkey. However, Turkey is not alone in having EMI HE institutions. Many universities throughout the world are wholly or partially EMI to raise the university's status and profile within the current neo-liberal internationalisation of education context. The institutions' aims are to compete in world rankings and attract international students by teaching their courses in the current lingua franca (English) (Dearden, 2014) to ensure these institutions are accessible to many potential students across the globe. To address this need, many EMI universities offer PYPs (also known as pre-sessional programmes) to raise the level of their students' English to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) level of B2/B1, which is the minimum level for entry to degree programmes. The CEFR came about with the aim of facilitating movement between countries in the European Union (EU) so that learners of languages in the EU and their employers would have clear statements related to the levels of language proficiency in any language. The CEFR appears to have been adopted by the EU and is promoted internationally by the British Council and other such cultural institutions, such as Goethe and Cervantes.

Dearden (2014), on behalf of and with the British Council (BC), completed a study of 55 countries, looking at teachers' and students' experiences of EMI in schools and universities. A number of issues were noticed in the studies. In particular, limitations were noted in the linguistic training and support for department educators, who felt that students who achieved the level B2/B1 in English were insufficiently prepared for further study in EMI programmes. These students, more often than not, were taught English by language teachers in year-long intensive courses in PYPs prior to entry into their departments. Dearden's findings highlighted the pressures and expectations felt by students, language teachers, educators, and other stakeholders regarding the need for students to be able to study effectively enough in a second language to be able to succeed in an academic environment.

Building on Dearden's global study, further research was conducted in 2015 by the BC and TEPAV (Economic Policy Research Foundation of Turkey) looking specifically at how to improve English language teaching in Turkish PYPs. The subsequently published report presented the challenges faced in ELT. The report included recommendations, some of which were interpreted and put into practice by Turkey's Ministry of Higher Education (YÖK) at the national level. YÖK decreed that the recommendations were to be implemented by all tertiary-level public and private universities in the country. In the abovementioned report, and in relation to the British Council and TEPAV's study, it was recommended that in-service training for English language teachers be developed and continuing professional development (CPD) with an incentive scheme be offered (British Council and TEPAV, 2015).

It has been noted that language teachers recruited for HE PYPs come from a variety of backgrounds and disciplines (British Council, 2014, 2015). In each PYP department, these multinational groups of teachers come together and share classes to teach a single curriculum that meets the goals and objectives of the high-stakes proficiency exit exam that each university's assessment committee creates at the CEFR B1/B2 CEFR level; success in this exam allows students entry into their respective departments.

Groups of national and international teachers, in their roles as participants in PD, are adults who come to institutional PD with associations, concepts, values, feelings, and conditioned responses that have been acquired over the years from their own learning

and teaching experience (e.g., Mezirow, 1997). For PD to be meaningful and engaging, it is necessary for teachers to have their experience acknowledged, which can then be built upon through collaborative, critical reflection of themselves, their colleagues, the curriculum, and the resulting assessment that they are working with (Mezirow, 1997). From studying feedback given on the traditional trainer-centred approach to PD in Turkish schools and universities, various researchers have found that PD has not addressed the needs and expectations of English language teachers (e.g., Yalın, 2001; Kanlı and Yağbasan, 2002; Uçar and İpek, 2006; Borg, 2009; British Council, 2015). The teachers surveyed found that the timing and duration of the sessions were not appropriate and that there was a lack of opportunities to put into practice what was being learned. Moreover, the physical environment was found to be lacking, and there were insufficient resources, inappropriate instructional methods and materials, out-dated content, and a lack of motivation among teachers. Despite a significant number of research studies into what aspects of PD are unsatisfactory and demotivating for teachers, with regard to what motivates and engages them in PD, there is certainly scope for further research. In particular, while there have been some attempts to understand the issue of engagement in PD among mono-cultural groups of teachers (Biesta, Priestley, and Robinson, 2015), there has been a notable lack of focus on the kind of multifarious teaching groups described above.

1.3. Context of the study: EMI universities and the role of PYPs

The opening up of the online world via the Internet, where English is the contact language for trade, commerce, diplomacy, and scholarship (Kirkpatrick, 2010), along with increasing accessibility to travel, has had a profound effect upon education. This has resulted in rapidly expanding numbers of EMI universities globally (Brenn-White and Faethe, 2013; Dearden, 2014; Lasagabaster, Doiz, and Sierra, 2014; Copeland, 2016; Earls, 2016; Fenton-Smith, Humphries, and Walkinshaw, 2017). Knight (2013) notes that EMI in HE is also designed to encourage the enrolment of international students, along with the welcome revenue this entails for universities. An et al. (2018) concur, noting that in Dearden's 2015 study, EMI was more prevalent in private HE institutions than in government schools (HE 90%: government schools 78.2%).

As the current lingua franca (English) is being utilised as a tool to access and provide learning all over the world, there has been a shift from learning English as a foreign language (EFL) to EMI, in which students actually learn course content in the language (Dearden, 2014; Copeland, 2016). This can include primary, secondary, and tertiary education, the latter being the focus of this study. In order to be able to access university courses provided in the medium of English, students often attend PYPs led by EFL teachers from a variety of backgrounds. Within each PYP, there is often a PD unit tasked with providing teachers with up-to-date methodologies and ideas to enable them to meet course goals, objectives, and student needs in the most effective way possible. In addition, PD can help teachers understand evolving millennial student profiles, learning pedagogies, and the dynamic evolution of English as a world language.

To meet this large demand for the lingua franca in PYPs in Turkey and across the world, there exists a diversity of teachers from different learning and professional backgrounds (for further discussion, see Chapter 1 section 1.3.2.4. pp. 21-22), who are there to support students' English language learning and enable them to perform in their EMI departmental courses. To meet the lingua franca language requirements of the EMI universities, EFL teachers need to be up to date and know how to meet curricular goals and objectives as well as the resulting assessment needs (Richards and Farell, 2005). Teaching English in PYP departments is different from teaching in other types of foreign language departments, which might offer undergraduate modules or an entire undergraduate degree. In other kinds of foreign language departments, foreign language learning can be described as an end in itself. In contrast, PYP departments exist to enable students to learn English as a necessary tool to be used to facilitate further study in an EMI environment. Alptekin and Tatar's (2011) study shows that the students themselves view English as a means to an end, and, as a result, they argue, students are primarily instrumentally motivated (Öztürk and Gürbüz, 2013; Tarhan and Balban, 2014). The focus of language learning in PYPs is not on the study of the language itself, but rather on the ability the language conveys to study another subject (British Council, 2015). Therefore, English is taught so that the students, once they have acquired a suitable level of proficiency in the language (CEFR B1/B2, explained in detail later in this chapter, see p.3) will be able to study their specialist topics, such as engineering, medicine, or history.

1.3.1 The content (English language) taught by the target teachers

Having identified that learning English is an intermediary goal for many students (i.e., one that will enable them to study at university), the content being taught, (that is, the lingua franca) will now be examined to further understand the context of this study. Additionally, I will discuss the effect of this huge demand for English on the methods and approaches used in teaching the language.

1.3.1.1 English as a lingua franca

Since the advent of the millennium, and coupled with recent technological advances, there has been a rapid development in the internationalisation of HE and academia (Vongalis-Macrow, 2007). This trend encourages the admittance of international students (often for the financial gain of the universities and faculties) as well as the sharing of and collaboration in research (Dearden, 2015). In addition, internationalising HE has provided students with the experience of using the lingua franca (English) in academic situations, which is likely to prepare them for the global workforce. As the lingua franca is English, it has become the language most widely adopted in both academia and business as the common language among speakers who wish to communicate internationally and whose native languages are different (Jenkins, Cogo, and Dewey, 2011).

It is estimated that there are up to 1.5 billion users of the English language. Crystal (2003) postulates that there are 750 million first- and second-language (L1 and L2) speakers and 750 million EFL speakers. In 2000, the British Council calculated that there were approximately 1 billion learners of English as a second language, a figure that includes learners at all levels. The CEFR (2011) (on which these levels are based) was created in 2001 to promote "transparency and coherence in language education" (p. 2) and has a range of levels, from breakthrough at A1 to mastery at C2.

In *English as a Global Language*, Crystal (2003, p. 3) states that "a language achieves a genuinely global status when it achieves a special role that is recognized in every country." He further explains that there are two types of English usage outside countries in which it is the first language. Firstly, there is English as an official language or second language, used for communication in all or some domains, such as government,

law courts, or media. Secondly, there is English as a foreign language, which can often be a priority in a country's foreign language teaching policies, even though the language has no official status. English is now taught in schools in over 100 countries, including Russia, Germany, Spain, Turkey, and Brazil, often displacing other languages such as French, the previous lingua franca.

The spread of English can be credited initially to the British Empire and subsequently to the economic power and cultural influence of the US. Although both the UK and US have been instrumental in the development of modern communication, resulting in their language being used in media such as the telegraph, telephone, radio, and Internet, the real spread of English occurred as far back as the post-World War II period, when many organisations, including the World Bank (1944),[1] UNESCO (1945),[2] the UN (1946),[3] UNICEF (1946),[4] and the World Health Organization (1948)[5] were created in an effort to prevent future global military conflicts. As Crystal (2003, p. 10) states, "the military might establish a language, but it takes economic power to maintain and expand it." Currently, that economic power is the US, a member of all of the international organisations mentioned above and often the driving force behind policy decisions, given its economic dominance (Selvi, 2011).

[1] http://www.worldbank.org/en/about/archives/history
[2] http://www.unesco.org/new/en/unesco/about-us/who-we-are/history/
[3] http://www.un.org/en/sections/history/history-united-nations/index.html
[4] https://www.unicef.org/about/who/index_history.html
[5] http://www.who.int/about/en/

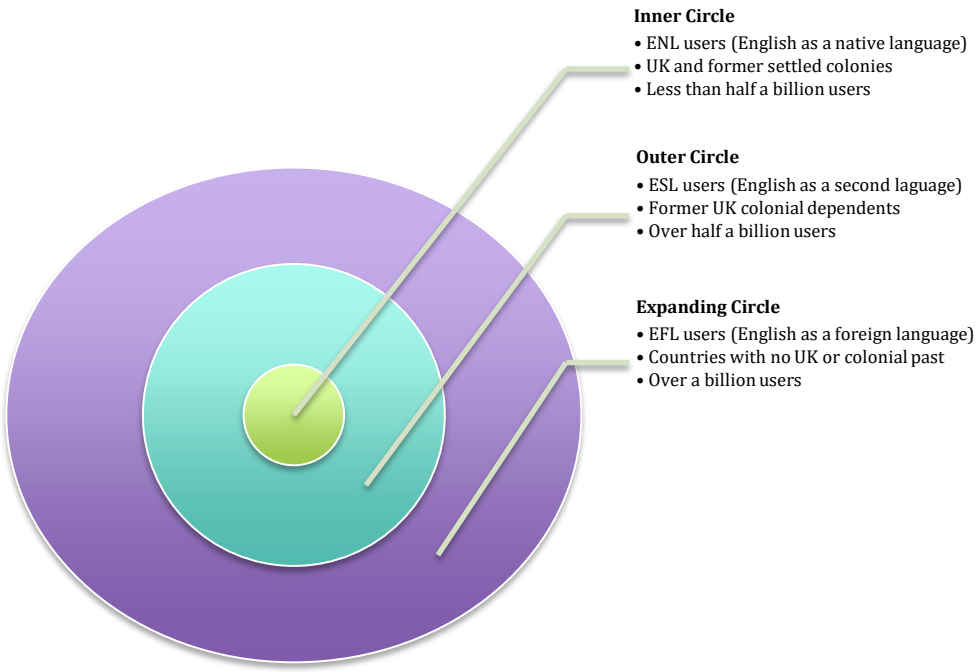

Figure 1.Kachru's Concentric Circles Framework (1985, 1997)

In his Concentric Circles Framework (1985; 1997), Kachru addresses the complex and politicised mixture of usages and identities of English when discussing the spread of "World Englishes". The first type of English is the variety spoken in inner-circle countries such as the UK and Australia, where English is the first language, with a wide range of regional accents, lexis, and local idioms. Next, he describes the outer-circle countries, which include Commonwealth countries such as Nigeria and Ghana, where English is used as an official language or for communication among different ethnic groups within that country. There can be many bilingual or multilingual people in these outer circle countries, and English is often the medium for education, media, and law. The third and final group consists of expanding circle countries, such as Indonesia and Russia. As these countries have never been colonised by an English-speaking power, English is not an official second language, but, due to its current global status, it is the language taught in schools, and CEFR B1/B2 is often an entry requirement for HE (Copeland, 2016).

As Kachru (1985), Crystal (2003), and Selvi (2011) note, the institution and country in which the lingua franca is taught, combined with the fact that teachers' relationships with the language and the country in which the language originates can differ, may

influence teachers when engaging in PD. For those from many developing countries, there is a perception that English brings accessibility to modernity and liberalism (König, 1990; Doğançay-Aktuna, 1998). In each of Kachru's circles, he gives a different outlook and interconnection with the language. The complex combination of the need for a language and the linguistic power a language entails can have an impact on the identity of both English language learners and teachers. The different paradigms of global English, such as that of Kachru's World Englishes and EFL, have many commonalities. However, Jenkins, Cogo, and Dewey (2011) suggest that EFL is a version that suits the more modern, technological world as it acknowledges that there is a meshing of international Englishes. This is in direct opposition to Kachru's theory of World Englishes, which views the matter more linearly and sees each version of English as standing alone; for instance, English in Singapore is seen as being different from English in Pakistan.

Given the extent of the global spread of English, another issue that arises, and that has been commented upon by Crystal (2003), relates to the question of who has ownership of the language and who decides on the norms of what is acceptable in an evolving language. This has become a highly politicised issue. In the UK alone, there are many very different accents and divergent uses of English; in Scotland, for example, there are many different dialects, e.g., Aberdonian Doric. In many Commonwealth countries, forms of English have evolved to suit cultures and contexts, such as Singapore English, often called Singlish Goh (2016). As a result, it could be argued that English people no longer own the English language. This could create a problem in a multi-cultural ELT department made up of teachers from all of Kachru's circles, begging the question of what the most suitable English to be taught is, not to mention who should decide (Fairclough 2001; Mooney et al., 2011). One way to address these questions could be to advocate for international (a standard English) English EFL, where there is a limited notion of ownership (Jenkins, Cogo, and Dewey, 2011).

Given that English has a long, complex, and diverse international and national history, these complexities regarding the ownership of the language can all exert an influence on a teacher's identity, which may in turn affect engagement in PD.

1.3.1.2 Methods of teaching the current lingua franca (English)

Due to the growing importance of English in business and academia over the last 50 years, much has been invested in improving and seeking out new methods for effective English language instruction. Consequently, teaching methodology has evolved greatly during this time, and ideas of what amounts to best practice are always changing. ELT teachers can now choose from a wide variety of methodologies and approaches. Earlier methods, which had moved away from traditional grammar translation, included the audio-lingual method from the 1940s, total physical response, the Silent Way, Suggestopedia, and Community Language Learning in the 1960s and 1970s. In the late 1970s and into the 1980s, the behaviourist theories upon which these methods were based were felt to be too limited and based on rhetoric rather than empirical evidence (Nunan, 2005).

As a result of an increasing focus on researching the learner, the Communicative Approach developed in a number of forms. Nunan (1989) and Long (1996) were some of the first researchers to study task-based language learning, which involves giving students "authentic" tasks in which they engage and notice language forms. Then, in the 1990s, discourse analysis in the form of the Lexical Approach encouraged students to look at lexical chunks rather than grammar (Lewis, 1993). This approach was less popular as many felt that both students and teachers were more comfortable with a grammar-based curriculum; thus, the Lexical Approach was believed to represent too radical a shift from a grammar focus to be effective. Most recently, there is the development of the post-method approach, which supports an appropriate combination of the multitude of previous approaches to fit the environment where the language is being taught (Akbari, 2008). While utilising these different approaches in the classroom, teachers use course books to support the curriculum, either paper-based, Internet-based, or a combination of the two. As a result of the popularity and commoditisation of ELT and English learning (discussed in detail in Chapter 2, section see pp. 36-37), these course books have become generic to suit the huge international market, but in reality suiting no one and ultimately supporting neoliberalism in education and language teaching (Copley, 2018).

Alongside the evolution of language teaching approaches and supporting materials, there has also been a growing awareness of the need to understand the impact of the teacher and, as such, the need for teacher development was deemed to be as crucial as

curriculum and materials. In the 1990s, Wallace (1991) and Richards and Lockhart (1996) noted the need for English language teacher PD raising the notion of the reflective practitioner in this context. This draws from Dewey (1902) and Schön (1983), who put forth the notion of the reflective practitioner much earlier in relation to the field of education as a whole. However, more recently it has been noted that with such heavy workloads for teachers, opportunities for reflective practice are limited (Akbari, 2008).

Given the many different models that have been hailed as the best new approach to teaching language, it can be confusing for any teacher struggling to understand which one is the most effective for the context at hand. As Canagarajah (1999) states, not all teaching approaches suit all cultural teaching contexts. In Turkish PYPs, the more modern Communicative Approach, which advocates much student interaction, is put forward as the ideal. However, many teachers find this way of teaching challenging, given the student profile in PYPs, where there is an expectation of a more top-down approach (Aydınlı and Ortaçtepe, 2018).

1.3.1.3. Teachers' profile in multinational PYPs

In university PYPs, teachers come from all three of Kachru's circles. Universities recruit a mixture of native English speakers (NESs) and non-native English speakers (NNESs), including those who speak the lingua franca (English) as their first language and those who have learned it as their second (Dearden, 2015; Copeland, 2016).

The international teachers represent a mixture of native and non-native teachers, from the "old" countries of Europe as well as from "new" countries such as the US, Canada, and Australia (Kachru's inner circle). However, despite having a common language, these nationalities do not have a common culture. As Hofstede (2010) shows in his Cultural Dimensions Theory (see Chapter 2, section 2.6.1 p.56 for more detail), old and new cultures are different, as are perceptions of status.

The majority of NES teachers have post-graduate qualifications, such as a master's degree in ELT or linguistics and/or Cambridge certifications, but they do not have undergraduate qualifications in ELT. These qualifications vary both in terms of governing body and level (master's degree/CELTA/DELTA/ICELT/TEFAL) and can

also vary in focus depending on the country in which they are studied and on the principles deemed necessary by the examining bodies (mostly UK, US, Australian, and Canadian bodies).

Many of the NNES teachers in this context have a detailed grounding in the history, current theory, and methodologies relating to second language teaching, and have usually studied ELT at the undergraduate level (Medgyes, 1983), which is represented in this study (see Appendix 9, Tables 7-9, pp. 253-254). Alternatively, they may have gained undergraduate qualifications in British or American literature. However, they have often been given a traditional model of teaching in their practicum, which can be perpetuated in their own teaching style in the belief that students will best learn English as they themselves have learned (British Council, 2015). Canagarajah (1999) argues that while this traditional model might be more culturally appropriate for many countries, Western ideas are imperialistically put forward as being better all over the world. The lingua franca brings with it a myriad of benefits and challenges to both NES and NNES teachers' identities (as will be discussed further in Chapter 2, section 2.4.2. see pp. 39-40), especially when the content being taught (English) brings with it historical colonial implications (Kachru, 1986, 1996; Phillipson, 1992, 2013; Canagarajah, 1999).

1.3.2 Lingua franca in Turkey

The context of this study is PD for English language teachers working in English language PYPs in private EMI universities located in three major Turkish cities. Establishing the context in which PD at a PYP takes place assists in gaining a better understanding of teachers' perceptions of engagement in PD.

Building on the previously discussed effect of English on the world, the next step is to consider the impact of the language in private Turkish universities. Turkey's relationship with the English language can be described as falling within Kachru's outer circle because of its economic relationship with the US (Selvi, 2011). However, it could also fall within the expanding circle as a country that never fell under British colonial rule (Arik and Arik, 2014) but in fact was a coloniser itself throughout areas of South-eastern Europe, Africa, the Middle East, and Anatolia (Bear, 1985). As the Ottoman

Empire started to decline in the nineteenth century, there was an opening of communication with European countries, believed to be superior in areas of technology, business, and modern governance. This included embracing the "European model" for many aspects of life, including Western languages, primarily French and German, and, to a lesser extent, English (Selvi, 2011). During this period, from the 1850s to the First World War, many European nations were looking to gain territory and influence in the region, especially the French, Germans, and British, the latter seeking to improve their trade route to India and create influence with the promotion of English-medium naval colleges in Istanbul. This, in turn, paved the way for the spread of English-medium institutions throughout Anatolia and Thrace.

In 1863, Boğaziçi University, initially founded as Robert College, was established in Istanbul, becoming the first EMI American higher education institution established outside the US. After World War I and following the founding of the Republic of Turkey, the state distanced itself from the Ottoman Empire, and people saw themselves differently, as modern, educated Turks. When Mustafa Kemal Atatürk came to power, he made far-reaching social and institutional changes that forced "Western" modernity and education onto the populace (Selvi, 2011). A result of this was that the literacy rate went from 10%, with only religious citizens being educated, to a situation in which the majority of the population had the opportunity to receive at least a primary education. Literacy today is much improved; according to current statistics based on the UN Human Development Report (2016), the adult literacy level (ages 15 and older) is now 95%. Atatürk's promotion of secular ideals and modern ideology went hand in hand with embracing foreign education, and philosophies of modernity were adopted by the new republic. Initially, education in French and German was preeminent as France and Germany had long been allies of the region. However, this changed after World War II. With the creation of the UN and other similar bodies, along with the economic support given by the US to the Turkish Republic, English emerged as the predominant second language taught in schools and universities.

Despite government support for English-medium universities, the spread of English in Turkey has more often than not been a reaction to arising situations rather than planned by the government (Selvi, 2011).

Currently, Turkey has no official second language and could be described as a monolingual country (Karakaş, 2013). Of its population, 81.33% are of Turkish ethnicity, with the remainder hailing from one of 20 other minority ethnic groups, who all use Turkish to communicate with each other (Doğançay-Aktuna and Kızıltepe, 2005). Since 2010, there has been an additional on-going influx of Syrian refugees to add to this mix. However, in spite of the fact that English is not Turkey's official second language, it has had a large impact on Turkish scientific research and communication as well as on its workplaces, culture, and media. As Karakaş (2012, p. 162) notes, "Turkish academics extensively use English outside the inner circle contexts (contexts where English is officially used either as a first language or second language), and overwhelmingly with colleagues who are non-native English speakers," resulting in "situations where English serves 'as a contact language among speakers from different first languages'" (Jenkins, 2009, p. 149). The ways in which academics use English in Turkey today have resulted in changes in HE. In the past and continuing today, English symbolises modernisation and elitism for the educated middle classes and those in the upper strata of the socio-economic ladder (Doğançay-Aktuna, 1998). However, the Turkish government is attempting to address this exclusivity; in schools, English is taught to 98.4% of Turkish students, with the remaining 1.6% of the student population learning German and French (Genç, 1999, cited in Selvi, 2011; Aydınlı and Ortaçtepe, 2018). Currently, the teaching of English is supported through educational policies, the aim of which is for every Turkish citizen to have at least a working knowledge of English (Karakaş, 2013).

1.3.2.1 English in Turkish universities

Turkish EMI universities were popular long before neo-liberalism and rankings in education emerged, to the extent that the oldest, most prestigious universities are EMI (with the exception of Galatasaray University, which is French, the previous lingua franca). An et al. (2018) note that the rapid growth of EMI institutions throughout the world started to occur just before the turn of the millennium. There are different levels of EMI universities in Turkey, in that their courses may be fully or partially EMI. All EMI universities in Turkey are supported with PYP programmes taught by ELT teachers from a variety of backgrounds, as will be explained in detail later. (See Chapter 1 see section 1.3.2.3, p. 18-21).

1.3.2.2 Turkish EMI universities

There are 164 universities in Turkey, according to the Republic of Turkey's Ministry of National Education (ÖSYM, 2013). EMI in Turkish HE came into existence with the establishment of Middle East Technical University (METU), a state university founded in Ankara in 1956. Since then, over 20 subsequently founded universities have followed suit (Selvi, 2011; Finardi, Amorim, and Taquini, 2017). EMI in Turkish HE can mean: (1) the entire university (e.g., a state university such as METU or private universities such as Koç University or Sabancı University); (2) departments (e.g., Kadir Has University); (3) programme tracks (e.g., medical or law schools that have "tracks" or "options" that follow either Turkish or English); or (4) courses (e.g. English/Turkish/Spanish or any other language). Of the 164 Turkish universities, 24 provide over 75% of their instruction in English (Arik and Arik, 2014). The situation becomes more complex as a result of a new model introduced by YÖK in 2010 entitled "30% English" (Selvi, 2011). Some programmes, such as those found at Istanbul Technical University (ITU) or Gazi University, offer 30% English, meaning that students enrolled in these programmes are to accumulate at least 30% of their total credits from courses offered in the medium of English.

The current study addressing teachers' engagement in PD focuses on the newer, foundation (private, or *vakıf*) universities. Private universities are often created by extremely wealthy business families; one example is Özyeğin University, run by the Hüsnü M. Özyeğin Foundation. The establishment of private universities in Turkey started in 1984 and by 2011, 10% of HE bodies were *vakıf* universities, equating to 62 private universities (Selvi, 2011).

Vakıf universities are privately financed, as opposed to state universities, which are financed by the government. Universities can only be established and/or operated by the government, or they may be operated through private, non-profit organisations called *vakıf*. The Turkish word *vakıf* is Arabic in origin and has a variety of meanings, including "devotion," "confinement," "retention," and "allocation" (Kuleli, 2015). As Kuleli (2015, p. 615) further elaborates, "The present-day Turkish institution known as a 'vakıf,' while inspired by and mostly associated with the *waqf* of Islamic law, in fact

more closely resembles in legal form the institution of a foundation for the public interest of Continental European origin." Private entrepreneurs can only establish an educational institution by forming a *vakıf* first. Then, this *vakıf* may establish a university as a non-profit organisation.

The universities chosen for this study are *vakıf* universities founded by wealthy individuals and organisations from the business community. Under the guise of non-profit organisations, many entrepreneurs and businessmen start such educational establishments with the knowledge that profits may be made from the hidden outsourcing of a *vakıf* university's activities to third-party service providers or by charging high tuition fees for non-scholarship students. *Vakıf* universities are organised differently from their state counterparts. In the state sector, the country's president appoints the leaders of the universities, which makes these institutions more political in nature, whereas in the *vakıf* universities, (at the time of the study) a board of trustees appointed the leaders, which means the business leaders in charge of the *vakıf* have a great deal of influence. Nevertheless, the state retains some authority over private universities as well, and the amount of state intervention has historically gone up or down depending on the political climate. *Vakıf* universities, however, often have a less restrictive bureaucracy and tend to offer higher remuneration to staff than the public system does, so foundation schools attract more international staff to their EMI universities.

The majority of these private foundation universities provide instruction entirely in English, so most new students complete a year in PYPs prior to entering their faculties. The private foundation universities generally have a more international profile in their teaching staff; more foreigners teach English in PYPs due to the fact that foreign languages are deemed to be better acquired in the classroom than by lecturing to large numbers, as is the case in many government universities (Dearden, 2015; Aydınlı and Ortaçtepe, 2018).

1.3.2.3 Turkish PYPs

Turkish PYPs are established programmes in EMI universities in which students learn English prior to entering their faculties. These PYPs generally last for one academic

year (8 months), depending on the student's English level upon entry (Aydınlı and Ortaçtepe, 2018). Students who attend Turkish English-medium universities come from all over Turkey. Although the majority are of Turkish ethnicity, the student body comprises over 20 different ethnic groups (Selvi, 2011) and consists of students who may have had a public or private education. The level of English ability they arrive with depends on a number of factors, including their individual language learning ability and the amount and quality of English instruction they have previously received. English proficiency levels may also be reflected in a student's social class, in that middle-class students who receive a private education will have more access to English and a greater external focus. This can affect attitudes towards English as well as motivations and aspirations for learning it (Aydınlı and Ortaçtepe, 2018). The type of education students receive prior to entering university may be reflected in their different needs and learning styles, and this can affect their expectations and perceptions of what constitutes effective teaching.

There are a number of different paths students may follow on their way to university. Firstly, students (often from the big cities) may have attended private European high schools or private Turkish high schools, where classes are smaller and teaching methods are progressive, with intensive English content courses and an expectation of communicative, critical thinking-based language learning. Alternatively, some may have attended public Anatolian high schools, which could be considered similar in concept to British grammar schools. Academically successful students are streamed according to attainment levels into these schools (Selvi, 2011). Additionally, there are vocational schools, where vocational English is taught, and, finally, there are state schools, with large classes, where communicative activities are discouraged to ensure control and classroom management (British Council, 2015). At the government-run high schools, students focus on preparing for the national university entrance examination, success in which is achieved through the memorisation of information for all subjects (Özkan and Kesen, 2008). In the final year of high school (Grade 12), students (with the exception of those who will take the Baccalaureate offered by a number of private schools) sit the multiple-choice format university entrance exam. Therefore, students often arrive at a PYP expecting to learn a language in the same way, an attitude that conflicts with beliefs in the field about the most suitable approach to learning a language (Aydınlı and Ortaçtepe, 2018).

Given the intense focus on the university entrance exam, one would expect the high school curriculum to focus on preparing students for passing it. As Akşit and Sands (2006) note in their paper reviewing the current state of Turkish education, Grade 12 is increasingly more about exam preparation and very little about learning (Aydınlı and Ortaçtepe, 2018). Currently, the material included in the Grade 12 curriculum is not tested in the university entrance examination, with the result that curriculum content is perceived as unimportant. Compared to regular schools, students often prefer to attend cram schools (*dershane*), paid for by parents. These cram schools focus solely on preparation and practice for the university entrance exam and are perceived by many to be filling in the gaps in what is seen as currently lacking in government-provided education. This approach is the result of a washback effect of the format of the national exam and the commonly held perception that cramming and memorisation constitute the best ways to succeed.

Having passed through the high school system, many students arrive at university equipped with learning strategies suited to success at the entrance exam, often demonstrating a level of English that is lower than that required to enter their departments. However, these strategies are less suitable for learning a language for communicating and studying in that language (Mede, Inceçay, and Inceçay, 2013; Mutlu and Eröz-Tuga, 2013; Tanyeli and Kuter, 2013). Therefore, language teachers in PYPs are required to address issues related to the variety of student profiles, including students from both private and public schools, all of whom come with very different learning expectations. It could therefore be argued that the teachers need PD that supports this mixed profile.

With this student profile in mind, university PYPs are set up to teach intensive English in one academic year (around 20–28 hours per week for 40 weeks) (Aydınlı and Ortaçtepe, 2018). However, if a student arrives with CEFR A1 or below, he/she can expect to take a year and a half to reach the required level. This is less than the recommended number of hours to learn a language to the required level of B2/C1 (Cambridge ESOL, 2013). In addition, students must also complete tasks outside of class. PYP curricula are written by each programme's curriculum committee, often adapting goals and objectives created by the CEFR, which are integrated into the goals

and objectives of the PYP's curriculum. However, the CEFR's goals were created to describe all languages, and as such do not address the additional academic requirements of universities, such as writing an academic essay or quoting and referencing. Committee members often need to include academic English and wordlists into a curriculum's end goals.

Upon completion of their programme with a suitable grade point average, students can either sit an institutional English language proficiency exam or another standardised exam, such as the US Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) or the Australian/UK's International English Language Testing System (IELTS). When students reach a B1/B2 level of English, most private foundation universities will allow them to enter their departments (Dearden, 2015).

There is much debate regarding the effect of learning in a second language, as Dearden (2014) points out in her study for the British Council. The study highlights concerns in many countries about the impact on home culture and language as well as that of studying in a second language. The official IELTS Handbook (2007) advises that an overall band score of 7.0 is recommended for academic study in a university. For an undergraduate course taken in a second language, a B2/C1 level of English is deemed the minimum requirement to be able to perform effectively by the CEFR for Language: Learning, Teaching, Assessment, Companion Volume with new Descriptors (2018). The Ministry of Education and The Board of Education for Turkey (2013) support the integration of the CEFR. Doğan (2007) and Selvi (2011) highlight that students studying in a second language face certain challenges, which can result in them participating less and needing more support because of a lack of proficiency. This situation is compounded by the fact that many Turkish universities accept students with B1-level English (Demircan, 1995; Köksal, 1995, 2002; Arslantunalı, 1998; Kocaman, 1998). Much research in Turkey has brought to light concerns about students' levels of English when entering EMI programmes (Kirkgöz, 2009; Başıbek et al., 2014; Macaro, Akincioglu, and Dearden, 2016). This has not only been observed in Turkey, but also in Europe in general (Doiz, Lasagabaster, and Sierra, 2011), in France (Napoli and Sourisseau, 2013), and in the UAE (Rogier, 2012). These findings demonstrate the need for effective teacher PD to support students' learning.

1.3.2.4 Teachers' profile in Turkish PYPs

To facilitate students' achievement of B1/B2 levels of English, the PYPs in many of the private foundation universities are run and staffed by a mix of national and international teachers, both native and non-native speakers of the language, with different learning backgrounds. These teachers come from Kachru's inner, outer, and expanding circles, and are both NESs and NNESs. Given this mixture of identities, it may prove challenging to reach a consensus on appropriate methodologies to best exploit the curriculum and enable students to be successful. It should thus be noted that there is a need for highly efficient PD to address this.

In Turkish PYPs, the national NNES teachers have a variety of learning backgrounds and motivations for learning English, which can differ not only from those of their international NES and NNES colleagues but also from those of their students. These teachers have often taken undergraduate and master's degrees in ELT or linguistics in their own country, although some have completed their master's studies in a lingua franca NES country. As remuneration tends to be better at private universities, they often recruit the NNES teachers who have studied at universities that rank the highest in the Turkish system or abroad. Many of these national teachers may be in their positions as a result of circumstance as the Turkish university entrance exam system allocates departments depending on students' grades, which may in turn have an effect on teachers' enthusiasm for their jobs. In addition, as NNES teachers have studied English in their departments at university, as opposed to solely in PYPs, they have studied English as an end in itself. Therefore, they may have different motivations and attitudes towards learning the language from those of the students that they teach. As Doğançay-Aktuna (1998) notes, the ability to communicate in English represents social mobility and is sought after by many aspiring students and their families.

While one could describe the variety of teachers facilitating language learning in Turkey as multinational as they come from many different nations, the question remains as to whether, within this Turkish context, they are in reality multi-cultural. Hall and Du Gay (1996) talk of multi-culturalism and its reality in the UK as consisting of a community that cohesively interacts without the need for its members to sacrifice their own cultural identities. However, a community living together is very different in

nature to a group of teachers working and developing professionally together. In Chapter 2, section 2.6.1. (p.52-58), I will discuss at length the different views regarding the value of having a variety of teachers with different professional backgrounds and relationships to the content taught. As international teachers are transient and may thus have dissonance with the community, it might be difficult to describe the teaching environments as multi-cultural (the community will be discussed in detail. (see Chapter 2, section 2.6.1., p.52-58). Returning to the context of this study, the Ottoman Empire (1453-1918) was known for its multi-cultural communities. Robins (1996) talks of the empire being straddled between Asia and Europe, both physically and mentally. Similarly, the push and pull of different nationalities working together in PD in PYPs makes this context an interesting setting for investigation.

1.3.3 ELT PD policies in Turkey

As has been explained above (see Chapter 1, section 1.3.2 pp. 13-22), Turkey has a long history of EMI education, perhaps more so than most countries in Kachru's expanding circle (Selvi, 2011). In the past, PD was often an informal affair based on the individual institution; however, since Turkey's entry into the Bologna process and HE world rankings, there have been efforts to formalise PD in the country. Nevertheless, private institutions are often still free to organise their own PD, and many have PD programmes in place.

1.3.3.1 Turkish Government policies for PD in HE

In order to comply with the Bologna process (signed by Turkey in 2001) and conform to current global performance culture, Turkish HE institutions require their ELT staff to engage in some form of PD (Westerheijden et al., 2010) to obtain Turkish HE accreditation. This PD includes professional learning in different forms. In 2005, a national quality assurance system for education was established in Turkey—the Commission for Academic Assessment and Quality Improvement in Higher Education (YÖDEK). HE establishments in Turkey often create internal systems, such as the Language Education Evaluation and Accreditation Commission (DEDAK), which was established in 2012 for PYPs; however, at the time of this writing, it was not yet fully operational. HE establishments also utilise international quality assurance systems, such as the UK's Pearson Assured and BALEAP, the Council of Europe's EAQUALS,

and the US's CEA (British Council, 2015). The British Council (2015) reports that more than 75% of PYPs have active PD programmes.

For publicly run universities, there is a less obligatorily international focus for PD. Turkey has polices laid out for in-service training in its *National Ministry of Education's Rules and Regulations for In-Service Training* (2016). These policies govern public universities, and, in summation, they award grades to training courses ranging from excellent to unsatisfactory (translated from p. 8). This grading of professional learning can be said to reflect Turkey's hierarchal society, where there is a power distance between management and employees, the student and the teacher, and the teacher trainer and the participant (Hofstede, 2017) (see Chapter 2, section 2.8.1 p. 64-65).

1.3.3.2 Turkish PD educational partnerships

Often, international teachers in PYPs do not have an understanding of their students' previous experiences of learning English at school. As such, it might be beneficial to develop more joint PD between schools and HE. To date, there is limited partnership between K–12 schools and HE; however, the need for this is currently being addressed by the Turkish government and is supported by academics in the field. Akşit and Sands (2006) observe that within teacher education programmes, the emphasis has moved further towards working with schools. A national faculty-school partnership programme was set up in 1998, and training was provided for those associated with it (Koç et al., 1998) to obtain the full and willing cooperation of schools in teacher training. While this programme is on-going, a lot of work still needs to be done. Since 1998, a number of studies have been carried out to explore means of improving the situation (British Council, 2014, 2015; British Council and TEPAV, 2015).

1.3.3.3 Organisations supporting ELT PD in Turkey

There are a number of organisations that support the ELT teacher PD in Turkey. As a result of a joint project carried out by the Ministry of Education, TEPAV, and YÖK, the *Turkey National Needs Assessment Report* was published in 2013, which demonstrated the shortfalls in school language teaching that have had an impact on PYPs. It was noted that in Turkey, there are a number of organisations, both

international and national, supporting PD in ELT in schools and in HE. This PD comes in a variety of forms, such as conferences, presentations, seminars, and workshops. In November 2015, the British Council launched a baseline study that focused on tertiary-level English language education in Turkey, which involved visiting 38 universities in 15 cities, surveying 4,300 students and 400 teachers, observing 65 classes, and interviewing 72 teachers and administrators. The subsequent report presented the perceived challenges experienced in English language teaching in Turkish universities. One major challenge observed was the need to teach students the language in such a short period of time that classes were often exam-driven. This focus on achieving such challenging aims could possibly affect teachers' outlooks on teaching and professional development as they could be limited in their scope in the classroom.

In addition to the assistance provided by international organisations such as the British Council, there is also support for ELT on a national level provided by a number of Turkish organisations. The English Language Education Association (INGED) was formed in 1995 to assist English language teachers in Turkey at all levels (K–12, university, adult education). It holds annual conferences and runs a website offering materials for teachers. There is also Trainers' Professional Learning and Unlimited Sharing (T-Plus), which started in 2012 and supports in-house teacher educator PD in PYPs. It has bi-annual meetings where members engage in workshops and seminars and share research. Finally, there is English Language Teacher Education Research (ELTER), which has a profile of teacher educators who educate pre-service and in-service teachers. ELTER's aim is to collaboratively research and inform policy and practice. These organisations function outside individual universities' PD units, their role being primarily to provide support to those in the field who choose to voluntarily participate; these include trainers who often attend and give feedback or cascade what they have learned within their own departments. In contrast, in-house PYP PD is often delivered through seminars on subject matter deemed suitable by management (Aydınlı and Ortaç, 2018).

1.4 Research approach

Situated in the Turkish HE PYP context, this study was carried out within an interpretivist paradigm. Given its recognised limitations of being an in-depth study

incorporating a small number of participants, as opposed to a more generalisable positivist study with less depth and larger numbers, an interpretivist paradigm was deemed best-suited to the proposed research. The choice of paradigm also resulted from the worldview of the researcher, who acknowledges the multiple realities of the different national and international participants in this study and their variety of learning and professional backgrounds.

1.4.1 Research aims

This aim of this study is to attempt to uncover the factors that influence multi-national groups of English language teachers' engagement in PD. To address this research aim, a qualitative research approach is utilised in order to capture the depths and complexities of the multi-national group of teachers with a wide variety of backgrounds in this context.

This study seeks to understand the teachers' interpretations of their multiple realities and the influences on their engagement in PD in this varied context when interacting as a group, which includes students, managers, and others in the field. A quantitative approach attempting to find generalisable truths would be unsuitable as the complicated nature and nuances of this context would be missed.

1.4.2 Research questions

Arising from the research problem the following research questions have been developed:

Overarching research question

What factors influence international and national teachers' engagement in PD?

Sub-Questions

1. How do teachers' learning and professional backgrounds influence engagement in PD?
2. How do teachers' interactions with each other influence engagement in PD?
3. How does the PYP curriculum influence engagement in PD?

The main research question was created with the overarching aim of understanding the areas that can affect teachers' engagement in professional learning in a multinational work environment, and the sub-questions support this investigation.

1.4.3 Significance of the study

For the first time in such a context, this study explores through the lens of agency an environment in which PYP teachers of multiple nationalities engage in PD. The agency paradigm was utilised to help understand this extremely complex context and bring to light factors that can influence engagement in PD. The discussion on PD in this study draws on social learning theory (Wenger, 2010), adult learning theories (Mezirow, 1996, 1997), professional learning communities (PLCs) (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998, 2010; Stoll et al., 2006; McLaughlin and Talbert, 2007; Levine and Marcus, 2010; Meirink et al., 2010), and empirical research in the field of teachers' PD, including peer-mentoring (Livingston and Shiach, 2013, 2014).

Research into how national and international teachers engage in PD is significant in global, multinational, and multi-ethnic environments, which are becoming the new reality in many schools and programmes across the world. A better understanding of teachers' engagement in PD, whether they teach in primary, secondary, or tertiary education, or in other educational settings, is essential now more than ever before, given recent technological advances and the rapidly evolving mobile student and teacher profile. Many 21st century students have access to a plethora of information and experience, and they are learning in a neo-liberal society that values education as a commodity, and where students often have a loud voice through online and verbal feedback. This new approach to education is often different from what the teachers themselves have experienced and, as such, it is important for teachers to continue learning and adapting their skills in order to understand the changes and facilitate student learning.

However, filling this gap in our understanding does not only apply to informational learning alone (for example, instructing teachers on the use of the latest technology in the classroom environment). It also encompasses transformational learning and PD which may involve requiring teachers to reflect on and confront long-held beliefs and

practices (Taylor, 2008). This can be an uncomfortable process, especially in an environment where others have different learning backgrounds and possibly different beliefs about teaching and learning (Livingston, 2016). Therefore, a better understanding of how to engage teachers in this process will add to researchers', teachers', and teacher trainers' knowledge of how to negotiate a training plan that is both workable and meaningful.

This research will benefit teacher trainers, teacher educators, and teachers (in many disciplines) who work in multinational environments by offering a perspective on how to address teachers' professional learning needs by understanding their perceptions of what engages them.

1.4.4 Research design and methods

The study takes an interpretive approach, involving the analysis of teachers' experiences and perceptions in three private universities in the three main cities of Turkey. An interpretivist paradigm was chosen to incorporate the diversity of voices, backgrounds, and opinions to better comprehend the subjective world of human experience. The participants demonstrated a wide variety of qualifications, work, and learning experiences (see Appendix 9, Tables 2–5, pp. 253-254). The research design took a four-pronged approach to data collection, document analysis after which required the teachers to reflect before, during, and after the semi-structured interviews, using different perspectives, in order to develop a deep understanding of the underlying reasons for their engagement. The methods are discussed in detail in section one (see Chapter 3 pp. 71-79).

1.4.5 Research scope

The study was limited to the large cities in Turkey and to teachers of the current lingua franca, English, working in private PYPs at EMI universities. The teachers were responsible for preparing students to acquire a CEFR level B1/B2 in English. The study was of 20 teachers, with a variety of nationalities and backgrounds. The number and make-up of the participants was ultimately determined by those who volunteered from the three EMI universities. The interpretivist approach with document analysis and interviews gave depth to the data analysis.

1.4.6 Data analysis and analytical framework

After the initial sweep of the data, from the emerging themes that were noted, it was decided that the most appropriate analytical framework for understanding engagement was that of agency. Biesta, Priestley, and Robinson's (2015) model of agency, which was built upon Emirbayer and Mische's (1998) model, was utilised to understand this complex group of teachers' perceptions of what can engage them in PD (discussed further in Chapter 2, section 2.7 Figure 2 p.59). This framework acknowledges that actors past experiences and future aspirations can influence the current context that they engaging in work or as in this study formal PD. Biesta, Priestley, and Robinson's (2015) model of agency demonstrates that the past learning and professional experiences, namely the iterative dimension can interplay with the current context namely the practical evaluative dimension which can be cultural, structural or material. Not only will the present interplay with the past bust also the future, projective dimension which can mean possible future short-term and long-term circumstances. The first sweep of the data presented an overlap of themes that from the participants past and future influencing the current space of the PYP departments and as such the agency paradigm seemed an appropriate choice.

1.5 Organisation of the thesis

This thesis is organised into seven chapters. This first chapter introduces the research topic, i.e., teachers' engagement in PD, and lays out the context of PYPs, their role within EMI universities, the profiles of the teachers, and their possible PD needs. Chapter 2 provides a review of the related literature on adult learners and engagement in PD. In Chapter 3, the research design and the interpretive approach used are described and explained. Following this, in Chapter 4, the interpretations of the findings are presented, and in Chapter 5, there is a discussion of the findings. Chapter 6 summarises the conclusions and makes recommendations.

1.6 Chapter summary

English has spread throughout the world as both a second and a foreign language and can be considered an essential tool for those who wish to successfully communicate in

business and academia.

In the global academic context, there has been a rapid increase in the number of EMI universities, and with this, an increase in PYPs and pre-sessional programmes that provide the necessary support for English language learning. To meet this increasing demand for EMI education, many universities have recruited for their English language preparation departments a combination of teachers with a variety of backgrounds, beliefs, and identities Dearden (2014). Each teacher has a different relationship with the language and varying reasons and motivations for acquiring it. Teacher engagement in PD is important to ensure effective teaching and facilitate student learning in the 21st century classroom. However, limited consideration has been given to groups of teachers consisting of different nationalities with different learning and professional backgrounds working together and reflecting on their practices.

In this complex Turkish PYP context, the teachers, with many potential influences on their engagement in PD given their different backgrounds, are all attempting to fit into one curriculum and ensure their students pass the exit exam.

This interpretative research study will explore the many possible influences that affect teachers' engagement according to the context in which teachers work, taking their professional and learning histories into consideration. The current literature on PD and engagement in PD is addressed in the next chapter.

Chapter 2: Review of the literature on engagement in PD

2.1 Introduction

This chapter looks at the literature on the engagement of adult learners, and, more specifically, teachers in professional development (PD) and professional learning. The chapter is split into six sections, as detailed below. Section One: Conceptualisations of teacher professional development. Section Two: Global English within a neo-liberal climate. Section Three: Language, power and English language teacher identity. Section Four: Current Literature on collaborative teacher learning communities. Section Six: Training and teacher education in PYPs.

In Section One, conceptualisations of teacher professional development are reviewed by drawing on definitions in the literature as well as the approaches to professional development that are taken. Section Two looks at global English within a neo-liberal climate and focuses on globalisation and education, commoditisation of ELT, and PD to meet 21st century students' needs.

Section Three, which addresses language, power and English language teacher identity, begins by examining language and power, followed by English Language teacher identity, and teachers' relationship with course content: the lingua franca ELT teachers' learning background, ELT teachers' language learning background, and, finally, their reasons for entering the profession. Section Four reviews the current literature on collaborative teacher learning communities, the community, and multi-national learning communities. Then, Section Five addresses agency in education.

The final section, Section Six examines how training and teacher education in PYPs brings everything together and looks at the how the research questions came about. It then considers the influence of learning and professional backgrounds and teachers' interactions on engagement in PD as well as the influence of learning and professional backgrounds and the curriculum on engagement in PD.

Section One: Conceptualisations of teacher professional development

2.2 Teacher professional development

In HE, as in other areas of education, the objective of teacher PD is to provide a comprehensive, sustained and intensive approach to improve the educators' effectiveness Deardon (2014). This can, in turn, facilitate student achievement of learning outcomes. In this era of accountability in education in which 'performativity' is the norm, PD is often required as evidence of goals (Day and Gu, 2007). Since Dewey's seminal work *The Child and the Curriculum* (1902), PD has been recommended in the field of education to support teacher reflection, growth, and learning. Day (1997) defines it as follows:

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

Schön (1983, 1987) suggests that PD gives teachers an opportunity to reflect on their work as well as themselves; thus, the term the "reflective practitioner" was coined. Reflecting on work practice can be defined as looking at the past, present and future and problem-solving Mezirow (1997).

There are different terms used in the literature to refer to professional development, such as, in-service education Avalos (2011), lifelong learning, continuing education, and continuous professional development (CPD). PD can be voluntary or compulsory, formal or informal, and offer in-house or external opportunities for those in the field to enhance their professional knowledge, competence, and skills. PD can be defined as

partaking in formal and informal learning opportunities to deepen and extend teachers' professional competence Desimone, (2009). Richter et al. (2011) put forward two types of PD; firstly, formal PD using internal or external trainers followed by informal PD, which involves the self and peers. Jones and Dexter (2014) suggest a third "individual", self-regulated learning type of PD which describes teachers autonomously engaging in PD - for example, taking online courses - and this can overlap with the others. For Richter et al. (2011), the term "formal PD" relates to formal qualifications as well a PD curriculum. Jones and Dexter (2014) are less rigid in their definition, which included any forms of institutionally organised PD. Wong and Bautista (2018), building on Desimone (2009), note that in the literature, PD is conceptualised in four ways: the content it addresses, how it is facilitated, the format it takes, and the outcomes for students.

The review of the literature demonstrates that PD is a complex concept which has different meanings for different people. Professional development is teacher learning; that is, changing knowledge into practice Avalos (2011). A teaching department comprises teachers with different types of experiences and different lengths of experience and therefore different developmental needs. Various scholars have noted at different stages in teachers' careers that teachers utilize and engage in a variety of learning opportunities across the career cycle (see Mok and Kwon, 1999; Bolam and McMahon, 2004; Desimone, Smith, and Ueno, 2006; Mesler and Spillane, 2009; Richter et al., 2011; Jones and Dexter, 2014). PD in education takes place among teachers who are adult learners coming to PD with both learning and teaching experiences, which can affect their expectations of PD (Mezirow, 1997, 1981; Wenger, 1998; Zimmerman, 2001). In order for these adult learners to engage in PD, their learning and teaching backgrounds should be acknowledged and respected through the PD process (Mezirow, 1997). In addition, it is necessary to understand the context of PD (Muijs and Harris, 2006; Melville and Wallace, 2007), that is, where it takes place in particular educational policy environments or school cultures, some of which are more appropriate and conducive to learning than others. Professional development is traditionally institutionally organised and trainer -led development that is perceived necessary to achieve department and student learning outcomes. Hay and Sachs (2004) note, teacher activities that improve their work. However, the authors admit that this description is rather simple given the "hugely complex intellectual and emotional

endeavour which is at the heart of raising and maintaining standards of teaching, learning and achievement in a range of schools."

2.2.1 Approaches to professional development

PD encompasses a broad range of topics and formats which can be informative, such as the acquisition of new computer skills, or transformative, whereby deep reflection and change can take place. PD can be initiated, delivered, and participated in via one-to-one or group interactions and can focus on improving teaching techniques or developing specialised skills. It can take the form of short or long sessions, action research, mentoring, and formal courses or qualifications; however, PD can also take place in informal discussions between teachers concerning issues which have arisen in the classroom (for example Mok and Kwon, 1999; Bolam and McMahon, 2004; Day and Gu, 2007; Desimone, Smith, and Ueno, 2006; Mesler and Spillane, 2009; Richter et al., 2011; Jones and Dexter, 2014). PD can support teachers who have a challenging student profile or clarify teachers' interpretation and implementation of the curriculum or assessment. PD gives teachers opportunities to reflect on their own and colleagues' practice and, as a result, to adjust or change their practice as necessary Day and Gu, (2007).

Different models of PD have been evaluated in terms of their effectiveness. In the past, in-service PD was seen as providing "one means of planned intervention to accelerate growth" Day and Pennington (1993, p. 253). However, much current thought holds that in-service training models are of less benefit (Borko, 2004). As far back as Stein et al. (1999), it was noted that top-down models of PD might not be the most effective. Many scholars now view such methods as less effective (e.g. Mezirow, 1981; Ponte et al., 1994; Hargreaves, 1995; Sprinthall et al., 1996; Borko, 2004; Bishop and Denleg, 2006; Grey and Bryce, 2006; Stoll et al., 2006; Carpenter and Krukta, 2015; Kayi-Aydar and Goering, 2019). Farrell (2012), however, argues that both top-down and bottom-up approaches have their merits as long as teachers are included in the decision-making process.

For the purposes of this study, professional development, as mentioned above and as discussed further in this section, is defined as formal workplace professional learning.

This can consist of one-off or consecutive inset sessions, or of internally and externally recognised PD run by a recognised institution, as is the case with the ICELTs course. Formal workplace professional learning can be instrumental for different purposes: it may bring about a change in professional position or remuneration, or it may be only for the individual's own benefit.

In relation to the literature for PD in language teaching, which is the context of this study, Wallace (1991) and Richards and Lockhart (1996) point out that in the 1990s, when it became recognised that language teachers' PD was as important to student learning as the teaching approaches used with students, there was a move from limited informal PD towards a more formal work learning PD. The 1990s was also the period when the communicative approach to teaching students was introduced (Nunan, 1989; Long, 1996), which supported a more bottom-up approach to teaching, with the teacher taking on the role of facilitator rather than director. In line with this, there developed an understanding that for teachers to be engaged in PD, teachers' voices should be heard regarding what this PD should entail. In addition, there was an acknowledgement that PD should be adapted to the learning context, and, as such, transferable to the classroom (McDonald, 2014). This resulted in bottom-up PD approaches, which are seen in the literature as being more engaging. These approaches appeared in different formats, such as action research (e.g., Banegas et al., 2013), problem solving (e.g., Mezirow, 1997), inquiry methods (e.g., Barkhuizen et al., 2018), and peer mentoring (e.g., Livingston and Shiach, 2013, 2014). Hargreaves (2000) talks of a move away from disjointed one-off PD towards collaborative risk-taking that provides opportunities and the desire to make changes in teaching and in the classroom, therefore allowing for continuous professional learning. They can be material changes, curriculum changes, or changes to culturally sustaining pedagogies through the introduction of social justice, inclusion, and critical literacy. McDonald (2014) describes meaningful PD as that which results in change because teachers are able to transfer their learning to the classroom. Therefore, much of the current literature agrees that a more meaningful alternative to top-down PD would involve teachers collaborating in teaching communities (TCs) to co-construct reflexive knowledge through autonomous, teacher-driven inquiry (Kelchtermans, 2006; Leat et al., 2006; Sawyer, 2006; Desimone, 2009; Meirink et al., 2009) Teaching communities will be discussed further in Section 4.

Section Two: Global English within a neo-liberal climate

2.3 Globalisation and education

This study into teachers' engagement in PD is set against the backdrop of the current neoliberal higher education (HE) policies that have evolved across the world. The effect of globalisation on education, as explained in Chapter 1, has led to radical changes in HE. While there were previously but a few universities to educate a country's professionals and scholars (Schön, 1983; Biesta, 2017), nowadays, there are many universities, which are run as businesses (Vongalis-Macrow, 2007). While HE establishments have always been subject to accountability, they are now openly and publicly accountable as they jostle for positions in the world rankings (Biesta, 2017) which directly affects their economic status. Currently, university educations are perceived by potential clients (i.e., students and their parents) as commodities, and students peruse the rankings prior to university application to ascertain an institution's suitability (Littlejohn, 2012; Dearden, 2014; Copley, 2018). To become competitive, structures within teaching institutions are changing (Vongalis-Macrow, 2007). In this atmosphere of internationalism, one criterion used to position universities in the world rankings is their suitability for foreign students (Dearden, 2014; Chiang and He, 2016).

2.3.1 Commoditisation of ELT

ELT has been commoditised and has become a business, growing rapidly in tandem with globalisation (Littlejohn, 2012; Copley 2018), to provide a means of communication in business and education. Some see globalisation as a phenomenon that was started by the Europeans in the 15th century, some see it as completed while others perceive an on-going journey; some view it as progress while others believe it to be enforced Block (2004). It can be perceived by some as western imperialism and by others as egalitarian; by some as prescriptive and by others as sociological Block (2004). There had been a feeling of hyperglobalism in that English would be taught to everyone using a single method; however, Block (2004) puts forward that Phillipson (1992), Pennycook (1994), and Canagarajah (1999) changed this view by highlighting the benefits of the local, and this understanding and knowledge of teaching the local encourages a more nuanced approach.

In order to afford opportunities for teachers to be able to teach multiple nationalities, many courses are taught through the lingua franca, English, regardless of the host country's language. Turkey is not alone in having English-medium instruction (EMI) universities, and there is much research on this topic from China, the Middle East, and beyond (Dearden, 2014). Therefore, for today's international students to have the opportunity to acquire the "tool" of the current world lingua franca and study in international HE, these EMI universities often provide or outsource PYPs, offering a curriculum of initially general and then academic English (Borg, 2009; Dearden, 2014). As a result of this commoditisation, as with other institutions teaching the lingua franca, PYPs have generic curricula and course books, often based on the CEFR (as explained in Chapter 1, section 1.2, p,3-4), which are perceived by institutions such as PYPs as being suitable for a wide variety of contexts (Copley, 2018). As these course books are written to suit students in such a variety of countries, they are very broad in cultural terms, which might limit the capacity of teachers to affect agency in education and learning, discussed further in Chapter 2 section 2.7 (see pp. 58–63).

2.3.2 PD to meet 21st century students' needs

To meet the needs of 21st century students in this neoliberal educational environment, teacher PD is needed (see, for example, Stoll, Bolam, McMahon, Wallace, and Thomas, 2006; Van Veen, Zwart, Meirink, and Verloop, 2010; Kools and Stoll, 2016). Especially in developed countries, PD is no longer merely an option for the 21st century teacher—it is an obligation (Day and Sachs, 2004). The current understanding is that to teach today's students (who are more computer literate and have access to a plethora of information from the internet), pre-service education programmes are inadequate; therefore, continuing professional development (CPD) is necessary for all teachers (Wei, Darling-Hammond, Andree, Richardson, and Orphanos, 2009). Within the prevailing environment of educational accountability that comes with neoliberal education, PD is provided to varying degrees in PYPs and with varying levels of teacher engagement (Dearden, 2014). In the context of PYPs, both agency and engagement shall be discussed in Chapter 2 section 2.7 (see pp. 58–63). EMI lingua franca education is popular, despite the doubts that many have about studying in a foreign language as it may not be the optimum condition for NNES students (Botha, 2015; Hu, 2009). Language issues can present challenges for students and sometimes for lecturers and

teachers as well, who may also face difficulties in getting their message across (Cheng and Urben, 2011).

Section Three: Language, power and English language teacher identity

2.4 Language, power and English language teacher identity

2.4.1 Language and Power

With the rise in global trade there has been a subsequent commoditisation of ELT to facilitate communication, business and academia. In 1987, Naysmith argued that "English language teaching has become part of the process whereby one part of the world has become politically, economically and culturally dominated by another' (Naysmith, 1987, p. 3) However, nowadays, the English language is less about imperialism and dominance of one state over another and more about facilitating international communication to the point there is a discussion around the loss of the gate-keeping of the language (Mooney et al., 2011).

Nevertheless, power still affects the ways in which the international lingua franca English is used (Mooney et al., 2011). Fairclough (2001) acknowledges that while a person can be ordered to speak in a particular language (coercion), as were many in the British Empire, they can also be conditioned to accept that the particular language is the correct way of speaking (consent). There is still the prevalent concept of native speakerism (Holliday, 2006) and the prescriptivism and the power of "standard language ideology". That is to say, the belief persists that there are correct ways of using language. Using the correct grammar, collocations, accent and the power is exerted in the identification of perceived mistakes (Mooney et al., 2011).

In this environment there is a need for a large number of ELT teachers and NESS and NES teachers are often judged by there native speakerism (Holliday 2006. As explained in Chapter 1, section 1.2.1.1 (p. 7), there are globally more second-language speakers of English than first-language speakers of English, which in turn results in a wider availability of non-native English-speaking (NNES) teachers compared to native English-speaking (NES) teachers. Therefore, to meet the great need to learn English, teachers from both native and non-native speaking backgrounds teach the lingua franca.

2.4.2 English Language teacher identity

There is much debate over the perceived dichotomy of NES and NNES teachers in terms of their identities and recognised value and status, or their perceived worth as human capital and teaching professionals (Copland et al., 2016; Kiczkowiak, Baines, and Krummenacher, 2016; Holliday, 2017). In terms of the current study, the researcher acknowledges that the NES/NNES distinction is not optimum because there is often a perceived lack of value of both national and international NNESs (Swan, Aboshiha, and Holliday, 2015); this distinction is seen by some as an after-effect of the imperialism of the British Empire (Phillipson, 1992; Canagarajah, 1999;). As English is not their L1, NNESs can be perceived by students, colleagues, and institutions as having lesser pedagogical and linguistic authority (Tsui and Bunton, 2000; Cook, 2005), despite their often having undergraduate ELT qualifications and a resulting deeper understanding of grammar than their NES counterparts (Medgyes, 1992). They can also be seen as inferior by recruiters and as a result, may have fewer or different opportunities and lower remuneration (Mahboob et al., 2004; Clark and Paran, 2007; Lengeling and Mora Pablo, 2012).

However, the cultural mix in international PYPs includes international and national NNES teachers, generally from older cultures, who are teaching English as their second language (L2), thus rendering the situation highly complex. International NNES teachers may have a similar relationship with their students to the NES teachers because international NNESs have different first languages (L1s) from their students and national teachers, as well as different school experiences (Medgyes, 1992; Árva and Medgyes, 2000; Faez, 2012;). Additionally, NES teachers can come from old and new cultures. As a result, there are four potential types of teacher cultural identity under consideration in the host country: international NESs from old cultures, international NESs from new cultures (both of whom may have parents from the host country); national NNESs from the host/home country and international NNESs from other countries, both of whom can be from old and new cultures.

Generally, there is now a greater awareness of the uses that NESs and NNESs make of English and the different ways in which the groups interact with the language, which means there is a need to view English more globally (Swan, Aboshiha, and Holliday,

2015). NESs working abroad also face challenges with perceptions of cultural identity (Fichtner and Chapman, 2011). Van der Walt (2007) draws upon Bhabha's (1994, 1996) conceptualisation of the "third space" and the post-colonial inequality of cultures when characterising English teachers' conflicting ideas of their own identity as speakers of their home variety of English while feeling pressure to adopt a world English perspective while teaching, as advocated by the curriculum methods and courses.

Stanton (2006) supports the concept of a global language: "[I]f cosmopolitanism since the early modern period has been defined in opposition to the nation and then nationalism, it becomes clear today, after the end of the Cold War, that such binary thinking must be rejected in favour of a more capacious view that encompasses both the national and the transnational, the local and the global" (p. 636). In this light, teaching the lingua franca should be seen both as national and transnational, and this should not be viewed as relating to just one culture or as having just one owner, especially as it is considered more as a tool for international communication and trade than for imperialism. By working and learning in various cultures, these English language teachers of all nationalities may have developed differing frames of reference.

2.4.3 Teachers' relationship with course content: The lingua franca

An additional issue linked to language teacher identity and to the teaching of the lingua franca concerns the culture from which the language has evolved and the teaching of that culture (Holliday, 2017). Language use has evolved from and is intertwined with culture, which cannot be avoided when teaching course content (Kramsch, 2009). Kramsch (2009) and Norton (2013) both discuss how NESs make meaning in ways that are sometimes different from NNESs as their interpretation of the symbols of language comes from their own culture and their relationship with the lingua franca being taught. This is especially relevant to NNES teachers, and it adds greatly to the complexity of questions about whose culture should be taught as well as throwing up questions regarding the ownership of the culture(s) (Holliday, 2017). However, even if the question is simply a matter of whose culture should be taught, this deepens the complexity further because there are a multitude of different cultures in the English native-speaking world, along with all of their associated internal sub-cultures. Medgyes

(1983, p. 4) states, “Different cultures view the world differently, and these divergences are necessarily reflected in their linguistic systems.” This observation highlights the great disparities in backgrounds and in relationships to the content that the teachers must deal with because each “native speaker country” can have different cultures. This adds to the complexity of the study when addressing the achievement of agency in PD when the teachers’ iterative component has such variety and complexity that it adds to the complexity of achieving agency in the multinational PYP context. Addressing NNES teachers’ identities, Fichtner and Chapman (2011) conducted a study involving twelve NNESs to investigate their perceptions of their cultural identities. They found that while the NNES teachers tend to have a positive outlook on the different cultures of the other teachers, they “remain rooted in their own national identities while they have the opportunity to pass on their knowledge of the target culture” (p. 133). The NNES teachers also “emphasized the difference between their primary and secondary cultural identities, which did not replace each other, but rather seemed to exist side by side” (p. 133). That is, they could see both their own culture and the L2 culture from a new and original viewpoint. This point underlines the complexity of cultural identities in a globalised world. However, these layered identities can create challenges when teachers collaborate; for example, teachers need a common language in order to understand each other, and they also need a common understanding of the curriculum, the assessment, and how they interpret course goals.

Struyven, Jacobs, and Dochy (2013) note that many of the studies on how teachers’ beliefs are affected by teacher education have been conducted on pre-service teachers, but little research has been done on in-service teachers (Borg, 2011). Teachers in PYPs, regardless of which teaching approach they adopt or which level or discrete skill they teach, all share classes. It is beneficial for ELT teachers to collaborate in professional learning communities to co-construct knowledge and reflexively learn from each other about the similarities and differences in beliefs and practices, all of which can facilitate learning. This could happen through the completion of collaborative tasks and goals set out by the teachers themselves, or by management.

Teachers of the lingua franca often apply for teaching positions or are taken on solely because they know English, not because they have any interest or qualifications in the area (Deardon, 2014). They have a broad variety of learning and professional

backgrounds and relationships with the language, which can in turn imply different beliefs and values. These different beliefs and values about what teaching and learning look like can result in their also having different ideas as to what professional learning and PD look like (Borg, 2009; Deardon, 2014). Therefore, one of the research questions to be explored in this study is: How do teachers' learning and professional backgrounds influence engagement in PD? To ascertain whether or not the participant teachers' different beliefs result in differing views of professional learning and PD, they were asked about their experiences of professional learning and what good PD looks like.

2.4.4 ELT teachers' learning backgrounds

Teachers' learning and professional backgrounds can contribute greatly to their beliefs, professional vision, and even to their very identity (Nisbett and Ross, 1980; Pajares, 1992; Johnson, 1994; Almarza, 1996; Numrich, 1996; Woods, 1996; Richards and Pennington, 1998; Borg, 1999; Farrell, 1999; Darling-Hammond et al., 2002; Nishino, 2012). Nisbett and Ross (1980), Pajares (1992), and Nishino (2012) all agree that beliefs about teaching and professional vision often come from teachers' own experiences of education. Much has been said in the literature about how teachers of all disciplines approach PD or professional learning as adults and how they bring with them their previous learning and teaching experiences (Mezirow, 1981; Knowles, 1984; Borg, 2009; Leat, Livingston, and Priestley, 2013). This is of particular interest when considering PYP teachers, who, as has been discussed before in Chapter 1, section 1.3.1.3 (p. 12-13), often come from a variety of nations with a variety of different learning and professional backgrounds (Copland et al., 2016; Aydınlı and Ortaç, 2018). The teachers' qualifications and experiences are far more varied than they would be in a mono-cultural environment. However, this diversity in PYPs does not relate solely to the teachers' experiences or professional qualifications; it also includes all of their other learning experiences at school and university and the environment and context in which they experienced these. A teacher's profile and history can influence his/her achievement of agency in PD as it can interact with the projective evaluative dimension.

English language teachers' beliefs and classroom practices are influenced somewhat by their language learning backgrounds Borg (1999). Many authors have found the same to be true with in-service language teachers (Johnson, 1994; Almarza, 1996; Numrich,

1996; Woods, 1996; Richards and Pennington, 1998; Borg, 1999; Farrell, 1999). In relation to the teachers' learning experiences, there are two issues that add to the complexity of the participants' beliefs: firstly, the teachers' relationship to the language and secondly their relationship to teaching and learning language (Borg, 2011). The NES participants have learned the lingua franca as an L1, and the NNES participants have learned it as a second or foreign language. Additionally, the language teaching approaches that both NES and NNES teachers have been encouraged to use when training to become a teacher might be different from some of their own language learning experiences. All of these different experiences can inform their beliefs of what good PD looks like and how and when it should happen, which can in turn affect the present situation and how they achieve agency in PD.

2.4.5 ELT teachers' language learning backgrounds

Assumed best practices for teaching the lingua franca have gone through many transformations over the last 70 years. The era in which a teacher underwent their teacher education and the teaching approaches preferred at that time can influence teachers' BAK. Reflecting on these approaches to teaching over the decades, Hinkel (2006) states that there are four current premises of ELT. First, there is the recognition that there is no best method. Second, both top-down, form-focused approaches and bottom-up, meaning-focused approaches are needed to acquire language proficiency. Third, English is now an international language, and the purposes it is used for—for NNESs and NESs—have been gleaned from corpus analysis (e.g., the British National Corpus or the Corpus of Contemporary American English). Starting from an enormous number of collected samples, corpus analysis focuses on the analysis of collocations and grammar in context. The fourth premise is the awareness of the need to use integrated, dynamic instructional methods to give the students opportunities for meaningful language instruction. However, Savignon (2005) noted that many of the described models of an integrated approach—for example, task-based learning or the Lexical Approach—fall under the remit of communicative language teaching, in which the distinctions of the four separate skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) is blurred. Holliday (1994) and Prodromou (2005) contend that many of these methodologies are native-centric models of practice that discourage the use of the students' L1 in favour of using the target language at all times.

There has been a great deal of research into the evolution of approaches to teaching English as a foreign language, many of which were designed to facilitate international teachers who might have limited or no knowledge of the students' L1. These different approaches can influence teachers BAK depending on when in their learning and/or teaching career they were made aware of them. Since Krashen put forward his theories of second language acquisition (SLA) in the 1980s (Krashen, 1981, 1982, 1985), many approaches have involved teaching English through the medium of English. Krashen (1981) proposed that SLA is similar to a child's first language acquisition. Error correction is not necessary in this approach; instead, the native speaker can provide the learner with modified models of correct language. In this model of language learning, the students' L1 is avoided and error correction is minimal, as this was seen as a way to facilitate learning. Such approaches, created by Western academics and educators, enable a teacher who does not know the students' L1 to teach the target language in the target language. Although they favour international teachers who wish to teach in multiple countries and do not have time to learn the students' L1, these approaches can mean that students miss out on valuable opportunities for language comparison of the L1 and L2. In addition to the benefit lost through dissuading students from using their L1 to support their English language learning, Phillipson (1992) and Canagarajah (1999) claim that imperialistic notions of Western domination pervade the culture of ELT teaching. Canagarajah (1999) and, more recently, Kiczkowiak, Baines, and Krummenacher (2016) argue that not only does language bring with it inherent cultural implications, it also brings an imperialism of teaching approaches. This is especially relevant to the generic English language course books that reflect these "One-size-fits-all" teaching approaches as a result of the commoditisation of lingua franca teaching (explained further in Chapter 1, section 1.3.1.2 pp. 12-13). This imperialism discussed by Phillipson (1992) Canagarajah (1999) Kiczkowiak and, Baines, and Krummenacher (2016) is also reflected in PD led by Western expatriate NESs who come from less hierarchical, more democratic cultures (Hofstede and Minkov, 2010) which support the bottom-up communicative approach (see Chapter 2, section 2.2.1 pp. 34-35). These styles may not always suit periphery contexts such as non-Western countries with different teaching styles and cultures. In his study based on the perceptions of NNES teachers from India, Canagarajah (1999) discusses the implementation of Western-orientated PD in the context of the challenges and

opposition experienced by periphery teachers. He also discusses the native speaker fallacy (Phillipson, 1992), which enforces the detrimental belief that NESs are inherently the best teachers of English and that periphery teachers come second. In the current literature, this fallacy has been challenged and deemed narrow-minded (Swan, Aboshiha, and Holliday, 2015).

Despite the evolution of language teaching methodologies over the years, many teachers still prefer teaching top-down, discrete skills over a more holistic, communicative approach as it appears to suit their own beliefs about learning (Dearden, 2015). These preferences may be particularly strong among national teachers from Kachru's (1997) outer and expanding circles, who are often proficient in the students' L1 and who might feel that many of the newer methods being proposed are less than suitable for their students' learning styles. Instead, these teachers may feel that the best strategies for their students are the ones that they themselves used prior to attending university (Dearden, 2015). Of late, the post-method has been suggested as a preferred method. The post-method advocates adopting a mixture of both old and new approaches to be adapted in the classroom as deemed suitable at any given moment alongside the acknowledgement that different methods work at different times with different student profiles (Galante, 2014; Ahmadi and Maftoon, 2015). The notion of the post-method can allow an integration of approaches that suit both NNES and NES teachers' BAK, allowing for both the communicative approach and grammar translation methods. All of these differences in approaches and BAK might reflect the varying quality of teaching and the various approaches teachers have previously encountered as learners or trainee teachers. Research shows that neither NES nor NNES teachers are more effective in the classroom; instead, they bring different, alternative strengths and weaknesses (Alptekin and Alptekin, 1984; Prodromou, 1992; Medgyes, 1994). However, other concerns related to professionalism appear to be greater among NNES teachers, such as a commitment to and interest in PD (Liang, 2002). These concerns could possibly derive from the fact that NNES teachers are altruistically motivated as they are teaching students from their own country (Struyven, Jacobs, and Dochy, 2013), and their attachment to their country and culture may give them an awareness of their part in the bigger national picture.

2.4.6 Reasons for entering the profession

Following the emergence of globalisation and internationalism and the consequent usage of the lingua franca (see Chapter 2, section 2.3. p.36), there are now many more positions for teaching English to PYP university students outside of NES countries (Gao and Xu, 2014; Dearden, 2015). NNES English language teachers, like NES teachers, might work abroad or remain at home and may share similar motivations, such as earning an income while living abroad. The reasons for becoming an English language teacher and deciding where to teach are part of the iterative dimension that can affect teachers' current commitment to the profession and, therefore, are a key starting point to understanding what can engage them in PD (Richter et al., 2011). It must be acknowledged that this view of teacher motivation and commitment is based not only on how the teachers started in the profession, but also on how the teachers' motivations can change with experience (Richter et al., 2011).

The desire to become a teacher can stem from having a positive view of education, and this view of education can influence how, why, and whether teachers want to continue to develop professionally. Struyven, Jacobs, and Dochy (2013) collate three reasons from the literature for why teachers become educators (Bastick, 2000; Kyriacou and Coulthard, 2000; Moran et al., 2001; De Cooman et al., 2007): 1) altruistic reasons, relating to individual perceptions of teaching, such as believing teaching has inherent value and is a means to improving society; 2) intrinsic reasons, such as vocational reasons and enjoyment of the content; and 3) extrinsic reasons, which relate to the attributes of the position, such as working conditions and pay. Several scholars have pointed out that teachers who are committed to the profession are more likely to sustain an interest in their chosen career (Sinclair, 2008a; Gao and Trent, 2009; Struyven, Jacobs, and Dochy, 2013). Those who are intrinsically motivated may show more commitment to teaching and PD (Rots and Aelterman, 2009), although, as has also been noted, this motivation can vary at different times. It is therefore of interest to discern why English language teachers choose this profession as this might affect their dedication and motivation to develop professionally. The perceived commitment (or lack thereof) to ELT can filter through to the teachers' beliefs and in turn affect their commitment to development and professional learning. Nias (1996) states that without teacher commitment, teaching becomes "unbalanced, meagre and lacking fire and in

the end, therefore, unsuccessful" (p. 306). However, there is a complexity to teachers' commitment to ELT because English is currently in high demand across this modern, globalised world, which means not everyone enters the profession for simple reasons (Sinclair, 2008a; Xu, 2012). Similarly, Gao and Xu (2014) found in their study in China that extrinsic motivation is one of the reasons for English teachers' career choices. However, Gao and Xu (2014) were discussing a different context (NNES teachers in their home country), which is quite unlike the variety of NES and NNES teachers in the current study. Theirs is not a study that focuses on different nationalities and their motivations in PYPs with teachers of many different backgrounds and nationalities. Each teacher's identity needs to be considered as this is key to understanding their motivations and fears and how these motivations, fears, and identities can influence each other (Leat, Livingston, and Priestley, 2013) and affect the interplay between the iterative and practical evaluative dimensions and the resulting teacher engagement in PD.

Section Four: Collaborative teacher learning communities

2.5 Collaborative Professional Learning

The enhancement of teaching practice can occur as a result of individual or collaborative reflective acts when people take part in formal work PD Jones and Dexter (2014).. As much of the top-down, one-off, in-service type of PD referred to in 2.3.1 is seen by many as effective (Rodrigues et al. 2003; Mackey and Evans 2011), there has been a move towards collaborative, bottom-up PD acknowledging the teachers' need for agency and engagement (Richter et al., 2011; Jones and Dexter, 2014). To facilitate collaborative reflection, where teachers work together and share ideas and PD regarding work-related activities, the literature proposes a variety of learning community frameworks (Stoll et al., 2006). One definition of a learning community is one that has been consciously created "to promote and maximize the individual and shared learning of its members" (Lenning, Hill, Saunders, Solan, and Stokes, 2013, p. 7). Teacher learning communities are believed to provide PD and teacher learning while also improving student learning outcomes (see, for example, Borko, 2004; Stoll et al., 2006; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Stoll, 2015; Prenger, Poortman, and Handelzalts, 2017).

Clausen, Aquino, and Wideman (2009) believe that there are many analogous notions

of teacher collaborative learning. Dewey's (1938) "communities of inquirers" was the first to address the concept of teacher collaboration to facilitate each other's learning, and over time, these ideas progressed to Schaefer's "centres of inquiry" (1967). With minor disparities, the two most commonly used terms for teaching communities (TCs) carrying out PD in the workplace are professional learning communities (PLCs) (Stoll et al., 2006) and communities of practice (CoPs) (Lave and Wenger, 1991). Several authors (e.g., McLaughlin and Talbert, 2007; Levine and Marcus, 2010; Meirink et al., 2010) agree that collaborative PD is beneficial for the teachers taking part and for their students. In reference to their review of the literature on PLCs, Stoll et al. (2006) find a number of areas that were perceived to overlap: shared values and vision, collective responsibility, reflective professional enquiry, collaboration, promotion of group as well as individual learning, mutual trust, respect, and inclusive membership. The authors discuss the need for collaborative, reflective, professional inquiry, which they describe as "conversations about serious education issues or problems involving the application of new knowledge in a sustained manner" (p. 226). An example of this would be applying new ideas and information to problem solving and finding solutions to address student needs, which both Knowles (1984) and Hord (1997) support for adult learners. This concurs with Mezirow's (1997) critical reflection model, where PD activities are viewed as a contextual problem-solving issue that teachers can do collaboratively by analysing case studies, solving real problems, or carrying out role-plays and/or other suitable activities.

These communities have been noted to be successful in creating an open environment that encourages teachers to co-construct knowledge and develop by reflecting, experimenting, and acquiring new teaching ideas from their colleagues (Borko, 2004; Meirink et al., 2009). However, differences are manifested in their understandings of CoPs and PLCs. The CoP centres the community more in the sense of a shared common practice than in the sense of an organisation. In contrast, a PLC is described as a learning organisation. Stoll et al. (2006) acknowledge that there is not one single definition for a PLC, but in their review of the literature, they summarise a PLC as:

> the teachers in a school and its administrators continuously seek and share learning, and act on their learning. The goal of their actions is to enhance their effectiveness as professionals for the students' benefit; thus, this arrangement may also be termed communities of continuous

> inquiry and improvement. The notion, therefore, draws attention to the potential that a range of people based inside and outside a school can mutually enhance each other's and pupils' learning as well as school development.

This difference is further emphasised by the shared PLC goal of changing outcomes for learners Stoll et al (2006), as opposed to the CoP's focus on the practice of its members (even though both focuses are closely connected) Wenger Lave (1991). Another divergence relates to the fact that PLC models are based on learning organisation theory whereas CoP models draw on situated cognition, social learning, and knowledge management theory (Lave and Wenger, 1991).

This study will focus on the concept of collaborative teacher learning because the teachers in PYPs share students in an effort to teach the same curriculum, and the ultimate focus of the resulting high stakes proficiency exam is a priority. According to Kayi-Aydar and Goering (2019), teachers who learn together can greatly enhance student learning. The current literature recommends that for collaborative teacher learning to be effective, there should be a shared goal, a collective focus, and a reflective dialogue (Stoll et al., 2006). PLCs should have a space that is open to collaboration and trust and be well organised by both formal and informal leaders (Stoll et al., 2006). There should be agreement as to how the PLC is run to ensure understanding and to create a focus on what is to be achieved (Lomos et al., 2011). A collective focus is suggested to ensure teachers remain engaged in the process (Bolam et al., 2005; Lomos et al., 2011). Reflective dialogue, also recommended in the literature (Katz and Earl, 2010; Kennedy and Smith 2013), can refer to dialogues about teaching, which according to (Katz and Earl, 2010) can then lead to knowledge creation and teacher change; Kennedy and Smith 2013; Chauraya and Brodie, 2017). In addition, (Katz and Earl, 2010) emphasize teachers must have agency to discuss their beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge (BAK) in order to foster feelings of interdependence Improvements in teaching practices through collaboration are believed to be facilitated by having a shared purpose (Bolam et al., 2005). For interdependence to develop, there must be mutual trust among colleagues, as engaging in transformative learning can be perceived as a risk in the workplace. Katz and Earl (2010) observed in their study that when trust exists, the agency to reflect and change ways of thinking can emerge.

However, Kayi-Aydar and Goering (2019) note in their research that when teachers are interacting there will be tensions; however these are necessary for meaningful dialogue that will result in learning and change, if acknowledged and navigated well.

A great deal of recent research has looked at networks of collaborative teacher learning that entailed PLCs in groups of schools (Prenger, Poortman, and Handelzalts, 2017). These studies view PLCs as opportunities for reflection even though they are more challenging to organise and navigate, given the physical and metaphorical boundaries to be overcome. That is, teachers working at different schools and institutions must make a conscious decision to meet formally, and cannot rely solely on informal educational chats over coffee or lunch.

TCs, whether they are CoPs or PLCs, require the teachers or members to have a common and shared understanding of both teaching and the context. Possible differences in teachers' understandings and BAK as well as in their understandings of what the institutional and student expectations of teaching and learning are will be discussed in Chapter 2, section pp. 52 -58 and when addressing the different nationalities of the teachers in the Turkish PYP context in Chapter 2, section pp. 52 - 58.

Teachers participating in collaborative PD bring the internalised strategies that they have acquired during their learning and professional experiences (Stoll et al., 2006). These internal strategies, which could be described as professional vision, facilitate cooperation within teaching communities as the members (teachers) adapt their expectations, goals, and objectives to the practical contexts, norms, rules, and resources around them (Lave and Wenger, 1991). Teachers make conscious decisions using knowledge from the past and the present and about the future to make sense of problems and issues if and when engaged in PD (Mezirow, 1997). Therefore, to interpret the influences that affect engagement in PD, influences on agency can facilitate these understandings.

Therefore, this study is significant because it explores how the theories of collaborative PD can be joined with the concept of agency functions when participants come from diverse backgrounds in order to help understand possible issues that may arise in this context. The next section will explore agency in greater depth.

2.6 Teaching Communities

Siebrich de Vries et al. (2013) talk of a collaborative relationship between the teachers' and the organisations' needs, which in turn includes facilitating students' needs (Fullan, 2008; Miedema and Stam, 2008). Teachers engaging in professional development can stimulate both their own development and that of the community. Therefore, when looking at how teachers engage in PD, it is helpful to focus on both the individual teacher as well as the larger community.

As discussed in 2.5.2.1, English language teachers come from a variety of backgrounds and hold differing motivations and beliefs. In PYPs, these teachers need to work together in a community to facilitate students' learning. English language teachers in their roles as learners in PD are adults who come to institutional PD with associations, concepts, values, feelings, and conditioned responses that they have acquired over the years from their own learning and experience as teachers (see Mezirow, 1997). PYP teachers have a complex iterative component, that is, their learning background, as discussed in Chapter 1 section 1.3.1.3 (see pp. 12-13). Mezirow (1997) states that these are frames of reference through which our experiences are understood and shaped and by which our expectations, perceptions, cognition, and feelings are established. Research into adult learners recommends that they engage in learning and that their experience (including mistakes) provide the basis for the learning activities in PD, which should be relevant to and impact upon their work (Knowles, 1984; Timperley, 2008). For PD to be purposeful, teachers' experiences and identities need to be acknowledged and built upon by involving the teachers in collaborative, critical reflection on themselves, their colleagues, the curriculum, and the resulting assessment that they are guiding their students towards. Moreover, the teachers should be part of the planning and decision-making processes regarding PD (Knowles, 1984). This is supported by the achievement of agency, where past learning experiences interact with the present practical evaluative dimension, i.e., the current context.

Having explored the PYP teachers' profile above, the next step is to consider the literature addressing how this multinational profile of teachers can affect engagement in collaborative PD. Teachers in a homogenous teachers' room, where all of the staff have studied at a national university, still have a diversity of identities and BAK.

Including teachers in a PYP from a variety of countries will create an exponentially larger diversity of identities, making for a very heterogeneous teachers' room, with NNES and NES teachers from a variety of countries and old and new cultures, as has been discussed above. Beauchamp and Thomas (2009) and Akkerman and Meijer (2011) agree that when studying how teachers work, learn, and develop, teachers' identities need to be addressed, and in the PYP context, this is even more relevant. They believe that teacher identity is fluid and continually influenced by interactions at work and in daily life and reflexively constructed with people who enter a teacher's sphere. For NES and NNES English language teachers, their identities and BAK can be influenced by a large variety of experiences both as learners in education and in PD and as teachers in international education.

2.6.1 Multi-national learning communities

When there is an international environment that includes teachers of different professional and learning backgrounds and different nationalities, cultural upbringings, and identities, there may be a separation of individuals into groups with those of a similar backgrounds and/or allegiances. Becher (1989) utilises the metaphor of "tribes and territories" to describe how people can group together in subgroups in the workplace. Menter (2011) uses Becher's (1989) tribal metaphor to discuss tribes in teacher education in Scotland. He suggests that the distinct groups of academics and practitioners collaborating together for teacher education could be described as belonging to groups that are similar to tribes. Menter defines four distinct groups within the system of teacher education according to the different focuses of the participants due to their backgrounds and positions. However, this constitutes too broad an example to compare to PYPs, which are one department within a single institution. Tight (2015) also builds on Becher's (1989) tribal metaphor to explain the relationships and interactions between different departments and faculties in universities. He looks at groups from different disciplines and topic areas that have different approaches to research and teaching in terms of how they are managed and how they interact with each other. However, this focus is also within a broader context than that of a PYP, as the external/institutional body contains already-defined territories, for example, different university departments. The actors within the defined boundaries (each department) will then create their tribes. These notions (Becher, 1989; Menter, 2011;

Tight, 2015) do not address the inherent complexities of the teaching staff in PYPs, that is, within a single department. The teachers in PYPs work together in the same department in a university, rather than in different departments in the same institution as in Tight's (2015) study, or in different institutions as in Menter's (2011) study, where an external body defines the tribe and territory. The PYP department differs from all other HE departments as there are no academics or lecturers and no requirements to conduct research and be published. Perhaps, if tribes do arise, then it would occur organically and not through divisions defined by the institutions.

To add to this complexity, there is also the consideration of where these teachers see themselves in the host culture's hierarchy, the possible misunderstandings surrounding who should stand where in the hierarchy, and, indeed, how the hierarchy itself should be constructed. Hierarchy and power structures are different in different countries and cultures (Hofstede, 2010). According to Fichtner and Chapman (2011), "the cultural dimension of teacher identity has rarely been taken into account in L2 acquisition research" (p. 117). Culture and identity need to be addressed further for multi-cultural groups of English language teachers, both for those who are situated in their home culture and those who have migrated abroad because it is necessary for them to interact and work cohesively with each other and with national teachers and staff.

In his discussion of cultural identities, Dervin (2011) notes that defining people by national culture is very limiting and misses the nuances and subtleties that each person can bring to a group. In order to better understand how groups of multinational teachers in PYPs develop together with their different backgrounds in a TC, PLC, or CoP, Hussain and Bagguley's (2015) concept of "reflexive ethnicity" can facilitate an explanation of the complex effect of the international experiences on teacher identity. Their concept of reflexive ethnicity utilises Archer's reflexivity model (2003) and might facilitate a better understanding of how teachers' interactions and attachment to their BAK can affect engagement in professional learning. When addressing NES teachers, the cultural learning and teaching experiences that have been gathered from a wide variety of international experiences in different countries are much broader than the experiences described by Hussain and Bagguley's (2015) research participants, who were born and brought up in another country prior to moving to the United Kingdom. Nevertheless, there are enough commonalities to merit adopting their

principle of reflexive ethnicity in this analysis of the multinational PYP context and how the teachers view their BAK. Many of the international NESs and NNESs lead a nomadic life, migrating to different countries, and, as a result, have a wide variety of cultural working and learning experiences that arise from working in an assortment of countries with different cultural and religious beliefs. This might also affect the national NNES teachers, who may reflexively perceive their ethnicity communicatively and/or autonomously, as did the white British in Hussain and Bagguley's study; however, as they interact daily in the workplace with international NESs and NNESs, they may also meta-reflexively ponder their BAK.

Hussain and Bagguley (2015) point out that "people reflexively relate to their ethnicity" (p. 2); that is, people's relationship with their ethnicity may be different depending on the context even though their ethnicity itself does not change. According to Archer's (2007) study, people interpret their ethnicity with "communicative, autonomous, meta and fractured reflexivity" (p. 93). This concept of reflexivity helps us to understand the complex perceptions of peoples' identities, both of those who live in one country but were born and brought up in another culture and those who were born and brought up in just one culture. Hussain and Bagguley's (2015) study examines immigrants from developing countries who have entered the United Kingdom, as opposed to expatriates or "privileged" migrants from developed countries who have a different relationship with the host culture (Kunz, 2016). The latter often hold a more privileged position, with better opportunities and status, which is a leftover from post-European colonial days (Walsh, 2010; Lundström, 2014; Kunz, 2016). Hussain and Bagguley (2015) found that the migrants and non-white British were more meta-reflexive about their perceptions of their ethnicity. Hussain and Bagguley (2015) referenced Archer's explanation of reflexivity when they found their participants "were critically reflexive about their own internal conversations" (Archer, 2007, p. 93). Conversely, the white British were both communicatively and autonomously reflective about their ethnicity, that is, "internal conversations require completion and confirmation by others before resulting in courses of action and those who sustain self-contained internal conversations, lead directly to action" (Archer, 2007, p. 93). Perhaps this is because teachers in PYPs struggle with and co-construct their ethnic identities to varying degrees. The mixture of ethnic identities in PYPs tends to be varied, and the role one's original culture plays in relation to one's identity and how people see each other can

become more obvious in a multi-cultural or multinational group. As these researchers point out, it is far easier to reflect on one's own culture when one has the opportunity to experience and compare it to other cultures (Copeland, 2016). Dervin (2011) argues that cultural identity can be fluid and is not generalisable, which is important to acknowledge when dealing with international groups working, reflecting, and developing together.

Dervin (2011), when discussing "the other", also talks of social representations that can provide actors with the tools to interact with people. He cites Moscovici's (1961, xiii) explanation of social representations, which he describes as systems of values, ideas, and practices that enable communication to take place among the members of a community by providing them with a code for social exchange and to unambiguously name and classify the various aspects of their world and their individual and group history.

When actors share representations, they are engaging in the co-construction of an agreement about reality. There can be both dominant and oppositional representations, which are where power can lie (Howarth, 2006). One kind of social representation comes in the form of stereotypes, which can be described as beliefs about the characteristics of a social category of people (Bar-Tal, 1996) and can create barriers between groups (Moore, 2003). When actors interact in groups, their behaviour can be informed by auto-stereotypes, which are associated with the in-group, or with hetero-stereotypes (relating to the out-group or the "other") (Dervin, 2011). As PYPs are intercultural and comprise many different in- and out-groups, I shall now focus on the concept of the out- or "other" group. Acknowledging another group or actor can often mean forming a generalisation about the person or group. The complexity of the individual is ignored, which allows people to assert their own identity while establishing their perceptions of similarities and differences from the other (Abdallah-Pretceille, 2003). Kumaravadivelu (2008) exemplifies the ways groups look at the other, referring to how ELT teachers often make wide generalisations about Asian education being top-down.

As has been mentioned above, PYPs consist of dynamic groups of both national and international teachers, with the latter often regularly changing countries and jobs. The

groups of teachers must work together as they share classes, course books, curriculum, and assessment in what could be classed as TCs. For TCs to be successful, they should be based on a common concept of an educational work culture, with a shared vision and shared notions of collaboration and trust within a group or community **(Stoll et al., 2006). This** is similar to the practical evaluative dimension proposed by Emirbayer and Mische (1998), who believe that for agency to be achieved within the present practical evaluative dimension, the cultural, structural, and material aspects need to be aligned. However, it is important to note that the practical-evaluative aspects put forward in PLC and CoP models can also be affected by the chordal triad interplay with the past iterative and the short- and long-term projective dimensions. Therefore, for a TC to function effectively and for teachers' collaborative PD efforts to be engaging, teachers' learning and professional backgrounds and their future prospects also need to be considered. Successful TCs and the achievement of agency in groups of multinational, multi-ethnic, and multi-belief teachers need investigation to understand how the combination can work and to better understand if "othering" may take place**.** Likewise, deeper study is required to identify the influences (if indeed they do exist) to better understand them and, subsequently, address them in this context in PD. The researcher found no literature discussing the challenges brought about by combinations of multi-cultural, multinational teachers and their possible different beliefs in the context of this study.

Teachers' relationships and interactions are the keys to effective collaboration. With this in mind, teachers' collegiality and cooperative actions have been frequently investigated (Lima, 2001; Kelchtermans, 2006). However, collegiality is not always seen as an asset to creative development as it can facilitate artificial agreement to please other colleagues, which can stall any movement forward (Lima, 2001). There is much literature on the possible challenges that need to be overcome when teachers collaborate in PD in TCs. TCs comprising multinational groups of teachers add complexity to the interactions that take place, and there is a possibility of tribal groupings, as mentioned in Chapter 2, section 2.6.1. (see p. 52). These groups of different nationality teachers are working in PYPs towards one common goal—preparing students for the high-stakes proficiency assessment to enable them to study in English in their degree programmes. Passing the proficiency exam is seen by all stakeholders (teachers, students, administrators, and parents) as the main goal to be attained in a PYP, and the teachers

who share classes and students can benefit from collaborative PD as they can support each other by sharing practical and emotional experiences and goals.

Collaborative PD with this diverse and multinational group of teachers can enhance students' and teachers' learning and each other's PD experience. Learning from others' ideas and comparing and contrasting BAK and learning and professional experiences can both elicit new ideas about teaching and provide opportunities for reflection. Teachers' identities, which are formed over time through different experiences (Mezirow, 1997), should be acknowledged and incorporated into PD to encourage critical reflection and engagement in PD (Knowles, 1984; Borg, 2007; Timperley, 2008).

Brookefield (1995) and Timperley (2008) acknowledge that reflection, especially in the workplace, can be a minefield that makes teachers feel vulnerable. As Timperley (2008, p. 7) acknowledges: "If emotional issues are ignored, teachers may close themselves off to learning and adopt defensive postures to avoid exposing their inadequacies." Critical reflection involves challenging one's taken-for-granted assumptions of teaching and school practices and imagining alternatives for the purpose of effecting change (Achinstein, 2002). Asking teachers to rise to this challenge and face the possibility of change can sometimes be a source of resistance to reflection and new ideas. Timperley (2008, p. 16) notes that teachers "rarely believe that they will need to engage in in-depth **(transformative)** learning or make substantive changes to their practice." This belief can present a barrier to reflection and to teachers opening themselves to the possibility of adopting alternative teaching methodologies. The sources of this resistance, which can be anything from confidence to barriers, need to be further understood in multinational professional learning environments.

Section Five: Agency

2.7 Agency in education

The notion of agency arose in Europe during the Enlightenment, with proponents such as Emmanuel Kant (1780), John Stuart Mill (1859), and John Smith (1776), whose theories are still influential today (see, for example, Oakly, 1994; Watkins, 2017). These theorists felt that democracy should be compatible with free will. Kant (1780,

cited by Emirbayer and Mische, 1998) noted that the connection between education and enlightenment was the free-thinking and autonomous action that education engenders. That is, if people are educated, they have the opportunity to be autonomous, they will have free will, and they will be more able to engage in free thinking. An in-depth analysis of agency in relation to active, engaged learning can be found in Mezirow (1997) (regarding adult learners), who addresses social learning theory and the benefits of learning reflexively. When relating agency to teachers and education, PD and learning have the potential to enable teachers to be the agents of reflection and change so that they can engage in active, agentic actions and learning. There is much literature on agency in many fields (Giddens, 1984; Hollis, 1994; Archer, 1995; Elias, 2000), but fewer studies exist on teachers as active agents of change in education (Biesta, 2010; Vongalis-Macrow, 2007). More recently, Eteläpelto et al. (2013) and Biesta, Priestley, and Robinson (2015) have attempted to advance thinking in the area of agency in education (see Figure 2 p.44). Biesta, Priestley, and Robinson's (2015) analytical framework of agency (adapted from Emirbayer and Mische's 1998 framework) has been utilised in this study; this framework focuses on ecological agency (as opposed to sociological agency), which is an experience that can be achieved rather than one that can be attained. That is, the conditions of agency should be worked towards as they cannot simply be bestowed; if the conditions for autonomy are suitably aligned, then teachers will be able to work towards and accomplish agency and, in turn, will be more likely to engage in PD. Understanding what influences teacher achievement of agency for PD in a given context can facilitate our understanding of what influences engagement in PD. Several scholars have noted that more research is needed in this area of teacher agency in PD, which looks at teachers as active agents of educational change, whether it be micro- or macro-change (Vongalis-Macrow, 2007; Leander and Osborne, 2008; Biesta, 2010).

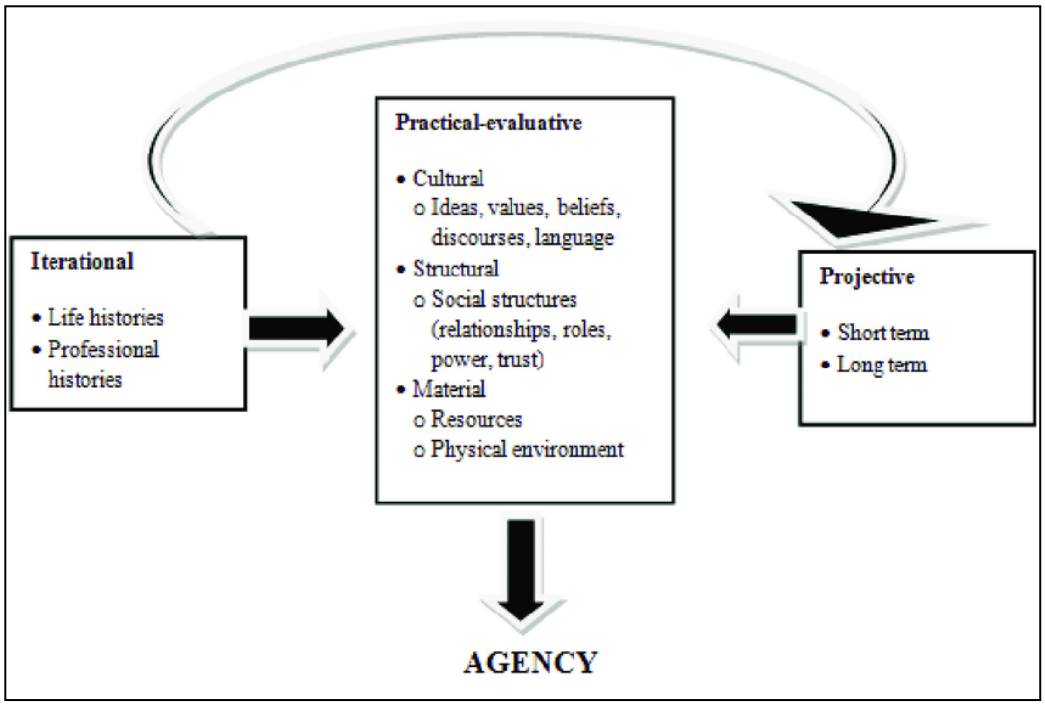

Figure2. Framework of agency (Biesta, Priestley, and Robinson, 2015)

The model for change that Biesta, Priestley, and Robinson (2015) propose is an adaptation of Emirbayer and Mische's (1998) framework, where agency is the intertwining of iterative and practical-evaluative experiences with projective evaluations, that is, where the past and the projected future influence what is happening in the present. Emirbayer and Mische (1998) speak of a "chordal triad of agency" (p. 970), within which all three dimensions (iterative, practical-evaluative, and projective) can interact both positively and negatively when attempting to achieve agency and engagement in education and, in the case of the current study, agency in PD. The practical-evaluative dimension is "the capacity of actors to make practical and normative judgments among alternative possible trajectories of action, in response to the emerging demands, dilemmas, and ambiguities of presently evolving situations" (p. 971). The iterative dimension is the actors' choice of past patterns of thought and action, which can be incorporated into current practical activity to give support and order to social universes and help to sustain identities, interactions, and institutions over time. The projective dimension is where the actors' fears, hopes, and desires for the future influence current thought and action; for example, their future hopes of career promotion or their anxieties can affect actors' current actions.

Emirbayer and Mische's model states that current situations, which are described as cultural, material, and structural resources, are influenced by past personal and professional backgrounds and future short- and long-term goals. Emirbayer and Mische (1998) state:

> The temporally constructed engagement by actors of different structural environments—the temporal-relational contexts of action—which, through the interplay of habit, imagination, and judgment, both reproduces and transforms those structures in interactive response to the problems posed by changing historical situations. (p. 970)

With the diverse mixture of teachers in PYP, there are past patterns of thought and action that have their roots in different cultures and experiences. These patterns can influence the current fears, hopes, and desires of the teachers and may have an effect on teacher agency in PD and, as a result, on teacher engagement in PD.

Agency has long been "associated with the challenges of life-long learning" (Eteläpelto et al., 2013, p. 46) and is described as the power of the individual to make an action happen; an absence of this influence is an absence of agency (Giddens, 1984). However, there still remains a variety of interpretations and confusion around the meaning of agency, which is why Eteläpelto et al. (2013) review the concept in an attempt to lend it some clarity. Many who have put forward adult learning theories (see Mezirow, 1981) believe that ownership and agency in learning facilitate engagement in knowledge acquisition (Prawat, 1996). Eteläpelto et al. (2013) state in their literature review that agency is "practiced when professional subjects and/or communities exert influence, make choices, and take stances in ways that affect their work and their professional identity" (p. 61). They acknowledge the variety of interpretations of agency found in the social sciences (Archer, 2003, 2007; Giddens, 1979, 1984, 1991) as well as in post-structural and socio-cultural perceptions. Giddens' (1984) theory acknowledges the interdependence of individuals and structures in agency but does not support unconscious agency for action whereas Archer's (1995) interpretation acknowledges communication, autonomy, and meta-reflexivity to address agency, which seems to take Giddens' theory further. Both authors recognise that agency and our understanding of the concept are very relevant to understanding the power one has, or that a teacher has, in the workplace as well as in his/her engagement in PD.

Eteläpelto et al. (2013) and Biesta, Priestley, and Robinson (2015) give models for defining the achievement of agency in the workplace. There are many crossovers between the two studies: both papers acknowledge teachers' internal components of life and professional histories from where their beliefs and values come, but Eteläpelto et al. (2013) have added the components of interests and commitments. Both papers highlight external components, i.e., structural and material issues such as power relations or the course being taught, as possible (positive or negative) influences on the interplay of dimensions that can affect the achievement of agency. Finally, the aspects that can be both internal and external and are related to the community of teachers are discourse, trust, and the creation of long- and short-term goals. Agency is acknowledged by many to be a key component of engagement in professional learning (Bredeson, 2003; Muijs et al., 2004; Leat, Livingston, and Priestley, 2013).

Reflecting back on Chapter, 2.7, many of the key areas of Biesta, Priestley, and Robinson's (2015) chordal agency triad model fit in with possible aspects of a successful PLC. If there are suitable conditions for achieving agency, teachers can engage in professional learning and have opportunities for reflective professional enquiry. Stoll et al. (2006) note in their literature review that shared goals and vision facilitate PLCs, and this can be informed by the iterative dimension, whereby learning and professional histories inform beliefs and intertwine with the practical-evaluative cultural aspect of having a common language and understanding. In addition, Stoll et al. (2006) cite the need for mutual trust, respect, and support among staff members as well as inclusive membership and collective responsibility, all of which are, from a practical-evaluative cultural and structural standpoint, a result of how much people interact and trust each other so as to collaborate and ensure there is an environment of group and individual learning. Nevertheless, in some contexts such as PYPs, there are very controlled environments of accountability in education, curriculum, and assessment. Curriculum and assessment constitute the material aspects of Biesta, Priestley, and Robinson's (2015) chordal agency triad and can influence cultural and structural aspects of agency, which, in turn, can influence engagement in PD. As these three areas iterative, projective and practical evaluative are key to PYPs, the three research questions developed for this study are: 1) How do teachers' learning and professional backgrounds influence engagement in PD? 2) How do teachers'

interactions with each other influence engagement in PD? and 3) How does the PYP curriculum influence engagement in PD? These research questions will be discussed in more detail below.

As has been touched on in this section, for effective professional learning or professional development to take place, there are many requirements to facilitate teachers' engagement in transformative learning. O'Reilly (2012) refers to a marrying of Emirbayer and Mische's (1998) concept of agency and collaborative teacher communities, specifically CoPs, "to bridge micro and macro perspectives" (p. 7).

PYPs consist of groups of teachers working together, with a wide variety of skills and knowledge that they can share and learn from, both formally and informally. As individuals and communities working together, teachers can influence both their own work and other group members' professional identities (Eteläpelto et al., 2013). Creating an environment for the achievement of agency in PD for adult learners can be an intricate process for these groups or communities, and this environment must be one where teachers can consciously decide to reflect on their practice (Schön, 1983, 1987; Kayi-Aydar and Goering, 2019). Recent studies support the importance of teachers engaging in PD, in a way that the knowledge acquired can be transferred into practice. To ensure that PD is engaging for teachers, it is vital that the context is considered to understand what particular forms of PD will support teachers (Banegas et al., 2013; Kayi-Aydar and Goering, 2019). The context referred to here comprises the sorts of local knowledge, problems, routines, and aspirations that shape the classroom environment, the teaching and the learning. One must therefore consider how each of these is shaped by individual practices and beliefs as this is what has shaped their BAK and their professional vision and influences how they see and value PD in the present. The importance of the context and the teachers' BAK supports the notion that agency and engagement in PD is shaped by the past, present and future, which is discussed in detail in this section, section 5.

Section Six: Training and teacher education in PYPs

2.8 Training and teacher education in PYPs

In this section, section six the elements of the chapter will be brought together to explain the research questions. That is why the research of teachers and agentic PD is of interest.

2.8.1 The influence of learning and professional backgrounds and teachers' interactions on engagement in PD

A multinational community of lingua franca PYP teachers with a wide variety of learning and professional backgrounds and resulting BAK should work together and collaborate to professionally learn to enhance student learning. As understood from Stoll et al.'s (2006) review of the literature on PLCs, the interactions of a group of teachers can influence engagement in PD. This will be discussed in more detail below, looking first at teacher communities and then focusing on a community of multinational teachers and how they can reflexively affect each other, before finally examining the context in which the community is set.

The PYP departments in this study are located in institutions within the Turkish education system; this system is run by the Ministry of Education, which sets out the rules for teaching and PD. Turkey's National Ministry of Education's Rules and Regulations for In-Service Training (2016) lays out polices for in-service training, whereby teachers are graded in their training. This need to grade PD could be said to reflect Turkey's hierarchal society (using's 2010 dimensions), where there is a power distance between management and employees, between students and teachers, and between teacher trainers and participants. Additionally, although this recent reform incorporates new plans for PD for primary and secondary teachers, PYP teacher PD remains the responsibility of individual universities.

The context in which PD takes place must be considered when organising PD, whether it is top-down generated and led by management or bottom-up and instigated and carried out by teachers. Lave and Wenger (1991), proposing CoPs, and Stoll et al. (2006), addressing PLCs, acknowledge that the context in which PD takes place and the participants' levels of understanding and trust within this context can have an extensive influence on the outcomes. These variables can, of course, change from institution to institution and from culture to culture. The context can interact with teachers' BAK acquired from their backgrounds and influence engagement in PD.

An important aspect to consider is the context of the host country in terms of government policies and attitudes towards education and hierarchy. Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov (2010) propose six cultural dimensions to evaluate and understand different areas of culture in different countries: power distance, individualism versus collectivism, masculinity versus femininity, uncertainty avoidance, long- and short-term orientation, and indulgence versus restraint. Power distance examines how hierarchical a society is. Individualism versus collectivism looks at how cohesive a society is and how much of a common culture it has. Masculinity versus femininity relates to how caring a society is towards its weaker elements. Uncertainty avoidance refers to rules and laws in place to ensure certain outcomes. Long- and short-term orientation regards how much a society plans for the future. Finally, indulgence versus restraint deals with how much fun is permitted in a given society, with one example being dancing. As Hofstede's dimensions come from a study involving educated international employees all over the world working for IBM, the research findings are of limited generalisability given that the participants were of an educated section of society and as such do not represent the diversity of businesses in different countries. It might even be suggested that these perceptions are stereotypes (see Dervin, 2011), which, as the authors acknowledge, is unavoidable. Turkey, the focus of the current study, is a developing country, and according to Hofstede's dimensions, it is both hierarchical and collectivist. According to Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov's (2010) generalisations of the Turkish workplace, superiors are often inaccessible and patriarchal, while the workplace is formal and top-down, communication is indirect, and the information flow is selective. In the Turkish workplace, conflict should be avoided and the harmony of the group should be maintained. However, these hierarchical lines of communication and power are not conducive to many collaborative forms of PD and could lead to conflict avoidance and possible groupthink, which can inhibit reflection and reflexivity and, ultimately, progress (Lima, 2001; Munthe, 2003). However, the possibilities for misunderstandings and tensions can be increased by the mix of international teachers, both NES and NNES, all of whom have different experiences and perspectives of power, hierarchy, and collegial relationships (Hofstede, 2017).

In a recent study conducted in Turkey by Akcan et al. (2015) to uncover PYP administrators' perceptions of the most suitable qualities and qualifications for ELT teachers to possess, most administrators agreed that many traits considered preferable could also be described as collectivist traits that facilitate teamwork in PLCs and CoPs, such as tolerance, patience, and kindness. Having a sense of humour, empathy, problem-solving skills, and openness to PD were all stated as being more valuable than holding pedagogical knowledge. Many of these characteristics align with the idea of Turkey being a collectivist society, which, as stated before, may cause tensions for NES teachers resulting from confrontations of identity and perceptions of what is or is not acceptable in an educational establishment.

There is a need to investigate the concept of an educational work culture, and the visions and notions of collaboration and trust within a group or community of multinational, multi-ethnic, and multi-belief teachers. Likewise, deeper study is required to identify the influences (if indeed they do exist) on understanding and communication, how these influences can be dealt with in the PD context in terms of the challenges created by combinations of multi-cultural and multinational teachers working together, and how this diversity can influence engagement in PD. PYPs comprise groups of teachers that change regularly as international teachers frequently move to new countries and jobs; nevertheless, they still must work together as they share classes, course books, a curriculum, and assessment.

For professional learning to be purposeful, teachers' experiences and identities need to be acknowledged and built upon by involving the teachers in collaborative, critical reflection on their teaching, themselves, their relationships with their colleagues, the curriculum, and the assessment that they are working with. To facilitate PD in such an environment, it is necessary to develop a deeper understanding of the groups of teachers in PYPs, who are of many different nationalities and identities and who have different relationships to the lingua franca as well as very different reasons for being teachers, and how they interact with others who might have a different view of learning. This consideration gave rise to the second research question: 2) How do teachers' interactions with each other influence engagement in PD?

2.8.2 The influence of learning and professional backgrounds and the curriculum on engagement in PD

The physical environment and the resources available to teachers in the PYP context in which PD is embedded can have an influence on teachers and their individual attitudes towards PD (Wenger and Lave, 1991; Mezirow, 1997; Stoll et al., 2006). One very valid reason for teachers to collaborate in PD is to enhance their common understanding of the curriculum in order to best exploit it and prepare students for the high-stakes proficiency exam. In order to navigate student learning, PYPs have curriculum committees that create the curricula to be followed in the courses. A curriculum, like teachers, education, and learning, is not fixed; it is flexible and dynamic as it evolves to react to student needs and changing technology. The evolution and change of the curriculum creates the need for PD, and if teachers do not have some level of agency in these changes, their interest in PD can be negatively affected (Ball, 2008; Biesta, 2010). The overarching goals of the curriculum may be fixed, but for teachers to have agency, there should be some fluidity in reaching these goals.

After investigating PYP English language education in Turkey (British Council, 2015) in 38 universities in 15 cities, surveying 4,300 students and 400 teachers, observing 65 classes, and interviewing 72 teachers and administrators, the British Council published a report that claims that the main challenges in Turkish PYPs are that the English language courses are too short and primarily exam-focused. As a result, English teaching at high schools was revised and now incorporates more hours of tuition in an effort to give students the opportunity to learn a workable amount of English prior to entering university (Aydınlı and Ortaç, 2016).

Like all teachers, those working in PYPs have demanding jobs that are seen by all as having a single focus—preparing students for the English language proficiency exam. With this primary focus in mind, it would be of benefit for the groups of teachers to speak a meta-language that everyone understands (but often do not as they have different learning backgrounds). The current literature on teacher engagement in PD focuses on teachers' relationships with the courses they teach and their degree of ownership of the curriculum, materials, and assessment in terms of teachers' professional and learning backgrounds (Hargreaves, Lieberman, Fullan, and Hopkins,

2009; Priestley, Edwards, Priestley, and Miller, 2012). Having the ability to influence the course and curriculum can create an environment where colleagues share a vision (Sahlberg, 2011), which, along with having a safe environment where risks are encouraged, is most conducive to a PLC (Stoll et al., 2006; Nieveen, 2011; Priestley, 2011). A teacher's ability to interest students in the curriculum is related to how involved and engaged he or she is (Campbell, 2012).

Having acknowledged that the current literature advocates teachers having some degree of agency in interpreting the curriculum, it should now be explained what curriculum actually entails. A curriculum can lay out educational goals and how they should be executed and assessed (Shulman, 1987; Elmore, 1996). Curriculum in the macro-sense can even incorporate culture and values (Saylor, Alexander, and Lewis, 1981; Lawton, 1996). Curriculum can be described as encompassing implicit curricula, excluded and extracurricular curricula, and hidden curricula (Dewey, 1902; Smith, 2000; Kelly, 2009). The implicit curriculum, which is not explicitly stated in the curriculum's design, can involve school culture and the behaviours, attitudes, and expectations in which a multinational mixture conflict may arise. Similar to the implicit curriculum is the hidden curriculum, which entails learning that is incidental (Kelly, 2009) and can include relationships with students and peers (Jackson, 1986) as well as ethical standards that teachers hold, which may influence aspects of their professional practice such as their beliefs about teaching and learning (Campbell, 2003). The excluded curriculum is that which is explicitly chosen to not be included in the curriculum; this could be, for example, religion or certain aspects of evolution. Finally, the extracurricular is that which is above and beyond the curriculum goals, one simple example being school clubs. All curriculum types need to be exploited effectively, which requires collaboration and a common language; this could be more challenging in a group of national and international teachers with different nationalities, cultures, upbringings, and learning and professional backgrounds, along with different interpretations of PYP goals.

Just as curriculum is influenced by the micro-culture of an individual institution as well as the greater culture in which it is carried out, education itself is also a product of culture. For example, many developing countries have less explicit democracy and top-down, hierarchical societies (especially countries outside of the West and Europe,

which were not broadly involved in the discussions about and subsequent evolution of the Enlightenment). Developing countries also often have more traditional education because reduced education budgets lead to fewer schools and larger classes, which are more easily managed with traditional methods of top-down, teacher-centred instruction. This may be reflected in the curriculum and its implementation.

However, referring back to Chapter 2, section 2 (see pp. 35-37), where internationalism and the current neoliberal influences on HE are discussed, Datnow (2012) talks of the prevailing trends for accountability in education, which is judged in terms of student performance using standardised test measures and was noted by Biesta (2017) as constituting a barrier to the achievement of agency in PD. The need to investigate these aspects further in this context led to the third research question: 3) How does the PYP curriculum influence engagement in PD?

2.9 Chapter summary

This study looking at factors that influence teachers' engagement in PD is set in the modern, post-traditional, intercultural, and globally aware world of education, a setting where agency can be seen as both a necessity and a greater challenge than in the past, when teachers often worked in more mono-cultural environments, unlike the more common multi-national settings of today. As a result of current neo-liberal universities accountability and PD are must sought out to provide evidence of quality education.

Much has been said about adults learning in the workplace and about the beliefs they bring about teaching and learning (Knowles, 1984; Mezirow, 1997; Borg, 2007). Alternatives have been put forward in attempts to recognise teachers' reflexively constructed, fluid identities and collaborative PD in communities such as PLCs (Stoll et al., 2006) and CoPs (Wenger, 1998). This chapter has acknowledged that teachers with agency can thrive in the workplace. However, more research needs to be done on understanding the tensions that may occur when multinational, multi-ethnic, and multi-belief teachers interact and collaborate in PD. As a result, the first sub-research question focuses on this area: How do teachers' learning and professional backgrounds influence engagement in PD?

While much research has been carried out on the interactions of groups can influence PD, there are no specific studies focusing on PYP groups when engaging in PD nationalities. Therefore, the second sub-research question is: How do teachers' interactions with each other influence engagement in PD?

In relation to the material aspects that influence engagement in PD, the course and assessment in this study must also be examined as the teachers have many different learning backgrounds, professional experiences, and relationships with the course content; they may also have different notions of how to interpret and implement the course, which could influence their views of PD. Therefore, the final sub-research question is: How does the PYP curriculum influence engagement in PD?

The aim is that the three sub-research questions will contribute to a better understanding of the factors that influence PD in the PYP departments looking at PD

also through the lens of agency aims to bring new knowledge to implementing PD in a multi-national group of educators.

Chapter 3 Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter lays out the design of the study into teachers' engagement in the PD process in Turkish preparatory year programmes (PYPs), including how the study was carried out and how the data were interpreted. This chapter comprises of three sections: the development of the research design, the implementation of the research design and interpretation of the data, and finally, the reflection on the research processes.

In Section One, building the research design and the importance of worldview in research is discussed. It aligns the context and the literature with the rationale for the research design. Then, alternative research approaches are compared and a rationale for a qualitative study of three universities will be explained. The specific universities chosen and the process of recruiting the participants will be discussed and justified. In Section Two, the procedures of the study are explained in detail, which includes a scrutiny of the procedures of participant recruitment, the data collection, and the data analysis techniques. In Section Three, the final section, there will be a reflection on the overall data collection process, the ethical considerations, the limitations of the findings, and finally, the role of the researcher.

3.2 Section One: Building the research design

3.2.1 Research aim and questions

With a focus on three universities in Turkey, the research aim of this study is to investigate factors that influence groups of national and international teachers in professional development (PD) through the lens of teachers' perceptions. This aim resulted from a previously identified research problem, which was the lack of engagement of many English language teachers in PD. From this desire to understand what influences engagement in PD, the following research questions were created:

Overarching research question

What factors influence international and national teachers' engagement in PD?

Sub-Questions

1. How do teachers' learning and professional backgrounds influence engagement in PD?
2. How do teachers' interactions with each other influence engagement in PD?
3. How does the PYP curriculum influence engagement in PD?

3.2.2 Research approach

Of the three research approaches—quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods (Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006; Creswell, 2013)—this study was carried out within a qualitative, interpretivist paradigm, which, despite the recognised limitations (Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006), was deemed best suited to the proposed research. The choice of paradigm also resulted from the worldview of the researcher, who acknowledges multiple realities that are constantly influenced by our reflexive interactions with others. The rationale for choosing the phenomenological interpretivist paradigm will be explained in detail below.

Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed-methods research approaches all involve posing research questions to identify the data, determine which data to collect, and analyse the results; that is, each approach is a procedure to attempt to answer research questions (Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006; Denzin and Lincoln, 2011; Yin, 2011; Creswell, 2012;). The quantitative approach, used most often in the natural sciences, generally starts with a hypothesis and looks for cause and effect as well as generalisable truths to prove (Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006). Proponents of quantitative research believe in determinism and that everything can be solved. Quantitative research brings a breadth of knowledge and generalisability. A qualitative research approach, on the other hand, looks more deeply at human experience in context to determine how humans interpret and make sense of these experiences (Creswell, 2013; Lichtman, 2013). The third research approach is the mixed-methods approach, which involves both quantitative and qualitative methods so that the research questions can be studied through multiple lenses, which can be seen as adding to both reliability and validity; however, mixed-methods research can also result in contradictory evidence (Creswell, 2013; Lichtman, 2013).

Maxwell (2008) recommends using a qualitative approach to understand the meaning that participants place on behaviour and events, the effect of context on the behaviour, and the events and processes from which these behaviours and events emerge. This approach is suitable for the research questions of this study, which were designed in an attempt to understand how teachers' perceptions of PD are influenced by various factors. In addition, with this highly complex group of national and international teachers (see Appendix 9, Tables 2–5, pp. 253-254). a qualitative interpretivist paradigm enables a richness in understanding the data that the positivist paradigm would not, which will be discussed in more detail below.

3.2.3 Interpretivist research

Understanding the researcher's worldview ensures a comprehensive research process (Hesse-Biber and Leavy, 2010; Creswell, 2013). As with research approaches, there are also several schools of thought on worldviews, such as positivism, interpretivism, critical theory, feminism, and pragmatism (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994; Crotty, 1998; Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006; Creswell, 2009). An interpretivist worldview is utilised in this study because it enables a richness in the data collection which is deemed the most appropriate for the research aims and questions.

Alternative paradigms that look for objective, universal truths, such as those paradigms that evolved from the natural sciences (e.g., positivism, which could also be described as a normative paradigm), were thought to be less suitable for this study because a deep understanding of teachers' perceptions was required. Horkhiemer (1972), Kierkgeaard (1974), and Ion (1977) all question the efficacy of a positivist research paradigm in uncovering an appropriate depth of human experience. Positivists hold the belief that knowledge is objective and lives outside of the human mind. They believe that objective observation, verification, and measurement are how research should be executed (Anderson, 1998; Clark, 1998; Midraj et al., 2007). A limitation that has been raised regarding positivism is that its epistemology and ontology assume that human behaviour is governed by general, universal laws and characterised by underlying truths that can be uncovered. Within this framework, these laws and truths are seen to be obtainable and understandable (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2011). Additionally,

positivism aligns with behaviourist thinking, which sees human behaviour as being determined and governed by laws regarding how it is modified by external and internal stimuli; however, this implication of determinism does not encompass an individual's freedom of choice and moral responsibility (Nesfield and Cookson, 1987).

Interpretivism contrasts with these views. Interpretivism evolved from a reaction to and rejection of the perceived inflexibility of positivism and the idea that man has levels of autonomy and free will (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2011). An interpretivist approach to research intends to comprehend the subjective world of human experience (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2011), proposing that "reality is socially constructed" (Mertens, 2005, p. 16). Humans interpret their environment and themselves in ways that are shaped by the particular cultures and sub-cultures in which they live. These interpretations form their fluid realities, of which there are multiple truths (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2011). The interpretivist view argues that to attempt to understand why and how organisations of people work the way they do, we need to investigate their perceptions, intentions, and beliefs, as well as how they interpret and make sense of their world (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2011). This is unlike the normative positivist paradigm, which looks at both external and internal stimuli and how they have affected past behaviour.

Interpretivist research is an inductive approach to finding out humans' perceptions by "looking for culturally derived and historically situated interpretations of the social life-world" (Crotty, 2015, p. 68), which, in this case, are the teachers' perceptions that can influence them to be or not be engaged in PD. In the interpretivist paradigm, the ontological assumption, i.e., "what is out there to know" (Crotty, 1998; Grix, 2010; Ritchie et al., 2013), is what we can know about how teachers are engaged in PD. Interpretivists believe that the nature of knowledge is subjective. There can be multiple constructions of knowledge, and these can exist within any given context. Moreover, these constructions of reality may clash with each other and be affected by experiences and social interactions (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Grix, 2010; Mertens, 2015). Both groups and individuals construct meaning and their own reality through interactions within a social environment, of which there can be multiple evolving and valid versions. For the researcher, there can be a limited objective reality to ascertain; therefore, the research in this paradigm will be an attempt to understand meaning and knowledge

from multiple social constructions (Mertens, 2015). The current study explores teachers' perceptions of what engages them in PD and their understanding of the reality in their context.

The epistemological assumption is the process of knowing or "what and how we can know about it (knowledge)" (Crotty, 1998; Grix, 2010, Ritchie et al., 2013). In the interpretivist paradigm, there is the belief that knowledge is constructed by the human mind and emerges out of the interaction between the researchers and their world (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2011). The epistemological assumption can also be explained as the aim of the inquiry, which, in the chosen paradigm, is to appreciate and understand the participants' subjective interpretations of their perceptions of what engages them in PD. That is, knowledge or meaningful reality occurs because of human practices, which are constructed through interactions with other humans in a social context (Crotty, 1998). Appropriate methodology and methods were chosen to meet this aim. As Bryman (2001) states, "… a strategy is required that respects the differences between people and the objects of the natural sciences" (pp. 12–13), which therefore requires the social scientist to grasp the subjective meaning of a social action.

The axiology (that is, the nature of ethics) in this study addresses how we capture an understanding of the intentions of these social actions. Geerts (1983, cited in Schaffer, 2016, pp. 2–3) talks of "experience-distant" and "experience-near" concepts in research, which occur in any paradigm. Experience-distant concepts are ones that specialists use for their scientific, philosophical, and practical aims. On the other hand, when people define how they see, feel, or imagine in everyday situations, they use experience-near concepts. Working in the interpretivist paradigm, there is an acknowledgement that these two concepts are not opposites, and their definitions are not linear; there can be a range of meanings that may or may not overlap (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2011). People, through language, express these concepts or definitions (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2011); however, any lexical item, where superficially there may be an assumption of understanding, can actually have both technical and everyday meanings that are different (Schaffer, 2016). Many argue that for researchers, who are the interpreters of the data, any real separation or objectivity is impossible to achieve (Lichtman, 2014). The aim of the interpretivist researcher is to elucidate these meanings and provide insight into our shared social reality.

This common understanding of meaning is especially relevant to this study as many of the participants will be expressing themselves in their second language. An example of how meanings can differ that is relevant to this study concerns the word "professional". This word is a false cognate with the Turkish word *profesonyel* (derived from French), which is pronounced in a similar way and looks relatively similar but in fact has different nuances. In Turkish, the term has associations with the period of time in which one has worked in a position. For instance, a person with three years' teaching experience is not a *profesonyel,* whereas a person with 10 years' experience would be considered a *profesonyel* (Çelebi, Macfarlane, and Gürdere, 2009). However, understanding the intended meanings of participants with different first languages using a common language is, in itself, not enough. It is also necessary to be able to understand the languages, which have evolved around the culture(s) under investigation (Schaffer, 2016). The researcher of this study, who was embedded in the multi-cultural/multi-national English language teaching (ELT) culture for many years, has an understanding of this context. "From an interpretive perspective, the hope of a universal theory which characterises the normative outlook, gives way to multifaceted images of human behaviour as varied as the situations and contexts supporting them" (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2011, p. 17); theory, then, comes after (rather than before) research.

With the research questions and the described limitations of the chosen interpretivist paradigm in mind, the sources of data will be explained along with the instruments and collection methods. This study aims to understand and bring to light the complex nature of teachers' perceptions of engagement in PD. To examine these perceptions, teachers' engagement (or perceptions of their engagement) in PD could not be addressed through a quantitative questionnaire looking for detached, simplistic, and generalised truths or laws because the teachers in the study are from a variety of national, cultural, and educational backgrounds. The research was carried out to understand and demystify the social reality through the eyes of the teachers themselves and how they define their reality in the context of PD in the context of a multi-national PYP.

In short, an interpretivist worldview has been taken because of the subjective nature of the main research question, which aims to understand what factors influence engagement in PD. The researcher will endeavour to illuminate these multiple realities

of engagement in PD that the teachers have experienced and will continue to experience by interacting in groups and through their interactions with students, management, and others in the field with whom they may interact with in the past, present or future. By giving individual teachers opportunities to share their impressions in a manner that is fitting with the research questions, we may learn from these teachers' perceptions and interpretations about their engagement in PD.

3.2.4 Sources of data

For the purposes of this study, primary data from original sources were obtained. Primary data were collected from 20 participants via: 1) an online pre-interview questionnaire, 2) semi-structured interviews, and 3) online post-interview reflections. In addition, secondary data were sourced for analysis from both government and university documents relating to PD policies. The different phases are explained in detail below;

Phase 1:

The pre-interview phase consisted of a document analysis of the policies of the Turkish Ministry of Education and of the three institutions. The intention was to give the researcher an understanding of the culture and context of the study, including the language around the PD used in the different departments, to facilitate a deeper understanding in the analysis phase.

Phase 2:

The study began with two online pre-interview tasks. Firstly, participants were required to provide biographical information to give the researcher an understanding of their backgrounds. In addition, participants were asked five questions based around the five themes of the study (context, community, institution, course, and self). These five questions were designed to activate schemata prior to the semi-structured interviews, which is a common practice in ELT classrooms prior to conducting skills tasks.

Phase 3:

The next phase consisted of semi-structured interviews, which took approximately one hour and were based on the previously mentioned five themes. The participants were invited to share, in detail, their perceptions of PD in their current and previous work

contexts and to identify the factors that engaged them and supported their professional learning, as well as those that inhibited engagement and learning.

Phase 4:

The semi-structured interviews were followed up with an online post-reflection task, in which participants were asked to make any relevant further comments on the five themes brought up in the semi-structured interviews. The intention was to give the participants the opportunity to explore more deeply the views that they held on engagement in PD.

Pilot study:

A pilot study was carried out with six PYP teachers to ascertain the timing and suitability of Phases 2, 3, and 4. The six teachers worked at a different institution (a newly opened private university) from those involved in the main study, and the pilot was carried out immediately after Ethics Committee approval had been given. The pilot project also enabled the researcher to practise appropriate interviewing approaches.

3.2.4.1 Primary sources

The benefits of using primary sources of data are that the researcher has greater control and, as such, the methods of obtaining the data can be tailored to directly address the research questions of the study. The primary data collected in this study focus on concepts, perceptions, responses, and understandings about what engages teachers in professional learning. The primary data were qualitative in nature, in the form of both written and verbal materials.

3.2.4.2 Secondary sources

The other sources of data for this study were the PYP programme websites of each of the three universities, their teaching manuals, and other documents relating to PD. In addition, the information on the Turkish Ministry of Education's website relating to PD and language teaching was also analysed. The policy documents contained therein focus on both the institutions' and the teachers' responsibilities for initiating and carrying out PD, as well as the consequences and benefits.

3.2.5 Sampling

This section explains the research samples and includes a description of the context (Turkey), the three cities from which the three higher education (HE) PYPs were chosen, the participants, and the rationale for the choices.

3.2.5.1 Chosen country: The Republic of Turkey

The universities, located in three major cities, with their superior facilities and easy access to international airports, are attractive to both national and international teachers. The programmes chosen for the study have both international and national teaching profiles, which make them suitable for this research. Therefore, as explained below, the HE PYP directors were approached for permission to conduct the study.

These three major cities were selected for the study for a number of reasons. Although there are attempts to provide quality education and PD throughout Turkey (as explained in more detail in Chapter 1, section 1.3.2 pp. 13-22), the reality is that the provision of education is more developed in larger cities, just as it is in large cities in many countries around the world, where there is access to more and better facilities. As a result, in private HE institutions in Turkey, there are superior resources to facilitate carrying out high-quality English-medium instruction (EMI) education, which is the area of focus of this research and explained further in the next section.

3.2.5.2 Chosen PYP programmes

In Turkey, there are both state-run and privately run universities. The three universities selected for this study were all private *vakıf* universities (explained in detail in Chapter 1). The three university biographies below are gleaned from their websites (not cited to ensure anonymity).

University 1 has approximately 5,000 students and a student-to-staff ratio of 14:6. Approximately, 8% of the students are international students. The university is EMI, which means the language of instruction is English. Over 96% of the classes are taught in English (Times Higher Education, 2016). English language preparation is supported by a PYP English language programme, which is made up of under 100 teaching staff, 50% of whom are international and 50% of whom are national. Before students are

eligible for entry into their faculties, they have to earn 60% on the in-house proficiency exam, the equivalent of 6.0 on the International English Language Testing System (IELTS), or 70 on the Test of English as a Foreign Language Internet-Based Test (TOEFL IBT).

University 2 has approximately 10,000 students and has entered into collaborative projects and exchange programmes with many international universities. The faculty has academic staff from around 40 different countries, many of whom were recruited from universities in North America and Europe. The university is EMI, which is supported by a large PYP English language programme consisting of over 200 teaching staff, 25% of whom are international and 75% of whom are national. Before students are eligible for entry into their departments, they have to earn 6.0 on the IELTS or the equivalent on the TOEFL or the in-house proficiency exam.

University 3 currently has approximately 7,500 students and an Erasmus programme agreement with 156 universities in 28 countries. It also has an academic cooperation protocol with a number of universities abroad. The university is EMI. The students must obtain 6.0 on the IELTS or the equivalent on the TOEFL or the in-house proficiency exam. This is supported by courses given by under 100 PYP teachers, 20% of whom are international and 80% of whom are national.

3.3 Section Two: Research procedures

3.3.1 Data collection

The research design included a data collection process consisting of four phases for data collection and analysis, which gave the researcher an opportunity to understand the culture and context within which the participant teachers were working as well as an opportunity for them to express their perceptions of the factors that engage them in PD. The researcher approached the directors of three different PYP programmes of private *vakıf* universities with national and international staff members to request permission to carry out her study. Each of the directors provided their consent. In the case of two of the universities, it was required to complete detailed ethics forms to

obtain study and seek approval from their ethics committees. Approval was eventually granted, whereupon documents (teaching manuals and other related documents to departmental PD) were collected from the directors of the PYPs. At the same time, the directors of each programme sent emails to their teaching staff asking if they would like to take part in the study, including details of what the study entailed. Those who were interested emailed the researcher, who subsequently replied by thanking them for agreeing to take part and organising a schedule to meet for an interview when she was in Turkey. In addition, the researcher emailed the participants a link to the pre-interview task as well as the plain language statement (PLS) and consent form (CF), the latter two of which she collected when she met the participants face to face. After closely reading the completed pre-interview tasks, the researcher flew to Turkey to carry out the interviews. 20 participants took part in Phases 2 and 3, and three participants took part in Phase 4. The details of the four phases are explained below. Phases 2, 3 and 4 were carried out and the data collected over a period of five weeks.

3.3.1.1 Phase One: Document Collection

The first phase of data collection involved obtaining the relevant documents from the Turkish government and from the three directors of the chosen programmes. This initial phase of data collection comprised a document analysis of the policies laid out by the Turkish Ministry of Education (see *In-Service Training for MoNE Teachers*, 2016 and *MoNE—General Directorate of Teacher Education and Development—In-Service Training Plan*, 2016) and the teaching manuals and websites that the three HE PYP programmes had developed on the topic of PD. These documents were collected from the directors of the PYP programmes of each university. The Turkish Ministry of Education's documents were sourced from and translated into English.

3.3.1.2 Phase Two: Online pre-interview questionnaire

The second phase of data collection involved an online pre-interview questionnaire that was set out in two parts. The online pre-interview questionnaire was chosen with the twofold aim of obtaining the participants' background information and their initial views on the six themes in the interview (see Appendix 3). The online pre-interview questionnaire contained 15 questions, took approximately 20 minutes to answer, and addressed the following:

A) The participants' duration and types of teaching experience, their qualifications, and the forms of PD in which they had participated; these could be described as category questions, which are useful for collecting demographic information (Curtis et al., 2014)

B) The participants' language-learning histories, the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) level they had attained in each language, and the methodology with which they had been taught, which could inform on the participants' beliefs regarding suitable methods of instruction

C) Likert scale questions soliciting the participants' opinions about a variety of types of professional learning, for example, external/internal PD sessions, action research projects, and others; two response options were given: "valuable" or "not valuable"; the reason for providing only two choices was to minimise the potential for ambiguity that can arise when interpreting ranking terminology and to deny the tendency of participants to avoid extreme evaluations such as "very good" or "very bad" (as recommended by Curtis et al., 2014 and Bryman, 2014). Additionally, as Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2011) state, the participants "have to make up their minds, they are not allowed to sit on the fence" (p. 381).

The rationale for points A and B (questions 2–8) was to develop an understanding of the background and learning of the teachers interviewed, which was later aligned with their stated perceptions of engagement in learning. The rationale for point C was to develop an understanding of which kinds of PD the participants found worthwhile and were therefore willing to engage in. In addition to allowing their initial statements to be matched with the views they shared in the interviews, this step also allowed comparisons to be made across the three institutions (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2011). The questionnaire ended with point D.

D) In this section (Questions 11–16), the participants were required to answer five open-ended questions, shown below in Table 2. The questions are in line with the interview themes, which concerned how participants perceived

themselves as teachers and learners, the effect of the context on professional learning, the effect of the English language course on professional learning, and experiences of professional learning in a multi-national/multi-cultural team. The themes are shown in Table 2 (Column 3) and will be discussed in more detail below in Chapter 3.

Table 1: Pre-interview open-ended questions

Phase 2: Pre-Interview Tasks		**THEMES**
1.	How do teachers' learning backgrounds affect their interest in PD?	Personal
2.	How does work experience affect teachers' interest in PD?	Personal
3.	How does the place where a teacher works make a difference (country/city/institution), if at all, to their interest in professional development?	Context/ Institution
4.	How can the community within which teachers work affect interest in PD?	Community
5.	How does the course (curriculum/assessment) affect teachers' interest in PD?	Course
6.	Many thanks for completing Phase 2, please add any further comments here.	

The rationale for point D, the open-ended questions, was to activate schema prior to the interviews, to give the participants an opportunity to think about their experiences as well as the topics that would subsequently be discussed, and to encourage deeper reflection rather than relying on initial reactions. Such questions could be described as open-ended, and although these types of question may lead to blank answer spaces, they do give the opportunity for participants to answer in their own words (Curtis et al., 2011, 2014). This data, in conjunction with the document analysis, provided the researcher with an understanding of the context prior to the interviews and gave her a way to guide the interview questions.

3.3.1.3 Phase Three: Semi-structured interviews

The third phase of data collection took place a week after the participants had completed the online pre-interview questionnaire and an initial analysis of their answers had been completed. The teachers were then invited to an interview to explore in greater depth the views they had expressed about engagement in PD. Having already made a schedule with the participants, the researcher confirmed the dates, and ensured that a suitable room in each institution was reserved. The researcher flew to each city and interviewed

each participant in the allocated room or in a place chosen by the participants based on where they would feel comfortable.
The third phase of data collection consisted of semi-structured interviews with the 20 teachers from PYPs in three different universities in Turkey (8 in University 1, 6 in University 2, and 6 in University 3). These interviews were scheduled prior to the researcher's arrival in Turkey.

There are three types of interviews that can be used in research: structured, unstructured, and semi-structured (Gary, 2013). The medium of in-depth, semi-structured interviews was chosen to give the participants the opportunity to further explain the examples they had cited when completing the online pre-interview questionnaire. Semi-structured interviews in qualitative research are utilised to attempt to understand the themes of the daily world from the participants' own perspectives and, specifically in this study, to obtain descriptions and an understanding of these perceptions of engagement in PD (Kvale, 2007; Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2011), and to gain authentic insight into the teachers' experiences (Silverman, 2001). The semi-structured interview is less guided than a structured interview, and aims to establish a deeper view of the participants' perceptions through verbal, non-verbal, spoken, and heard data, which can all be collected for analysis. The semi-structured interview has limited levels of control, which can give room to respondents to share their own views in suitable depth and complexity (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2011). Although not anonymous, the interview allows scope for the researcher to clarify and probe areas of ambiguity and misunderstanding. This medium is mostly subjective, or, as described by Laing (1967), "intersubjective," and as such is suitable for the study's interpretivist paradigm and the research questions being investigated. Therefore, semi-structured interviews were deemed the most suitable for addressing the research questions and collecting rich data on what does or does not engage teachers in PD and professional learning.

The interviews, like the open-ended questions in the pre-interview online task and the post-interview online reflection, are all based around the five themes (discussed below) that emerged as significantly related to engagement in the literature review (see Chapter 2), namely, self, community, institution, context, and course. The themes were drawn from Timperley (2008), who describes these themes in relation to how professional learning is framed and shaped "by the context in which the teacher practices … the

classroom, which is strongly influenced by the wider school culture and the community and society in which the school is situated" (p. 6).

The semi-structured interviews took 40 to 60 minutes and included the five themes, which were used as a guide.

1. **SELF:** This includes experiences of PD and perceptions of PD. In addition, self also includes the teachers' learning and professional backgrounds that can inform their BAK and can also influence their views and engagement in PD. The teachers' values, cultural ideas, and beliefs were the focus of these questions.
2. **COMMUNITY:** This explores experiences of PD in a multi-national, multi-cultural team and aims to understand how the English language teachers situate themselves in the teaching community and how they interact when collaborating in PD. Collaborative PD in either a community of practice (CoP) (Wenger and Lave, 1998) or professional learning community (PLC) (Stoll et al., 2006) can function better when teachers work together in a group with inclusive membership as well as shared goals, values, vision, collective responsibility, and reflective professional enquiry.
3. **INSTITUTION:** This focuses on the effect the institution can have on PD, which can inform the community and the classroom and is then reflected in PD (Timperley, 2008).
4. **CONTEXT:** This theme deals with the effect the context can have on PD, which is supported by the literature on collaborative professional learning (e.g. Wenger and Lave, 1998; Stoll et al., 2006). The classroom can be informed by the institution, which can in turn be informed by the wider context of the city's, country's, and government's views on education and PD.
5. **COURSE:** This explores the effect the English language course can have on PD**.** Teachers need to be meaningfully involved in curriculum and assessment design (Biesta et al., 2015), as this can contribute to having a shared vision and common goals that can facilitate collaborative PD.

Table 2. Interview Questions

Phase 3: Semi-structured interviews

Section A

Many thanks for agreeing to participate in my study about engagement in professional development.

1) …

Do you agree to take part in this study…?

I would like to add that, as well as recording this interview, I will take notes as I go along. So, please do not think I have stopped listening to you when I look down and take notes.

Section B **The Semi-Structured Interview Questions**		**THEMES**
1.	Can you explain to me why you became an English teacher?	Personal
2.	Can you tell me about your PD experiences before you came to this institution?	Personal
3.	OK, so with this in mind, how would you describe a good PD session or workshop?	Personal
4.	So with this in mind, how would you describe a good leader of PD?	Personal
5.	In general, was the PD used positively or negatively in your institution? And why is this?	Institution
6.	What is your opinion of the PD given at your institution?	Institution
7.	If you were to compare the PD in your institution with your general ideas of PD, what would you say?	Institution
8.	What do you know about the Turkish government's policy towards English language teachers' PD? Do you know anything about it?	Context
9.	Have you experienced PD in other countries?	Context
11.	So, in the institution that you are working for now, is the PD similar to or different from what you know of other institutions in Turkey?	Context
12.	How would you compare your learning experiences to your colleagues' in terms of how you think of high school and university education—do you think it was different or similar?	Community
13.	In your department, who do you work best with and who do you collaborate with here?	Community
14.	What kind of PD are people in your department interested in, in general?	Community
15.	So with this in mind, are there discussions between colleagues about assessment, curriculum, and pedagogy?	Course
16.	How is official feedback on teaching obtained, and what is done with the feedback?	Course
17.	What kinds of changes in the course, the curriculum, and assessment could change teachers' interest in PD?	Course
18.	Are the people leading the PD aware of what individual members of the department are thinking about PD?	Course

The questions were used as a basis for the semi-structured interviews are listed in Table 2 above. It also includes the introductory phase of the interview, during which the consent form was re-visited and completed orally. This was a contingency plan designed to ensure that consent was securely recorded while the researcher was travelling to different cities. In addition, the research took place around about the time of the July 2016 coup attempt, therefore, security and anonymity for participants was especially important.

3.3.1.4 Phase Four: Online post-interview reflection

Once the interviews had been completed, the participants took part in the fourth and final phase, an online reflection. This was sent to them by the researcher upon her return to the UK approximately a week after their interviews. The format of the online post-interview reflections was chosen as the fourth and final phase to give the participants the opportunity to express any further thoughts they might have had after the interview. The overall rationale for selecting the format of written pre- and post-interviews was to obtain the participants' further thoughts in a manner that is familiar to English language teachers. These teachers are often required, in annual or bi-annual lesson observations carried out in PYPs, to present a written pre- and post-reflection of their observed lesson prior to their pre- and post-observation meetings. As such, this activity was deemed not to fall outside of their comfort zones, and it facilitated the opportunity for deeper reflection and obtaining insights into internal conversations (Archer, 2003).

The rationale for including a written reflection was to obtain the teachers' further thoughts on the topic, which would provide valuable insight. After a topic has been discussed, people often then reflect on that topic, either actively or passively, and come to further conclusions. The online post-interview reflection gave the participants the opportunity to share further thoughts on their perceptions of their engagement in PD that may have been stimulated by the interview. It also created an opportunity for them to share ideas they may not have initially thought of when first asked, but which may have arisen upon subsequent reflection. This reflection also took the participants approximately 20 to 30 minutes to complete. Prompts were given to guide the participants in their reflection.

Even though the interpretivist paradigm puts forward that realities can be different for different people at different times, the time lag of seven days from the interview to the further reflection gave the teachers the opportunity for deeper reflection and to build on what they had said, as opposed to adding to the reality that they had already shared. It is acknowledged that the interview was a reflexive/intersubjective process between the researcher and the participant, which stimulated further thought and reflection, i.e., an internal conversation in the area of their engagement in PD (Archer, 2003). Archer discusses a variety of reflections that are possible, and in this case, it could be "mulling over," "reliving," "prioritising," or "clarifying." Therefore, to further capture this reflexivity with the participants' self and their possible deeper reflections, the researcher added this final stage to the data collection (see Table 3). There were five further reflection questions, one for each theme.

Table 3. Online post-interview questions

Online Post-Reflection Questions		**THEMES**
24.	What further thoughts do you have about the impact of the place in which teachers work on their interest in PD?	Context
25.	What further thoughts do you have about how the course (curriculum/assessment and student feedback) might affect teachers' interest in PD?	Course
26.	What further thoughts do you have about how the diversity of teachers' learning backgrounds might affect interest in PD?	Personal
27.	How would you interest teachers in PD?	Community/ Institution
28.	What would you say to disinterested teachers? Why?	Community/ Institution
29.	Many thanks for taking the time to complete Phase 4. If you have any further comments, they would be very much appreciated.	

Only three of the 20 participants completed this final phase. This was disappointing but could possibly be a result of unfortunate timing. The 2016 coup d'état attempt in Turkey

occurred eight days after the researcher left the country, and as the end of the academic year was approaching, many of the participants left the country and did not return. Nevertheless, the post-interview reflection is definitely a method the researcher would use again in a different context and in a calmer time.

The teachers were asked to reflect on their perceptions of PD on three specific occasions via two different media—online and face to face. This method was designed to obtain a deeper understanding of the underlying reasons for engagement, or possible lack thereof, in PD.

3.3.1.5 Participant recruitment and demographics

To recruit participants for the study, the following steps were carried out. After the University of Glasgow Ethics Committee was sent an Ethical Approval Application, the three institutions' directors were approached. Following this, the ethics committees at two of the universities were sent completed ethics application forms; University 3 did not require them. Once ethics approval had been obtained from all requisite parties. There were no pre-requisites as to which teachers could volunteer from the PYPs, and when requesting volunteers, all were invited.

The profile of the teachers recruited for PYPs is determined by the Turkish Council of Higher Education (YÖK), which stipulates the requirement of more than two years' teaching experience and a BA plus master's or other type of teaching English as a foreign language qualification. Generally speaking, the teachers in PYPs are between 26 and 60 years old. The majority of non-native teachers come from Turkey, but in recent years, a number have been recruited from Europe with BAs and master's degrees in ELT or English/American literature. The native speaker teachers come from the UK, the Republic of Ireland, Canada, the USA, South Africa, New Zealand, and Australia, and they have BAs in a variety of disciplines as well as teaching English as a foreign language teaching qualifications, which can include master's degrees in ELT, Teaching English as a Second Language (TESOL), linguistics, the Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA), the Diploma in English Language Teaching to Adults (DELTA), or others.

The profile of the participants in this study is shown in Appendices 9, Tables 7-9 pp.253-254. From University 1, eight teachers participated, with a mixture of nationalities agreeing to take part in the study (North American, Eastern European, and Turkish). The teachers had a minimum of ten years of English language teaching experience. The four Turkish teachers had undergraduate degrees in ELT and three of them also had master's degrees in the field. The four North American teachers had undergraduate degrees in linguistics, in English, and in subjects not related to ELT or education. It is of note here that very few of the participating teachers held Cambridge ELT qualifications. Only one teacher had a DELTA and ICELT, and this was due to a requirement of her previous place of work.

From University 2, of the six teachers who participated, all but one were North American. Two teachers had 1–5 years' ELT experience, one teacher had 6–10 years' experience, and the other three had over 10 years' experience. Overall, the teachers in this group were less experienced than those of University 1. None of the teachers of this group had undergraduate degrees in ELT; only two had a master's in the field. However, all of the teachers had Cambridge English language teaching qualifications.

From University 3, six teachers participated, all of whom were Turkish apart from one British teacher. Three of them had 1–5 years' English language teaching experience, two of them had 11–15 years' experience, and one teacher had over 21 years' experience teaching in English language PYPs. Three of the participants had English literature undergraduate degrees, and one of them had a BA in ELT. Two of the teachers had undergraduate degrees in education, and the British teacher had a BA in another field. All but one of these teachers had lower Cambridge English language teaching qualifications. Once again, overall, the teachers of University 3 were less experienced than those of University 1 but similar to the teachers of University 2. Only one person at University 3 had a master's degree.

3.3.2 Data analysis

This section will discuss the analysis of the data collected from the participants at the three universities. Silverman (2011) identifies five different approaches to data analysis for qualitative research: framework analysis, constructivist grounded theory, thematic analysis, interpretive phenomenological analysis, and narrative analysis. Interpretive

phenomenological analysis was chosen for this study as it identifies and analyses patterns around qualitative data (Smith and Osborn, 2008).

3.3.2.1 Document analysis

The decision to start the data analysis by carrying out a document analysis of the policies of the Turkish Ministry of Education and of the three institutions was intended to give the researcher a preliminary understanding of where PD was placed in the culture and context of the study. This process helped the researcher develop an understanding of the language used in the different departments and to describe PD in these specific contexts. The rationale for the analysis of these documents was to collect information to inform the subsequent three phases of the research and to obtain a deeper understanding of the data collected. Firstly, the governmental policies were analysed, and then the policies of the individual institutions were explored to ascertain to what extent the former had informed the latter and to understand whether there was a common, countrywide view. From this, a more in-depth analysis was made of the documents of each individual institution.

With current perceptions of the importance of professionalism and quality assurance, such documents are, in part, an active representation of the evolution of beliefs and values that an organisation or institution holds in that they "actively construct the very organisations they purport to describe … and it is important to recognise the extent to which many social settings are self-documenting" (Atkinson and Coffey, 2011, pp. 77–78). Therefore, document analysis was chosen as the preliminary medium of research to inform the researcher of the beliefs, values, and principles contained in the policies laid out by the Ministry of Education and by the three PYPs. This was to inform the researcher about the context, which may have an effect on participants' perceptions of PD in the country and in the institutions that inform the researcher about the "network of influence" of the documents and their writers (Prior, 2011, p. 107). Document analysis can raise awareness of the culturally shared knowledge and expectations of a group by critically studying the language of the documents to identify what is said, implied, or not said. In addition, an analysis of how these documents are structured and organised can give an understanding of which specific issues are raised and prioritised in relation to PD, which in turn can deepen the researcher's understanding of underlying issues (Rapley, 2007; Atkinson and Coffey, 2011).

The Ministry of Education's documents (in English) were obtained from the institution's official website, while the documents for each individual PYP were obtained following a written request sent to the directors of those programmes. These analyses of the PYP teaching manual and website documents gave the researcher an understanding of the working principles that guide the departments and informed her on the lexis that would be used by instructors to describe their perceptions of the process of PD within their given institution. The documents from the Ministry of Education explained what policies had been laid out in relation to ELT PD. It should be noted that these guidelines were created for government educational establishments. There were eight participants from University 1, six participants from University 2, and six from University 3. Once the document analysis was completed, the online pre-interview questionnaires were distributed by email.

3.3.2.2 Interview and reflection tasks analysis

In this study, the qualitative data were obtained from interviews with the teachers and their pre- and post-interview reflections. Smith and Osborn (2008) talk of six stages of analysis: 1) Read a single transcript (with initial comments); 2) Generate initial themes (transform comments into themes); 3) Create a list of initial themes; 4) Cluster the themes (order the list of themes into connected areas); 5) Create a list with superordinate themes and sub-themes; and 6) Go to a new transcript.

These steps were used as the data analysis process in this study. After the data were collected and the researcher had returned from Turkey to the UK, the interviews were transcribed, which is seen by some as an interpretive act that needs deep listening, analysing, and interpreting (e.g., Bailey, 2008; Hesse-Biber and Leavy, 2010; Byrman, 2012). While the interpretive analysis was being carried out, notes and/or memos were made to facilitate initial understanding of the data. Then, the data were analysed holistically for emerging themes. When reflecting on the emerging themes, the analytical framework was decided upon to facilitate a deeper understanding of the data when the second sweep of the data was carried out. Ryan and Bernard (2003) recommend identifying themes to look for: repetitions, indigenous categories, metaphors, transitions, similarities and differences, linguistic connectors, missing data, and theory-related data. This process of data transcribing took approximately two

months, and over 200 pages of transcripts were produced, with memos attached in the margins of each page. In the next stage, the researcher clustered together the themes that had connected areas; after this, lists with superordinate themes and subthemes were created. Finally, the extracts were chosen, compared, and related back to the research questions, literature review, and theoretical framework. After the emerging themes had been identified, the transcripts of Stages 2–4 were uploaded and categorised in NVivo (NVivo Qualitative Data Analysis Software; QSR International Pty Ltd. Australia, Version 10, 2014).

3.3.4.3 First Sweep of Data

In this study, the transcripts (including Phases 2, 3 and 4) were initially analysed for emerging themes. For each participant and each institution, a conceptual framework was made highlighting the main themes each individual mentioned. It was noted that all the participants were mentioning influences from the past, present and future. These were identified and put in the conceptual framework of all three institutions together (see below). The analytical framework of agency was chosen and the model created by Biesta, Priestley and Robinson (2015) was adopted. This analytical framing was selected as the emerging themes demonstrated the past, present and future effects of key elements that could influence PD. In what could be called the past (iterative), teachers' learning and professional backgrounds were discussed as well as their perceptions of other teachers' learning and professional backgrounds that may be different from their own. In the present (practical evaluative), the material aspect of assessment was a clear theme, as were culture and community. At this stage, the clash of cultures appeared "tribal", with divisions between NES and NNES teachers, but this notion, following further analysis, was later discarded as too simplistic (discussed further in Chapter 2 section 2.6.1 p 52). There also seemed to be a perception that the NES teachers had a stronger voice than the NNES teachers as owners of the language; but again on deeper investigation, this too seemed to be an overly simplistic interpretation (discussed in detail throughout Chapter 4). The future (projective) was also mentioned, by the majority of teachers that the experienced teachers perceived as being less interested in PD for a number of reasons (which will be discussed further throughout Chapter 4).

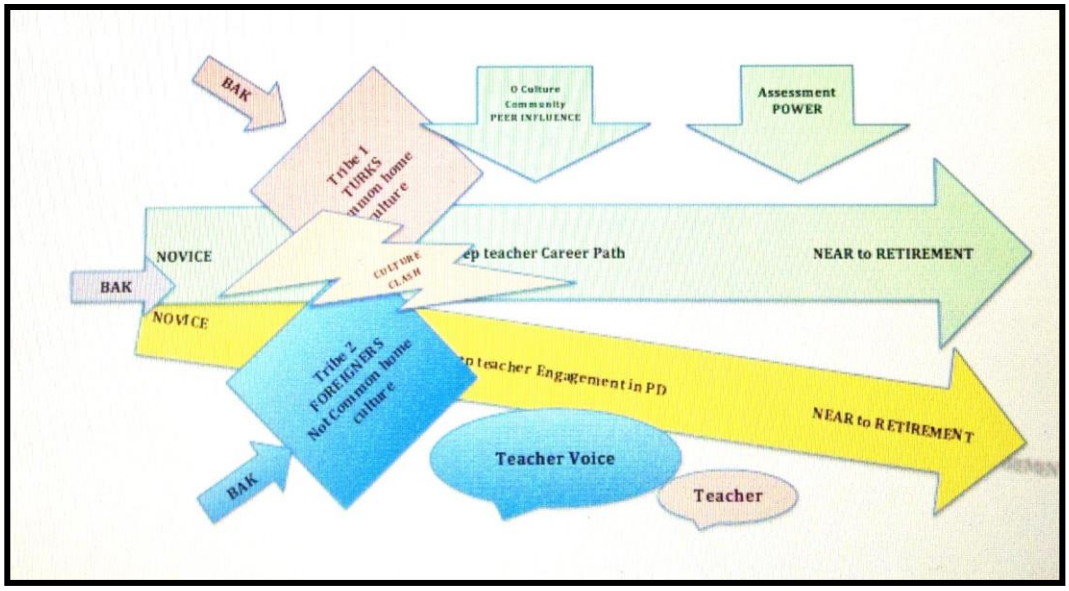

Figure 3. The conceptual framework created from emerging themes

Second sweep of the data: Themes using the analytical framework of agency (Column 1)

After the analytical framework of agency was decided upon, the transcripts were uploaded to NVivo for the second and third phases for a more detailed analysis. Initially a second sweep of the data was made. The themes that emerged from the second sweep of the data can be seen in Table 4,5 and 6 (Column 2) below. Column 1 is divided into the iterative, practical evaluative and it shows the themes that emerged in each area related to engagement in PD. In Column 3, the number of participants who mentioned

the theme is given, while Column 4 shows the number of times the theme was mentioned.

The themes in Column 2 were the most commonly mentioned and this is reflected in column 3 which shows the number of participants referring to the theme and Column 4 the number of times the theme is actually referred to. Finally, Column 5 shows the third sweep of the data and a consolidation of significant themes is laid out. The themes in Column 5 will be explained in detail throughout Chapter 4, Which sections they will be discussed has been indicated.

Table 4.Themes within the structure of the analytical framework

1. Analytical Framework	2. Themes from the second sweep of the data, using the agency analytical framework	3. NOP referring to theme	4. NOT theme is referred to	5. Third Sweep of the data: Consolidation of themes
Iterative: Life histories		20	167	
Iterative	• Travel • No other jobs • Lots of jobs			4.2.1 Personal formal learning: qualifications
Iterative + Practical Evaluative Structural Relationships Cultural Ideas, Values, Beliefs	• Qualifications hierarchy of value • Not valuing the others qualifications • Respecting the others qualifications • Lack of understanding of others educational background (teaching & learning methodologies) • The others understanding of ELT			4.2.3 Perceptions of "others'" learning
Iterative: Professional histories		20	207	
Iterative + Practical Evaluative Structural Relationships Cultural Ideas, Values, Beliefs NOP: Number of Participants NOT: Number of times	• Lost interest • Lost faith • Less open • Less submissive • Insecurity of inexperience • Younger teachers know approaches are changing • Focus on class • Opportunity for CoP			4.2.2 Understanding of formal PD 4.2.4 Professional Experiences: Longevity in the profession

Table 5. Themes within the structure of the analytical framework

1. Analytical Framework	**2.** Themes from the second sweep of the data, using the agency analytical framework	**3.** NOP referring to theme	**4.** NOT theme is referred to	**5.** Third Sweep of the data: Consolidation of themes
Practical evaluative: Cultural and Structural: Collaborative PD and PL with 'the other'		20	578	
Iterative + <u>Practical Evaluative</u> Structural Relationships Cultural Ideas, Values, Beliefs	• Shared experiences Living outside their own culture • Disconnection of international teachers from host culture • Lack of social life with national/international teachers • Tribes • Stereotype of other • Lack of cohesion in dept for PD • Different learning backgrounds lack of respect • Dissonance/divide/tribal • Code switching • Feelings of exclusion & discomfort with dominant group • Complexity of group • Meta-reflexive understanding of culture (int pts) • Challenges of interacting with other • Use of native language to identify the other			**4.3.1 Collaborative PD with the other: national and international interactions** **4.3.2 Collaborative PD with the other: Professional understandings** **.3.3 Collaborative PD with the other: Group dynamic**
<u>Practical Evaluative</u> Structural Relationships Cultural Ideas, Values, Beliefs	• Common outlook (preferred working with) • Similar world view • Common understanding of w/e • Working with like-minded people • Prefer working with the other • Prefer not to work with the other • Prefer to work with the similar • Common understanding of the students • Perceptions of "the others work ethic and own peoples w/e • Community affects the work ethic			**4.3.2 Collaborative PD with the other:** National and international **Professional understandings**
<u>Practical Evaluative</u> Structural Relationships Cultural Ideas, Values, Beliefs	• Peer influence positive & negative • Collective thinking • Good collaboration amongst teachers			**4.3.3 Collaborative PD with the other: Group dynamic**
The others understanding of ``ELT		**4.4.2 Perceptions of the "other's" education system**		

Table 6.Themes within the structure of the analytical framework

1. Analytical Framework	**2.** Themes from the second sweep of the data, using the agency analytical framework	**3.** NOP referring to theme	**4.** NOT theme is referred to	**5.** Third Sweep of the data: Consolidation of themes
Section Three Practical evaluative: Material and Cultural		**20**	**208**	
Material Resources, Physical Environment Cultural Ideas Values Beliefs	• Curriculum too full • Curriculum flexibility • Context • Course books (the writer about course books) • Lack of agency in assessment • Autonomy in quizzes • PD supporting students learning • Time to execute curriculum			4.4.1 Flexibility of the PYP English Language curriculum and assessment
Material Resources, Physical Environment Cultural Ideas Values Beliefs	• Differences of BAK on assessment • Differences of interpretation of the curriculum • Lack of common language on teaching approaches			4.4.2 Understanding of the "others" Curriculum and Assessment BAK
Material Resources, Physical Environment Cultural Ideas Values Beliefs Material Resources, Physical Environment Projective future aspirations	• Class size • Challenging classroom management need for PD • Stds' reason for learning • Stds' resistance to learning • Stds' extrinsic motivations for learning • Variety of stds' learning histories • Backwash of assessment on stds expectations and teaching to exam • Student learning expectations • Reason for learning language • No future anxiety			4.4.3 Commoditisation of language learning

The themes and how they were consolidated as per Column 5 will be discussed in detail in Chapter 4.

3.4 Reflections on the research

3.4.1 Ethical considerations

At all stages of the research process, ethical considerations were paramount, from creating the research design to approaching the institutions, to carrying out the online pre- and post-interview questionnaires, to conducting the interviews and analysing the data. Initially, an Ethical Approval Application was submitted to the University of

Glasgow College of Social Sciences Ethics Committee with the research design, and the ethical parameters were explained. Once approval had been acquired, the three universities that were the focus of the study were approached, and the required ethical approval was obtained from Universities 1 and 2. Ethical approval was not required by University 3.

The University of Glasgow's Ethics Committee, as well as those of Universities 1 and 2, all have stringent ethical requirements. These, along with the details laid out by the British Educational Research Association (2018), Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2011), Silverman (2013), Curtis et al. (2014), and Lichtman (2014), were used as a guideline for the ethical approach of this study, and "causing no harm" was the foundation of ethical conduct. Using the 1963 Milgram experiment (McLeod, 2007) as an extreme example of unethical research, it was unlikely that there was anything in this study that could either physically or mentally harm the participants. However, the researcher noted that each university had psychologists on campus in case any the participants felt distress about discussing their perceptions of PD. The participating teachers' and universities' privacy and anonymity were protected to ensure the participants felt comfortable in providing perspectives and speaking about experiences and felt no fear of any potential consequences to their reputations. Accordingly, each participant was assigned a code in the form of numbers and letters, while the universities were simply labelled University 1, University 2, and University 3, and their locations were removed.

Confidentiality was maintained throughout the research process. Because the research was focused on teachers' engagement in PD, topics of illegality were not brought up. The participants were made aware of the fact that only the researcher, her two supervisors, and the PhD examiners would have access to the raw data. All data were kept on the researcher's laptop, which had a password and was encrypted, and all paperwork was kept in a locked cabinet at the University of Glasgow.

There were no vulnerable participants as all were adults over the age of 18. However, each participant was advised about informed consent. This meant that at any stage of the process, participants could withdraw without the need to provide any explanation and with no detriment to themselves, and their data would not be used. In this study, the participants were advised about what informed consent implies when they were

provided with the PLS (see Appendix 1 pp. 239 -240) at the beginning of the online pre-interview questionnaire, verbally at the interview, and at the beginning of the online post-interview reflection. This was to ensure that if at any stage a participant felt uncomfortable or stressed by the line of questioning or potential repercussions, he/she would be able to withdraw from the study. In addition, the researcher was open and honest about her position and previous experience in the field. The participants were given the researcher's email address, and any questions or concerns they expressed were addressed immediately.

There was an obligation on the part of the researcher to ensure the participants' voices were represented and measures were taken to interpret the participants' experiences in such a way that they could be easily understood by others. This obligation, of course, can be a dilemma in the field of interpretivist, qualitative research as there is an acknowledgment of different interpretations perceived by different people at different times, and, as such, the researcher as an experienced person in the field had to be very aware of this when interpreting the data.

The participants in this research study had a right to expect only a limited amount of intrusiveness, which could include intruding on their time, space, and personal lives. The amount of time that the study took for each individual was clearly stated on the PLS: 15 to 20 minutes for the online pre-interview questionnaire, 40 to 50 minutes for the interview, and 15 to 20 minutes for the online post-interview reflection. To ensure their space and personal lives were respected, the participants were interviewed at a place of their choosing during working hours.

Finally, the ethical responsibility of the University of Glasgow to protect the researcher's safety when carrying out research in a region of the world where there was a lot of strife required a risk analysis to be carried out, and the political situation was monitored daily. A "Plan B" for obtaining the information through Skype interviews was in place in the event of the political problems escalating in Turkey at the time of the research.

As stated above, the ethical considerations, which are a priority in socially just research, have been considered from all perspectives.

3.4.2 Trustworthiness

In natural sciences research and quantitative research, both validity (accuracy) and reliability (replicability) are important for rigour in the research to be upheld (Ritchie et al., 2013). Qualitative researchers also value rigour and look for four criteria: creditability, transferability, confirmability, and dependability (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). However, Cohen et al. (2011) suggest that the concept of generalisation could be replaced by trustworthiness or transferability when used in different situations.

Credibility is important in qualitative research so that those reading the research find it believable. A number of techniques to bring credibility are suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1985): persistent observation, peer debriefing, prolonged engagement, researcher triangulation, and member checking. In addition, Creswell (2013) and Lincoln and Guba (1985) state that data collection triangulation using multiple sources of data can add to the perceived accuracy of the research interpretation (Silverman, 2011). Triangulation can refer to a mixed-methods approach that involves both quantitative and qualitative data collection. However, in the case of this study, a mixture of qualitative data collection was used, including document analysis and interviews containing both pre- and post-sections; it was mainly the teachers' voices that were heard. Participant checking was not involved as the researcher preferred not to allow the original data to be altered or changed on reflection. However, a different method was used whereby the participants were asked to reflect on the main themes both before and after the interview.

The second criterion, transferability, means that the research can be applied to other contexts. Transferability can be brought about by giving deep and thick descriptions so that those reading the research can have a deeper understanding of the work carried out (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). In this study, dense, detailed descriptions of the context and setting were given (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Creswell, 2013) so that readers could imagine clearly where the research is placed (Holloway, 1997; Ponterotto, 2006).

The third criterion is confirmability, which means that the findings are analysed by the researcher with no personal bias or motivations. To ensure confirmability, an audit trail

can be established that documents every stage and the theoretical, methodological, and analytical choices as well as the rationale for each choice the researcher makes (Tobin and Begley, 2004). This is to facilitate readers' understanding of the research.

The fourth criterion is dependability, which means that if the study were done again, similar findings would arise. Dependability also allows the research to be examined by other researchers for equivalent findings and they will not have contrary findings Koch (2006); in the case of this study, dependability will be carried out by the PhD supervisors and examiners.

For qualitative research to be trustworthy, all four of these interdependent criteria (transferability, credibility, confirmability, and dependability) need to be adhered to in order to ensure that the research is valid for readers.

In summary, the current study is not focused on making systematic generalisations that can be transferred to other individuals or contexts (Martella et al., 2013, p. 319); rather it offers an in-depth exploration of participants' experiences and perceptions of PD in the context of PYP. It is acknowledged that the present research findings are not applicable to other contexts (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2011). The different data collection methods used in the four phases of this study provided triangulation of views, which strengthened understanding of the participants' views. Consequently, triangulation not only helped to aid the understanding of PD in the context of the study, but also contributed to giving authentic voice to the participants' views and reduced potential problems with trustworthiness (Carter et al., 2014)

3.4.3 Limitations of the findings

As with all studies, there are limitations in the current study. This study is looking at teachers' engagement in PD in groups of national and international teachers. As can be seen from Appendix 9, Tables 2–5, pp. 253-254 there is a great deal of variety in teachers' learning and professional backgrounds, and it would be very challenging to replicate this exact set of biographies; with another set of participant teachers, there could easily be different data. In addition, the findings of this study have limited application to other PYPs due to differences in context, participants, and mixture of

teachers' cultures as well as work cultures. Generalisation concerning the similarities and differences among several similar types of PYPs would facilitate this issue.

As this is not a quantitative study, there is not the reliability of large numbers; however, this has been acknowledged, and great depth and care have gone into the analysis of the perceptions the teachers have shared.

Another issue related to this study is that not all of the participants were able to use their first languages in the interviews. As a result, first language interference with translated words may cause misunderstandings in nuance and meaning. As the researcher is British, this may be an issue when analysing the comments of teachers who speak other varieties of English. However, the researcher spent 15 years in the country of the context and was herself an English language teacher and is aware of these possible issues.

Finally, there may be a power distance that could have created a bias in the data as the researcher had herself been a teacher trainer in a PYP for nearly 10 years and as such she had both a wide network of colleagues as well as experience in the field. Both of these factors could create a power distance in that the participants may not wish to share information in case the researcher shared or judged their answers and did not take an objective approach.

3.4.4 Role of the researcher

The role of the researcher is important in qualitative interpretive research, but this is particularly the case in a study as complex as this one. The researcher had lived in the country of the study for 15 years but had lived as an outsider, absorbing some local cultural traits but not others. She had spent 20 years in ELT, 10 years in PYPs as a teacher and teacher trainer, and she held a Cambridge CELTA and DELTA, which could introduce bias as this was her chosen profession. At every stage of the research process, especially in social science research within the interpretivist paradigm, it is acknowledged that the researcher will have an effect on how the data are obtained and analysed. In this study, the role of the researcher is acknowledged when addressing the research problem of experiencing teachers' resistance to PD in PYPs where she had been a teacher trainer, reflecting the fact that she was indeed an insider, as opposed to

an outsider. Naples (2003) and Loxley and Seery (2008) define "insider research" as researching your own group. Therefore, the researcher's positionality, that is, her position and identity in relation to how she aligns with the participants and their views, is one of an insider (although her position was fluid, going backwards and forwards throughout the process being an insider and reminding herself or being reminded to be the objective outsider); thus, awareness was needed at all stages of the research.

An insider researcher is one who shares "social membership" with the group/s he or she is working with (De Andrade, 2000; Ganga and Scott, 2006), and it could be suggested that this is the case for the researcher of this study. Confidentiality was recognised as a challenge as the researcher was a practitioner in the field of research, with a large network in Turkey and beyond, and was therefore likely to be considered an insider. The researcher may have acquired confidential knowledge about participants or institutions that could cause discomfort (Bell, 2005), and she may have gleaned knowledge about herself or other colleagues in the field that may cause discomfort. The researcher needs to anonymise all data and ensure that no uncomfortable knowledge is divulged even though it may affect future work interactions (Chavez, 2008). An understanding of this may also mean that the participants are reluctant to divulge their real opinions, especially if they feel the researcher may pass on certain controversial opinions that they express, which might lead to repercussions.

The insider status of the researcher facilitated access to PYP directors and teachers and their agreement to participate. However, during data collection and the analysis and interpretation of the data, there was constant identity negotiation (De Andrade, 2000). This is because the status of being an insider and outsider as a mature, experienced teacher, teacher trainer, and new researcher can be both complex and fluid (Hall, 1990). Therefore, there was a constant renegotiation of identities which the researcher was aware of at each phase of the research.

3.4.4.1 The role of the researcher and data collection

In conducting data collection via interviews, where the researcher is in a face-to-face situation with the participants, the researcher is the primary instrument of data collection (Lichtman, 2014). With regard to how interviews are carried out, when the researcher has direct face-to-face contact with the participants. Curtis et al. (2014)

recommend six areas that the researcher needs to consider carefully: the researcher's age, experience in the field, possible common ground with the participants, socio-economic background, gender, the participants' and researcher's ethnicity, and finally, if the researcher is seen as an insider or outsider.

The first area they mention is the age of the researcher in relation to the participants. In the case of the current study, the researcher is at the older end of the age group of the participants in the three departments, which may have affected how the participants reacted to her. They may have perceived the older person as someone with status; on the other hand, they could have also perceived the older person as someone who is not up to date with current trends in the field. The former was more of a possibility as the researcher was in the process of carrying out a PhD in the field. This could potentially have inhibited the participants' responses, and they may have been less relaxed and open. As such, it was important that the researcher approached possible perceived barriers in an open and friendly manner. This included the language used in the questions, which had to be easy to understand.

The second area mentioned is the researcher's experience in the educational field. As with age, the researcher is at the more experienced end of the spectrum, and similar issues needed to be addressed, such as the researcher's perceived status; her perceived status may have inhibited the participant teachers, who may have been afraid of demonstrating a lack of knowledge and suffering a loss of face. Again, it was important that the researcher approached possible perceived barriers in an open and friendly manner.

The third area that needed to be carefully considered was the possible common ground the researcher may have shared with the participants of the study. As the two areas above demonstrate, there was likely to be a lot of common ground shared with the participants because the researcher had worked in the field for a number of years and had been a participant in PD as a teacher and a teacher trainer, initiating PD throughout her career. This understanding of common ground gave the researcher comprehension of the culture of the context (Bonner and Tolhurst, 2002), which includes politics and power structures (Unluer, 2012). This meant there was the opportunity to create an environment of interest and empathy regarding the issues that arose, which meant she

was perceived less as a "scientist" and more as someone who had been through the system. However, this also meant that any inferences made by the participants with the presumption that the researcher would understand needed to be addressed, and further explanations were requested.

The fourth area relates to the socio-economic background, gender, and ethnicity of the researcher and participants. To address the matter of socio-economic background, it is important to note that in order to become a teacher in a PYP, YÖK stipulates a minimum of a BA degree in English or a related subject. Therefore, in general terms, the participants have similar socio-economic backgrounds to the researcher's and, referring back to the third area, were likely to have common ground and fewer class barriers that may inhibit participant responses. As for gender, in PYPs, there is a higher percentage of women than men, and in the more modern academic environment of private universities in Turkey (according to the latest TurkStats statistics [2014] for teachers in HE), at University 1, there are nearly twice as many female teachers as male. However, this is not the case in University 3, where the numbers are equal. In Turkey, the divide between men and women in teaching is not as great as that observed in other walks of life and should not be an issue in the research. In these departments, with both national and international staff (see Appendix 9, Tables 2–5, pp. 253-254), there was a wide variety of ethnic backgrounds, which raises questions regarding their different perceptions of the content being taught, ownership of the language, the status of English as the lingua franca, and national perceptions of valid instruction; these differences were the area that was most challenging for the researcher. This is because the researcher has a background in the field as an NES and teacher trainer, which brings with it assumptions about what engages teachers in PD from both the researcher and the participants.

The fifth and final area noted by Curtis et al. (2014) relates to whether the researcher is seen as an insider or an outsider. It should be acknowledged that interpretivist researchers can never fully disengage themselves from the unequal power that structures research enquiries, and this is never more the case than when the researcher has experience in the field (Crapanzano, 1992; Kvale, 2006; Schaffer, 2016). This is a very complex area in this particular study as the researcher could be perceived as both an insider and an outsider. On the one hand, the researcher may be viewed as an outsider

interviewing unknown teachers; on the other hand, considering the researcher's experience of working in the type of context that was being researched, she could have been seen as an insider. The benefits of being an insider meant having an understanding of the participants and context and easier access to documents and participants (Unluer, 2012). However, there are potential limitations to being an insider because there can be additional power dynamics if participants are forcefully "encouraged" to participate in studies (Creswell and Zhang, 2009). The reflexivity between the participant and the researcher, especially in the interview process, was one that needed practice prior to the data collection to limit any bias creeping into the process (Mills, 2010). Additionally, there could be bias created by the researcher's BAK (Unluer, 2012; Paechter, 2013). Therefore, the researcher needed great awareness both when interviewing the participants and while interpreting the collected data.

3.4.4.2 The role of the researcher and analysis of the data

As with the interviews, the researchers' insider status can bring with it both benefits and problems. On the one hand, the researcher's insider knowledge can afford a deeper understanding of the nuances of what the participants wish to say, but at the same time, this knowledge and understanding can take away from the objectivity of the analysis in that the insider researcher may be able to identify with the participant and accordingly make assumptions from her own experiences. This was a real challenge for the researcher because although a great effort was made to be aware of bias, it was not always noticed until highlighted. The feedback received from the researcher's supervisors served as a counterpoint and was invaluable in raising awareness as to how and why bias can occur.

3.5 Chapter summary

This chapter discussed the design of the study into teachers' engagement in the PD process in Turkish PYPs, how the study was carried out, and how the data were interpreted. It consisted of three sections: developing the research design, implementing the research design and interpreting the data, and finally, reflecting on the research processes.

In Section One on developing the research design, the importance of worldview to research was discussed. The chapter aligned the context and the literature with the

rationale for the research design. Then, alternative research approaches were compared, and a rationale for a qualitative study of three universities was discussed. The specific universities chosen and the processes of recruiting the participants were justified. This section gave an overview of the interpretivist research paradigm that resulted from the research questions.

In Section Two, the way the study was carried out was explained in detail, which included the procedures of participant recruitment and data collection, and analysis techniques were scrutinised. This study selected Turkey as its focus, and involved 20 teachers in private university PYPs in the country's three largest cities.

In Section Three, the final section, there was a reflection on the overall data collection process, the ethical considerations, the limitations of the findings, and finally, the role of the researcher. The researcher could be viewed as an insider reflexive researcher whose biography and knowledge of Turkish PYPs strengthened the data collection and the research process of the study. However, these very same characteristics also offered the potential for bias. This chapter presented the strategies utilised to both minimise and manage these potential risks in an effort towards ensuring greater validity.

Chapter 4: Presentation of the data: Teachers' achievement of agency to develop professionally

4.1 Introduction

Many educational institutions, including internationally staffed preparatory year programmes (PYPs), have in-house professional development (PD) to give teachers the opportunity to reflect and develop skills and to provide the tools needed to keep up to date with today's rapidly changing society so as to improve and enhance students' learning experiences (Grosemans et al., 2015).

In order to address the research problem and the overarching research question aimed at understanding the factors that influence engagement in PD within groups of national and international teachers, this chapter attempts to answer the research question "What factors influence international and national teachers' engagement in PD?"

In PYPs, there is often institutionally organised, in-house professional development (PD) aimed at encouraging teachers to reflect and improve upon current practices and in turn enhance students' learning experiences. The analytical framework utilised to facilitate a better understanding of the data on teachers' engagement in PD is Biesta et al.'s (2015) adaptation of Emirbayer and Mische's (1996) concept of agency and engagement to provide a work environment where creativity, change, and agentic action are supported, and where teachers' engagement in PD can be facilitated. This framework was chosen after completing the initial analysis of the data to identify emerging themes (see p.84). One aspect of Biesta et al.'s (2015) (see Chapter 2 Figure 2 p.59) interpretation of agency in education addresses cultural and social structures, the resulting interactions among groups, and the impact of these on the achievement of agency in PD.

The English language curriculum, which lays out the teaching goals and objectives for the course, the materials, and student assessment, is a guide for the teacher in the classroom and may influence not only teachers' professional agency as a whole but also their agency in PD. Another aspect of this study's analytical framework (see Chapter 2

Figure 2 p.59) designed to facilitate an understanding of the data gathered is based on Biesta, Priestley, and Robinson's (2015) adaptation of Emirbayer and Mische's (1996) conception of the interplay of the triad of the past iterative, the present practical evaluative, and the future projective dimensions and how these different dimensions interact and can influence teachers' agency in PD. One aspect of Biesta et al.'s (2015) interpretation of the achievement of agency in education is that the present practical evaluative material dimension encapsulates resources that include curricula and assessment. The authors found that this dimension has been seen to influence teachers' agency in teaching, and specifically in their engagement in PD.

Understanding what factors influence the achievement of agency to professionally develop and how teachers, as adult learners, engage in learning could provide some insights into the development of meaningful PD (Biesta et al., 2015). Exploring how interactions, teachers' backgrounds, and curriculum can influence international and national higher education (HE) teachers' engagement in PD might shed some light upon how PD is often impeded and indicate ways in which PD can be supported. An understanding of teacher engagement can inform international groups of teachers in their pursuit of professional learning.

In this chapter, the findings are divided into three sections, each representing a main theme that influences teachers' engagement in PD. Section One focuses on the impact of teachers' personal and professional learning. This is broken down into four sub-sections: personal formal learning: qualifications; perceptions of "others'" learning; understanding of formal PD; and professional experiences: longevity in the profession.

Section Two explores the second factor that can influence PD, namely professional understandings and the resulting group dynamic. This is broken down into three sub-sections: national and international interactions; national and international professional understandings; and group dynamic.

Finally, Section Three discusses the final factor discusses in this study that can affect teachers' engagement in PD, the commoditisation of academic learning in the lingua franca. This section comprises three parts: flexibility of the PYP English language

curriculum and assessment; understanding of the "others'" curriculum and assessment BAK; and commoditisation of language learning.

Section one: Teachers' learning and professional histories

4.2 Introduction to teachers' learning and professional histories

PYPs comprise teachers of different nationalities with different learning and professional backgrounds. The first main theme that is going to be discussed is an influence on PD was the teachers' learning and professional histories. More specifically, this refers to the participants' diverse profiles of professional and learning experiences, how to define the different teachers in this diverse group, how "others" with different learning and professional backgrounds and qualifications perceive and understand their colleagues' professional and educational backgrounds, longevity in the profession, and, finally, how the participants perceive PD.

4.2.1 Personal formal learning: Qualifications

Prior to the semi-structured interviews, the participants were asked to complete an online pre-questionnaire, which requested biographical information about their tertiary education and included five questions that aligned with the themes of the semi-structured interviews (see Appendix 3 p.242).

Table 3 below presents details of the participants' tertiary education, collected from the biographical section of the online pre-questionnaire. For the purpose of this study, the term "tertiary learning" refers to undergraduate and post-graduate qualifications as well as certificate and diploma courses in English language teaching (ELT). Thealso includes details of overseas study or work and the names of the countries in which the participants had worked, as collected from answers to the initial questions on the participants' previous experiences of PD.

Table 7. Outline of participants' tertiary learning backgrounds

Code	Nation-ality	International study	Countries worked in	BA *ELT*	BA *LIN*	BA *ED*	BA *O*	MA *ELT*	MA *LIN*	MA *ED*	MA *O*	CELTA	DELTA	ICELT	Other
International Participants															
1UNI1C	Canadian		Canada, Russia, France, Germany, Turkey		*	*			*	*		*			
2UNI1C	Canadian		Canada, Turkey				*						*		
2UNI3C	Canadian		Canada, Korea, Saudi Arabia, Turkey				*	*							
1UNI4US	American		US, Poland, Spain, Turkey			*	* (L)			*					
1UNI7US	American		US, Saudi Arabia, Turkey		*						*	*			
2UNI2US	American		US, Turkey				*					*		*	
2UNI4US	American		US, China, Oman, Algeria, Turkey				*				*	*		*	
2UNI5US	American		US, Turkey			*		*					*	*	
3UNI4UK	British		UK, Turkey				*					*			
1UNI3EE	Eastern European	HE America	US, Russia, Japan, Turkey				*	*				*			
National Participants															
1UNI2T	Turkish			*							*		*	*	
1UNI5T	Turkish			*				*							
1UNI6T	Turkish	Course in the UK		*				*							
1UNI8T	Turkish			*				*							*
2UNI6T	Turkish (EM)						* (L)							*	
3UNI1T	Turkish	Course in the UK	Worked in the UK as a nanny			*									
3UNI2T	Turkish	Course in the UK				*	* (L)					*		*	
3UNI3T	Turkish						* (L)					*			
3UNI5T	Turkish	Studied in UK & US		*			* (L)				*	*			
3UNI6T	Turkish						* (L)							*	

BA ELT	**MA ELT**	English Language Teaching	**CELTA** (Cambridge)	Certificate in English Language Teaching for Adults
BA LIN	**MA LIN**	Linguistics	**DELTA** (Cambridge)	Diploma in English Language Teaching for Adults
BA ED	**MA ED**	Education	**ICELT** (Cambridge)	In-Service Certificate in English Language Teaching
BA O	**MA O**	Other	**Other**	Other TESOL certificates

(EM) ethnic minority ***(L)** : Literature

As is demonstrated in Table 7 above , a wide variety of qualifications and experience can be found among the participants. From the data presented in Table 7 above, it is interesting to note the following: with regard to undergraduate degrees, the most widely held qualification is in the subject area of literature (six out of the 20 participants), followed by ELT and education (both with five out of 20). Two of the 20 participants held degrees in linguistics, while the remainder had obtained degrees in subjects unrelated to English language teaching. Upon further examination, it can be observed that the national teachers held 100% of the undergraduate degrees awarded in ELT, 83% of those obtained in literature, and 40% of those held in education. While 100% of all qualifications (BA/MA) in linguistics were held by international teachers, this comprises just three out of the total number of tertiary qualifications listed. Of the 12

undergraduate degrees held by international teachers, half are in subjects considered unrelated to English language teaching. It could, therefore, be suggested that the national teachers are more likely to hold degrees in subjects considered to be relevant to their profession.

Turning to the other qualifications, the 20 participants held a total of 13 master's degrees between them, 61% of them being awarded to international teachers. Six of the 13 are in the subject of ELT (split 50/50 between national and international teachers), with the remainder in linguistics (1), education (2), and unrelated subjects (4). Nine participants had taken the 4-week CELTA course, seven had taken the ICELT (with three participants holding both), while three participants had been awarded the DELTA. Only two of the international teachers completely lacked such a qualification, compared to three of the national teachers. It can therefore be noted that the international teachers were more likely to have obtained a Cambridge qualification; however, the difference in number is not highly significant. As can be seen in Table 8 below the length of experience the participants had working in PYPs and outside PYPs varied, with no two teachers having the same experience.

Table 8. Duration and variety of participants' experience in the field

Years of teaching	**International**		**National**		**Experience in the field**	**International participants (PTS)**	**National (PTS)**
	PYP YRS (PTS)	**Teach YRS (PTS)**	**PYP YRS (PTS)**	**Teach YRS (PTS)**	Pre-School	**5**	**4**
1–5	**5**	**2**	**3**	**2**	Primary		
6–10	**1**	**2**		**1**	High School	**2**	**4**
11–15	**3**	**2**	**4**	**2**	Young Learners	**5**	**7**
16–20	**1**	**3**	**1**	**2**	English for Specific Purposes	**6**	**5**
21+		**2**	**1**	**3**	Business English	**6**	
PTS: participants					General English	**8**	**9**
					Academic English	**9**	**9**

In the context of ELT, many studies divide teachers into either native English speakers (NESs) or non-native English speakers (NNESs). However, these traditional definitions of NES and NNES do not fully explain the complexities of these PYP staff groups. Determining who is an NES or an NNES can be very difficult to pin down (Medgyes, 2017). Additionally, in our current times, the terms "NES" and "NNES" are deemed inappropriate due to their historical imperialistic implications (Medgyes, 2017). Other

terms for non-native speakers have been proposed, such as "less accomplished expert speakers" (Edge, 1998) or "affiliation" teachers (Rampton, 1990); however, the very definition of "non-native" implies the inferiority of second language speakers, which comes from the historic imperialism of "native speakers" (Halliday, 2017; Medgyes, 2017). Copeland's (2016) study attempts to address this and talks of local English teachers (LETs) and native English speaker teachers (NESTs), but again, these terms do not fully capture the complexities of the teachers in this study or in PYPs in general. To focus on LETs versus NESTs disregards the differences within each group. When we address the concept of the "native speaker," we have to question what this means because although the majority of ELT course books are either American or British, there are many other varieties of world Englishes, such as Canadian English (Murphy, 2016). Murphy (2016) questions whether we can even talk about national Englishes anymore. Additionally, NNES teachers can come from all corners of the globe and have very different approaches to teaching; a national/international distinction also ignores the fact that host country NNES teachers are different from international NNES teachers in terms of their knowledge and experiences of students' language and learning (Medgyes, 2017). Therefore, when anonymising participants, while the participants have been identified as national (signifying those who have been brought up and educated in their home country) and international teachers (signifying those who have been brought up and educated outside the host country), the last letter in the identifier code also represents the country they are from. For the international participants, "C" stands for Canada, "US" for the United States, "UK" for the United Kingdom, and "EE" for Eastern Europe. Meanwhile, for the national participants, "T" stands for Turkey.

4.2.2 Understanding of formal professional learning: PD

One of the first influences on engagement in PD to emerge from the data was participants' actual understanding of what PD is and what it entails. The participants had many different views on what PD is, with these perceptions often being influenced by their formal PD and professional learning experiences at previous institutions. At University 1, what they considered to be valuable PD comprised formal university qualifications (formal personal professional learning as opposed to institutional PD or other formal PD). At University 1, the participants were older and were required to have a master's qualification. At University 2, the participants indicated that PD also related to formal personal professional learning, such as that involved in obtaining

qualifications like the ICELT and DELTA, which were obligatory for all teachers. At University 3, where mentoring programmes were being carried out and the participants were less experienced, all but one participant (3UNI1T) suggested that PD was about collaborating and reflecting. What is interesting to note (see Appendix 9, Tables 2–5, pp. 253-254). is that it was at University 3 where the teachers tended to have the lowest level of qualifications, that the participants saw the greatest benefits of on-going PD.

The perception that PD consisted of formal personal learning was noted by a number of participants (3UNI1T, 3UNI2T, 1UNI5T, 1UNI6T, 1UNI8T, and 1UNI7US), who talked about postgraduate qualifications; other participants (2UNI1C, 2UNI3C, 2UNI4US, 2UNI5US, 2UNI6T, and 1UNI7US) also talked about PD as gaining ELT qualifications, as did all of the participants at University 2, where they were obliged to obtain the ICELT.

> *It's been a hit or miss, uhm experience uh. I have to tell you that many of my comments are influenced by my age… I will soon be 60 years old, and I've uh and I have all the formal education uhm that I think that I need already so I'm not interested in, personally, adding another master's or completing a doctorate, that will neither satisfy my need for achievement nor move my career… It's not going to move the needle... this or that way at 60 years old... So that's a factor in, for that reason PD is not for me. Personally it's not that important if I go and get another master's or if I go and get a PhD or if I go and do a DELTA in business English, it will not materially benefit me.* (1UNI7US)

It is possible that this perception of the value of PD expressed by 1UNI7US comes from his learning and professional experience, the latter of which may be affected by extrinsic motivation, where "better" qualifications are often rewarded.

An example of views about formal PD organised by institutions as opposed to formal personal learning (qualifications) came from University 2, where one participant (2UNI5US) contrasted the DELTA with the current, less-structured and uncertified PD offered at her institution, which she called "piddly other PD." However, she later went on to state that she did not believe the "Cambridge way" (CELTA/DELTA/ICELTs) is

always suitable for the university classroom and student profile, explaining that there is clearly a need for some type of PD to fill in the gap between formal personal and formal professional development.

In summary, in PYPs, there tends to be a wide variety of nationalities and qualifications. The participants have different perceptions of what is valuable PD, with the majority believing that formal personal learning resulting in qualifications is the most valuable PD; indeed, the participants held a wide range of such qualifications. As a result, the value put on qualifications as opposed to in-house professional development could be suggested as a factor that possibly influences engagement in the formal PD offered by a PYP department.

4.2.3 Perceptions of "others'" learning

In the previous section, the data indicated that the participants often believed that valuable PD tended to be linked to formal personal learning, that is, to qualifications. In addition, the participants also appeared to have a hierarchy of value regarding qualifications. This emerged from the participants' responses to the interview, possibly exerting an influence on perceptions of PD amongst both teachers and trainers. Specifically, the participants tended to question the relevance and quality of colleagues' qualifications in the field of ELT. This was mentioned in the interviews conducted with both national and international teachers, in which it emerged that many of the participants often felt that their own qualifications were better, worse, or more, or less, appropriate to the context in comparison to those of their colleagues.

An example of this lack of understanding of others' qualifications arose when participant 1UNI8T was asked about discussions that may arise with regard to the curriculum. She gave an example of a discussion she had had with a colleague prior to administering a speaking test. She stated:

> *... but if you say that we are not trained for this... you are wrong because I said that… I am trained for this, I've been trained for this, and she said 'Tell me how. How were you trained?' I said, 'First of all I am an ELT graduate, I studied for four YEARS learning about the different methodologies used in*

> *assessment and language teaching, we studied all those courses we took all those courses in English and in Turkish... plus I am a teacher training high school graduate… I studied these when I was 14, 15* (years old) *on top of all of these things, apart from my high school degree and my BA degree... I have a master's in ELT... and if it is not enough, I have been teaching English professionally at universities in Turkey for 16 years now… So if it is not me who is trained to do this, who is?'* (1UNI8T)

It could be suggested that this participant sounds indignant, as she highlighted that not only does she have tertiary education qualifications in the field, her high school curriculum also focused on ELT. Given the discussion outlined above relating to the relevance of participants' qualifications (see Appendix 9 Tables 7-9, p.253-256) to their profession, this possible indignation may be a response to feeling that her qualifications are underestimated and/or underappreciated by her international peers. There is a much literature criticising the undervaluing of non-native speaker teachers (e.g., Medgyes, 1992).

To further emphasise her point, she continued by describing an ex-colleague who had an undergraduate qualification outside of English language literature and teaching; she questioned this degree's relevance to the practice of ELT. These feelings of the others' perceived underestimation of her own qualifications as well as her own apparent lack of respect for her colleagues' qualifications could be used as an example of one potential source of tension which may inhibit collaboration and collegiality. These differing past iterative dimensions and understanding of the "other's" qualifications may exert an influence on today's practical evaluative interactions among the group of teachers.

Not all of the participants showed a lack of understanding of their colleagues' learning and professional backgrounds; one international participant (2UNI4US) noted that many of the national teachers were very well-qualified in the field. International participant 2UNI4US talked about this at length, and described how he often went to the experienced national teachers to facilitate his informal professional learning. He was one of the five other international participants who reflected positively on the national colleagues' knowledge and understanding of the field. As can be seen (see

Appendix 9, Tables 7-9, pp. 253-254), half (5/10) of the national teachers have undergraduate qualifications in English language teaching whereas none of the international teachers have any.

Another international participant, 1UNI1C, when asked in his post-interview reflection task about how the curriculum affects teachers' interest in PD, noted that some might see the diversity of learning backgrounds as an asset to PD. He went on to mention the lack of understanding and awareness that he felt many of the members of his PYP department demonstrated regarding the differences in the learning backgrounds of their various colleagues. He not only mentioned the lack of awareness, but he also pointed out that he believed there was an assumption that "the other" had similar learning backgrounds and BAK when he stated:

> *… it might be considered to be invaluable… that a number of native- and non-native speaker instructors have been educated in a wide variety of backgrounds, have an amazingly varied wealth of information and knowledge in various aspects of the profession and are all sitting and looking at each other as if we were all from the same school and have been practicing the same methodology. There are some amazing strengths and areas of expertise among such a group of people, and unless they can be properly exploited, they are useless in the professional development sense*. (1UNI1C)

In addition, he noted that there is a richness of experience and knowledge that these diverse teachers could possibly bring to formal institutional PD, but he felt that it needs to be well managed to have positive outcomes. This is similar to UNI8T's previous suggestion that there is a lack of understanding among teachers' about their peers' learning backgrounds and qualifications. The limited appreciation shown in this international environment could lead to possible misunderstandings, which in turn could inhibit the creation of an environment that is conducive to open, active learning and risk-taking.

All but one participant in this study mentioned agency and the desire for autonomy in PD in their PYP departments. The concepts of internationalism and accountability in education have been established in the West for some time; however, there are different

levels of agency that are the norm in different cultures (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov, 2010). In addition, the teachers who make up the departments bring with them their own views, all arising from their different backgrounds in learning and teaching. Originally, the concept of agency arose from the Enlightenment, which emerged in Europe and the West, rather than in the Ottoman Empire. The Turkish Republic, the successor to the Ottoman Empire, has always lived under some form of autocracy, with varying degrees of "democratic" veneer, and this autocracy penetrates every aspect of daily life right down to the patriarchy of home and work life, to the point where people are extremely reluctant to question authority and norms (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov, 2010). Autocracy in government is related to the micro-autocracies of workplaces and homes and collectivist societies (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov, 2010). This culture within Turkish workplaces may mean that there is a lack of achievement of agency in PYPs as often in Turkish businesses, the leadership is top-down (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov, 2010). This may lead to an environment, in which risk-taking could be described as unwelcome or even challenging, and may contribute to why some teachers are less willing to engage with new ideas and professionally develop, which in turn could inhibit teachers' agency in PD.

The participants' perceptions of agency in education will be discussed further in this chapter, linking the current literature on agency in PD to what the participants reported. Biesta et al. (2015, p. 85) state, "Teachers' relationships—with other professionals as well as with people in the wider communities in which they work—have the potential to impact significantly on their professional agency." Therefore, the relationships and interactions among members of these groups of teachers may indicate different expectations and beliefs as well as affect the interactions with their colleagues. Possible differences and commonalities will be explored further to understand what may influence active, agentic PD. This is where the iterative, that is, past personal and professional learning, will interplay with the current projective evaluative.

The perception of cultural differences was noted by many of the international participants when they talked about hierarchy in PYPs and in the methods of teaching and learning English. In the semi-structured interviews, when asked how they would compare their learning backgrounds to their colleagues', 2UNI1C and 2UNI2US both talked about the differences they perceived between Western education systems and

the national education system in which they were now working. Participant 2UNI2US described the different expectations at US universities, where there is a push to create agentic, active learners who negotiate with ideas and concepts, something which he believed was lacking in universities in Turkey. He stated:

> *At home, universities do it with like, how do you interpret this information, what can you say about this based on this*. (2UNI2US)

Prior to this, he had talked about the encouragement of creative thinking in US universities; he then went on to contrast this with the Turkish education system, which he felt encouraged a receptive and passive form of learning, therefore discouraging agency:

> *The whole Turkish education system is basic like this, it's input, output, input, output, like can you regurgitate this information basically, like, that's the function so I would seriously doubt that the education was that much like mine.* (2UNI2US)

Participant 2UNI1C described the Turkish education system disparagingly as consisting of a "lot of memorisation spew" (2UNI1C). Participant 3UNI5T, who reported that she had studied at both US and Turkish universities, noted that she needed to adapt to a new way of learning when she studied in the US and very much felt that this had led to a positive learning outcome for her. However, two participants, 2UNI1C and 2UNI5US, mentioned that universities in different states of the US can differ, a view which is supported by research by Selvi and Percy (2016), who found that MA TESOL programmes in the US differ greatly. The less positive perceptions of Turkish education held by many of the international participants may have arisen from their experiences of teaching the host students. However, both 3UNI5T and 1UNI1C stated that they believed that the experiences that Turkish teachers had of rote learning carried through to the national teachers' perceptions of quality teaching and what they expected to see in PD.

It should be noted that the university entrance exam has been a multiple-choice exam since the 1950s, which has a clear backwash effect on teaching and learning. Hatipoğlu (2016) discusses how testing systems in Turkey negatively affect English learning for

both foreign language teachers and learners, with the former seeing many classes involving exam practice and the latter seeing limited production of skills. However, despite this perceived negative backwash, more of the national participants stated that they had learned languages using communicative, transformative approaches than did the international participants, which adds an interesting twist to these perceptions. The national teachers did not mention exam practice in their language learning experiences (see Appendix 9, Tables 7-9, pp. 253-254). The effect of PYP assessment on teachers' engagement in PD is discussed in detail later on in this chapter.

4.2.4 Professional experiences: Longevity in the profession

Qualifications reflect formal personal learning experiences, and the variety of these qualifications and the perceptions of others' qualifications may represent factors that influence teachers' engagement in PD. Another sub-theme that emerged as a possible influence on agency in PD was longevity in the profession. The profile of the participants in this study reveals a variety of different professional and learning experiences as well as different lengths of experience, which may have an influence on engagement in PD. After teachers obtain their initial teaching qualifications and gain experience in the classroom, their beliefs grow and are shaped by their professional experiences as well as by their interactions with their peers and their institutions (see, for example, Knowles, 1984; Mezirow, 1997; Borg, 2007).

Much research has been carried out to determine what differences there are between expert and novice teachers and between in-service and pre-service teachers (e.g. Farrell 2012). Farrell (2012) discuss a study in which he compared pre-service and experienced teachers who had master's degrees in TESOL. He found that the experienced teachers employed a much greater variety of approaches in developing a lesson and were quicker to develop the lesson further. In addition, he found they were able to identify a far greater variety of issues and problems that could arise for students, whereas the pre-service teachers tended to give very prescribed interpretations. This has been described by some as a "professional vision" that makes sense of situations in the classroom (Van Es, and Sherin, 2001; Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, and Shulman, 2002). Professional vision is said to influence teachers' quality of teaching (Roth et al., 2011; Kersting, Givvin, Thompson, Santagata, and Stigler, 2012), and in this study, the

variety of professional views adds to this complexity as the participants have such a variety of learning and professional backgrounds (see Appendix 9, Tables 7-9, pp. 253-254),

As can be seen in Appendix 9, Tables 7-9, pp. 253-254), the profile of the participants shows that they can mainly be described as experienced teachers as there are five participants with over 21 years' experience in the field and only four out of the twenty with fewer than five years' experience in the field. As has been discussed previously in Chapter 1, section 1.3 pp. 5-22, there has been a great deal of research, experimentation, and evolution in English language teaching approaches since World War II, when English started to become the lingua franca. As discussed in "Forty years of language teaching" Brumfit, (2005), each decade has seen new approaches put forward as "the best way to teach English". Currently, the approach most often postulated is the post method (Galante, 2014; Ahmadi and Maftoon, 2015). If we consider the time period during which the most experienced participants in this study had been teaching, a number of different teaching approaches had come and gone out of fashion, and newer, less experienced teachers are often found to be more open to PD (Hargreaves, 1994). Teachers of all levels of experience may favour the approaches to teaching that were in vogue during their formative years as language students or novice teachers (Farrell 2012). This could influence their beliefs in terms of what they see as good PD and how it should be executed, and they may find PD less engaging if the content goes against their beliefs about what has worked for many years. Their mentors as language students or as novice teachers, coupled with the approaches popular in the decade and culture when they learned to teach, may also influence teachers' ideas.

All the participants mentioned that the longer they stayed in the profession, the less positive they felt about PD. 1UNI5T, 1UNI6T, 1UNI4US, 1UNI7US, and 3UNI1T, all experienced participants (over 10 years' experience), acknowledged explicitly that when they were new teachers, they had been more interested in PD; but as their careers and experience progressed, their interest had waned. One national participant, stated:

> *I was more interested in professional development activities when I first started teaching. After thirteen years, I feel that I have lost my interest and enthusiasm towards professional development.* (1UNI5T)

Another participant, with over 21 years of experience stated:

> *I have also lost my faith my belief whatever you call in doing this* [PD]. (1UNI3EE)

Another participant continued this theme by stating that she had lost interest in formal personal development, specifically in terms of pursuing internationally recognised qualifications:

> *When I was younger I was more eh excited about PD, I was thinking of attending this CELTA/DELTA courses, I was checking the websites all the time eh which one should I attend next et cetera et cetera eh I know, I'm doing my master's degree, and then I'm going to do my PhD a do that et cetera I was a little more excited what about this.* (3UNI1T)

All of the qualifications that she mentioned could further her career as well as enhance her performance in the classroom. Perhaps this is because an upward career path was no longer of interest or available to this participant, and she felt that this extrinsic motivation did not affect her. On the other hand, it could also be that she has lost her initial intrinsic motivation to continue learning as she has been in the same position for over 15 years. It is also possible that the formal PD she had recently experienced in the workplace did not meet her needs. It is significant that little was explicitly mentioned in the interviews about the projective dimension, although the subject did arise.

When asked why they felt that more experienced teachers were less interested in PD, one international participant reflected on his past enthusiasm with a sense of self-deprecation, acknowledging he used to be more open to PD:

> *You were younger then, to make a difference, maybe… I was younger and more impressionable and more docile.* (1UNI4US)

He used the adjectives "docile" and "impressionable," which could imply that he did not have the same experience or confidence to reject or resist others' notions of formal

professional development that he does now. Another participant perceived that the reason for engaging in PD was to fill in the gap when he had no experience, due to the fear that he was not yet good enough:

> *And I would take materials from where ever I could find them, many times that meant just creating something, at the time too maybe it was because I was right out of CELTA I had a lot more motivation, like you know maybe it was fear, maybe it was the insecurity of being inexperienced kind of thing.* (2UNI4US)

The fear of not being able to perform in the classroom could be described as a perceived gap in knowledge and could have been a motivation for this participant to be engaged in professional learning of a more informal type, such as sourcing materials for the classroom. This participant talked about having just completed the CELTA (a four-week course which has a total of seven hours of practical classroom experience) when he felt like this; so, it is understandable that perhaps this participant lacked confidence with so little classroom practice. Another participant noted the same:

> *Often those with many years of experience feel that they know everything they need to know and so feel disinterested in further PD. Newer teachers feel like they need to learn everything there is to know and I think better understand that approaches are always changing.* (3UNI3T)

This participant noticed a perceived gap in knowledge and noted that those closer in time to their initial training showed more awareness of what they know and do not know; possibly indicating that they could reflect better on their development needs. She also mentioned that there had been some success with the more experienced teachers taking an active part in a mentoring programme. However, it should be noted that experienced teachers who expressed less interest in formal PD still expressed an interest in teaching and facilitating student learning. While acknowledging that the less experienced teachers were more engaged in PD, one participant stated that her interest had been transferred directly to the classroom, and she no longer had an interest in PD:

> *Yes sure, of course it makes a difference, they're young and they are more enthusiastic, I'm getting older but I'm enthusiastic ... You should come and see*

me in class, class is the most important place for me I mean you are always young with young students you never feel that in class. 1UNI6T

The participant indicated here that her priority was the classroom, where she could use her skills as a teacher. She has developed her professional vision through experience and is confident in the classroom regarding her choices for teaching (for example, Farrell 2012; Taylor, 2008), and if she were given that autonomy and control with PD, it may renew her enthusiasm and engagement. This also links to many participants' statements that they preferred PD that was practical and related to the classroom situation, with less theory.

There was a sense among the more experienced participants in the study that interest in PD declines with experience. This lack of interest was also noticed by the less experienced participants in the study (3UNI3T, 3UNI4UK, and 3UNI5T). The perceived decline in interest in PD appears to occur as teachers gain more experience. It is possible that the teachers become more confident in their practice and their beliefs become more established over time as they gain more experience and a better understanding of what does and does not work in their classrooms. It may be that there is less of a gap between their knowledge and the curriculum, or that these experienced teachers might have become less interested in PD because, with time, a distance may have opened up between themselves and the theories and research that they studied as novices, and they have developed confidence and their own strategies in the classroom as well (Farrell, 2012; Taylor, 2008). PD may remind them of the bigger picture, i.e., that teaching is greater than their immediate classroom and the institution in which they are currently working. Reflection and change to their practices may make them anxious when they have found tried and tested approaches that meet curriculum goals (Livingston, 2016). Teachers may need to have an understanding of the rationale for a change in order to be open to engaging in PD.

One experienced participant saw working alongside the "other" teachers with different experiences as an opportunity for PD and suggested there could be PD in a community of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991) or formal courses and PD. One national participant recommended:

> *For novice teachers, it is a great opportunity to work in an institution with an effective curriculum based on literature and research, as they consciously or unconsciously become more knowledgeable about giving and receiving quality education. They also have the chance of working with qualified colleagues who have contributed to the development of the course*. (1UNI2T)

It could be suggested that this participant saw the benefits that might be gained from teachers learning from each other, which would also give the more experienced teachers the opportunity to take on a mentor role, thus receiving acknowledgment of their experience. This rich wealth of expertise is also mentioned by 1UNI1C (see appendix 9 Tables 7-9 pp.253-256. It is possible that, in a supportive environment like a community of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1998), the difference in ages and experience among a diverse teaching group could be harnessed as a possible positive influence for achieving agency in PD.

Section One examined the iterative, that is, the influence of learning and professional backgrounds on engagement in PD. It could be suggested that formal personal learning qualifications constitute a factor affecting the engagement of teachers in PYPs, because the variety of qualifications and the lack of understanding of others' qualifications can cause challenges. In addition, the length of teachers' professional experience could also be a factor that inhibits engagement. These perceptions of the others' qualifications and longevity in the profession might interplay with the present practical evaluative dimension of their practice; that is, the teachers' current ideas stemming from their own educational culture, their values, and their beliefs can affect teachers' interactions. This will be discussed in the next section.

Section 2: Collaborative PD and professional learning with "the other"

4.3 Introduction to collaborative PD and professional learning with "the other"

Social structures, which include social relationships, roles, power, and trust, are a dimension of agency (Emirbayer and Mische, 2005; Biesta and Tedder, 2007; Biesta et al., 2015). This represents an interesting dimension when discussing the interplay of the past iterative (see 4.2) and the future projective dimensions of teacher experience with the here-and-now in the present practical evaluative dimension.

When considering social structures, this study acknowledges that in any group of people, there are different actors and behaviours that can make up the whole. Perhaps, in this study, the actors' behaviours are more diverse than can be found in many groups, which could possibly be due to the diversity of qualifications. These social structures, against the backdrop of a specific context (PYPs in this study), would not exist without the relationships and interactions among group members. Complexity results from the participants' international status and their different backgrounds, views, and ways of initiating and carrying out discourse.

There can be a perception of the other, that is, the lack of understanding of those who are different, who may be classed together and stereotyped. If interactions within the social structures are not working effectively, this can influence the achievement of agency and engagement in PD. The iterative dimension of the accomplishment of agency in this group of participants is of interest, given the wide variety of educational and professional backgrounds of the teachers in these PYPs (see Appendix 9, Tables 7-9, pp. 253-254), which can be misunderstood by, for example, some national teachers who have not experienced working in different backgrounds and contexts (abroad). Those who have not travelled may have different worldviews, BAK, and awareness compared to those who have worked abroad and had opportunities to compare educational cultures and norms. These differences, if not understood by the participants, have the potential to influence the group in terms of respect and understanding among colleagues. It could be suggested that groups of teachers who come from different learning and professional backgrounds will have assumptions about qualifications, attitudes to teaching and learning, and approaches to PD. Creating PD that could accommodate everyone may be challenging and may be impeded by participants' assumptions.

4.3 Collaborative PD

4.3.1 Collaborative PD with the other: national and international interactions

Social structures relate to people interacting, and for the purposes of this study, interacting to collaborate together in their learning, that is, teachers coming together in formal professional development. One participant remarked that teachers were not

collaborating in PD in the department in which he worked; he perceived this lack of cohesion as having been created by the teachers, who held a wide variety of views on PD:

> *I think it has to be in a negative way in the sense that even within the department, you are not all pulling in the same direction. I mean I think that, I don't know, I mean I, I get the feeling that even when there is or was some semblance of PD in this department, people wanted it and needed it and liked it and disliked it for so many different reasons that everybody was sort of going in their own direction. So there is no unity, there is no sort of forward march, this is for the benefit for all of us.* (1UNI1C)

The achievement of agency could be inhibited because teachers cannot develop freely due to a lack of cohesion in the department in relation to perceptions of what is good learning and good PD. The variety of qualifications and experiences that the teachers hold make it a challenge to create collaborative PD where all teachers feel they are contributing and that their contributions are appreciated. In addition, PD is not always effective for everyone as teachers have different learning styles and experiences that should be acknowledged, just as we do with students. The participants also may have experienced less successful PD, which could influence their views. The social structures and relationships created when collaborating in PD should be taken into consideration when planning. When asked about collaboration in relation to PD, all participants mentioned their interactions within the groups of teachers, that is, within the existing social structures.

Nine participants noted that there was dissonance in social structures, in that teachers became part of groups that had been formed within the PYPs. As touched upon in Chapter 4 (see pp.92–95), the representative participants in the study are too diverse to be described simply as different tribes based on being members of groups with similar backgrounds and outlooks Mentor (2011). However, some of the participants perceived the existence of factions in their departments, and more than one participant described the situation as "tribal." There appeared to be many layers to and differences among the participants' preferred interactions. For instance, it was reported by 1UNI1C, 1UNI4US, 1UNI8T, 2UNI1C, 2UNI1US, 2UNI3C, 2UNI5US, 3UNI3T, and 3UNI4UK that in their international PYP departments, they believed there was a

noticeable division between the national and international teachers. The perceptions of how deep the divide was among the groups depended on the participant describing the interactions. One international participant, 2UNI1C, talked explicitly about the split in the TC in her PYP when she stated:

> *Uhmm I find… in the teaching unit there is a big divide of 'us and them.'* (2UNI1C)

She went on to explain that there was limited collaboration among teachers unless they were assigned to groups by management. Even then, the tasks they were given would be split up among them and worked on individually, not collaboratively and reflexively. When asked why she felt this was the case, she attributed the divide to how teachers interpreted and applied the school rules. She said that she thought that only "Westerners" agreed to abide by university rules (such as paper submission deadlines), whereas the national teachers were more flexible. It was not just the international participants that noted this divide. When asked the same question about whom she collaborated with best in PD, a national participant stated:

> *We are seen as non-Americans, we are not a community, we are not part of it. They think that they are a team and we are a different team, they always refer to us as the Turks and Turkish speakers.* (1UNI8T)

This participant went on to describe how international teachers often complained when national teachers spoke in their first language. As can be seen in Appendix 9, Tables 7-9, pp. 253-254, three participants (2UNI2C, 2UNI5US, and 3UNI4UK) reported that they had B1-level Turkish in the Common European Framework of References for Languages (CEFR), which is the minimum level needed to study at a university. 1UNI4US and 1UNI3EE stated that they had B2-level Turkish, 2UNI2US had A2 level, and four participants (1UNI4US, 2UNI3C, 1UNI1C, and 2UNI4US) reported having limited Turkish (A1 level). Therefore, most of these participants could be challenged by listening to and attempting to understand the national teachers speaking in their L1 (Turkish). This code-switching could lead to international teachers feeling excluded from discussions and collaborations, which in turn could add to their reluctance to cooperate with national peers and create a challenge to agentic action in PD activities.

However, Turkish is the first language of the country, and it could be suggested that the international teachers have a responsibility to learn to communicate in the country in which they have chosen to live. It should be noted that, according to Appendix 9, Tables 7-9, pp. 253-254, five of the participants have a B1–C1 (CEFR) level of Turkish and higher, and three have an A1–A2 (CEFR) level of Turkish. The remaining two do not mention having learned Turkish. This means that half of the teachers have enough of the national teachers' L1 to be able to communicate effectively in this language in the workplace and should not find code-switching an issue.

Both participants mentioned above (2UNI1C and 1UNI8T) split the teaching groups into two—international and national teachers. 1UNI8T defined the two groups as American and Turkish; however, there were other nationalities also working in the PYP at University 1. In this study at University 1, a Canadian and an Eastern European also participated. More (seven) international participants mentioned the divide in PYPs than national ones (three). This feeling of not belonging completely to the group is possibly a result of the complex mixture of cultures in the department, which could be due in part to the nationality of management and the majority nationality in the department (US). Two participants from University 1 (1UNI1C and 1UNI8T) discussed feeling uncomfortable about collaborating in PD with the dominant (US) culture in the department. This was also mentioned at University 2 (2UNI1C and 2UNI5US), where participants had similar feelings about what they felt was the dominant culture in the department. Perhaps these feelings of discomfort are because people feel more in control when engaging in discourse in the workplace in their own L1. Therefore, this may become more significant when the L1 of those in power is different from that the teachers' own L1, and teachers may feel less empowered as a result.

In many PYPs, international teachers make up a smaller percentage of the staff; this is the case for Universities 2 and 3. An international participant at University 1 (1UNI1C) stated there were "*50% native speakers and 50% non-native speakers in our department*," with the international teachers being pre-dominantly from the US (as was the department director); whereas in Universities 2 and 3, there was a much larger proportion of national teachers and directors. The participants at University 2 discussed these divisions in more detail than others, which could be because five out of six of the participants at University 2 were international teachers, which contrasted with the

situation at University 3, where five out of six participants were national teachers. These divisions discussed at University 2 could mean that the international teachers felt excluded. In the PYPs in the study, one hurdle to the achievement of agency when attempting to engage in PD is that the divisions among the teachers when they work together could inhibit openness and cooperation.

Again, as with the cultural dimension, there are various possible ways to respond to how this combination of international and national teachers interacts in order to influence teachers' engagement in PD. What is notable is that any divisions among international and national teaching staff were more likely to be noticed and commented upon by international teachers, with cultural and linguistic backgrounds exerting a definite influence upon how such groups tended to form.

An interesting theme that emerged from this study is that international teachers may build upon their shared experiences of living outside their own cultures; in addition, they tended to socialise mainly with each other (as mentioned by 2UNI1C and 2UNI4US). This could be perceived as a disconnection from or limited connection to the host culture, which in turn strengthens the common bond amongst the 'outsiders' (Redfield, 2012). Additionally, many of the national teachers demonstrated limited integration with the international teachers. This lack of interaction or connection may lead to stereotypical perceptions of all of the "members of the other group," an example being 1UNI8T's perception of the lack of international teachers' engagement with language learning, especially in terms of learning the national teachers' L1. In reality, three of the international teachers at University 1 had higher than a B1 (CEFR) level of Turkish, and the fourth teacher had higher than an A1 level (CEFR).

Participant 3UNI3T supports this claim in her statement: "*I don't have much contact with the American colleagues or the English colleagues*." The lack of contact with the national teachers is likely to increase the interactions among international teachers. Seven of the ten international participants (1UNI1C, 1UNI4US, 2UNI1C, 2UNI1US, 2UNI3C, 2UNI5US, and 3UNI4UK) mentioned that they felt that the international teachers often formed a group within their departments. Participant 2UNI2C stated, "*Native speakers cluster together*." Another participant, 3UNI4UK, likened this "clustering" to tribal behaviour; however, in this environment, perhaps she was missing

the complexity of teachers' backgrounds and reactions; as can be seen in Appendix 9, Tables 7-9, pp. 253-254, there are not distinct tribes as described by Becher (1989).

The international participants appeared to support this perception of tribal behaviour. One stated:

> *Uhm, I would say the other native speakers, uhm I don't know like, tribes, aren't we, we tend to veer towards the people that we've got most in common with.* (3UNI4UK)

2UNI1C, 2UNI2US, and 2UNI3C confirmed this belief and stated that living outside one's own country and culture can be an adventure, but it can also bring challenges in understanding the social structures in the workplace and in society, such as the interpretation of the flexibility of rules (previously mentioned by participant 2UNI1C). Two international participants (2UNI1C and 2UNI2US) stated their belief that being away from home could be a reason for the divisions between national and international teachers, as well as for the apparent solidarity among the international teachers. One participant stated:

> *Maybe because we are away from our homes in a different country, like we have more of a shared experience, if that makes sense, so like the foreign teachers are moving from country to country and school to school, unlike most of them* [national teachers]. (2UNI1C)

2UNI1C also went on to suggest that a significant reason for the apparent bonding between international teachers is that they had the option to live together on campus in university housing, whereas their Turkish colleagues tended to live in the city with their families. This physical factor was a possible contribution to the lack of integration of the national and international teaching staff in PYPs due to limited possibilities to get to know and understand the "other" in depth because of geographical considerations.

A better understanding is needed of the ways in which international teachers interact in PYP departments and what effect these interactions have on collaborative PD. A lack of connection with other colleagues may influence engagement in collaborative PD.

The apparently "tribalistic" groupings perceived by some of the participants in this study add to the possible levels of limited connection that international participants feel with the majority culture, which could influence their achievement of agentic PD (Biesta et al., 2015). Social structures within groups and the members' related interactions within a group can determine and/or limit the agents in making decisions about engagement, or, as in the case of this study, their interest in PD. Stoll et al. (2006) mention that TCs need to be robust to function, and collaboration, communication, and a common understanding of social structures may facilitate both formal and informal professional learning. This lack of connection could influence engagement in PD as teachers may prove less willing to collaborate on and share developmental projects.

Understanding why very varied populations of international teachers often appear more likely to develop a shared connection can contribute to an understanding of how this may influence the achievement of agency in PD. The international teachers have generally had many experiences outside their own countries and as such are used to being different from the cultural norm, not always feeling that they fully understand the social structures of the country in which they live (see Appendix 9, Tables 7-9, pp. 253-254). Therefore, it could be suggested that they meta-reflexively acknowledge their own culture (Hussain and Bagguley, 2015).

Participant 2UNI2US stated:

> *I didn't realise how American I was until I was out of America and then I see my thinking is different, the way my perspective, are different… I can't help, I mean it colours every single thing that goes on in my life, like my perspective, it affects the people I gravitate towards, affects the way I do things, affects even basic introductions the way I ask someone for a favour, so I think that probably has something to do with it. I've never been given any kind of, I've never got any sort of negative reaction from my interactions you know from asking for help from a Turkish teacher, but we just don't communicate the same.* (2UNI2US)

He then elaborated upon these challenges in interacting with his national colleagues, noting that he preferred to communicate with international teachers, and going on to state:

> *… it's easier to do with other native speakers, be they from Canada, America, UK, Nigeria, I don't think it matters, it probably does matter to some degree but just sharing English as a native language which is the way I can communicate with native speakers which I cannot with non-native speakers no matter how good their English is… there's a difference…* (2UNI2US)

This comfort in communicating with other international teachers using their native language is one possible explanation for the perceived bond among these teachers, which could lead to a feeling of community and increased likelihood of PD and collaboration; that is, some of the international teachers feel they have a common identity, or perhaps they are viewing those at home as the "other." They may perceive what is different as comprising one single group (Jenkins, 2011) the "other", i.e., those nationals living at home. However, they make the distinction through having a common first language, the lingua franca, albeit in different forms (e.g., American/British/Canadian English). It seems to be used by some as a marker for a group distinct from the national teachers. It may also be that the international teachers believe that the national teachers perceive all international teachers as the "other." For example, 1UNI8T talked about two groups, the Turks and the Americans, omitting any mention of other nationalities, such as Canadian or Eastern European, to name but two that were at University 1. Although there are too many varieties of learning and professional backgrounds to describe these groups as tribal, perhaps the national teachers perceived these groups as two distinct groups (national and international), and as such, as "tribal" groups, and in the same way tended to operate within the comfort zone of those similar to themselves, i.e., the other national colleagues. Perhaps for national teachers, they too felt more in control and were more comfortable communicating in their first language, despite their high levels of English, as language and culture tend to be inextricably linked. In addition, it may feel more authentic for them to speak their L1 in their own country. The possible reluctance of some to collaborate with the "other" may be due to the challenges inherent in communicating with the "other," which suggests a disconnection among teachers of different

backgrounds and cultures (Redfield, 2012). The complex professional identities of the international teachers and the ways in which they interact within the community add to wider challenges in communication—not only with national teaching colleagues but other staff in the department—which may inhibit the achievement of agency for PD. This in turn means that teachers, both national and international, may also feel less comfortable taking professional risks for change.

4.3.2 Collaborative PD with the "other:" Professional understandings

Based on Biesta et al.'s (2015) analytical framework, a sub-theme that emerged was that of the cultural influence on engagement in PD. "Cultural" can include ideas related to a particular culture, values, beliefs, discourses, and a common language. However, as discussed in the section above, to understand the teachers simplistically as tribes or groups originating from set cultures that have informed their beliefs is to miss the complexity in the deeply diverse groups, where each individual has different learning and professional backgrounds. With this in mind, in all three phases of the study, including in the semi-structured interviews, the theme of community was discussed, and the participants were asked, in the context of PD, with whom they collaborated well in their TCs and why. As could be expected from this diverse group of teachers, there was a broad range of responses regarding with whom the participants preferred collaborating and how they felt about working with their various colleagues.

From this emerged the possible effect of professional understandings with colleagues on engagement in collaborative formal PD. Collaborating to develop professionally in the workplace can present many challenges even in a national context, where teachers often have similar learning and professional backgrounds (Biesta et al., 2015). Research indicates that positive interactions among teachers, as well as teachers' interactions with PD providers, influence teaching communities (TCs) favourably in that participants' teaching and beliefs can be adapted and changed (Aubusson et al., 2007; Akerson et al., 2009). TC members who collaborate well in an open atmosphere are often more productive (Aubusson et al., 2007; Thessin, 2010; Jones et al., 2013). Additionally, sharing teaching practices through collaboration can result in shared values and vision (Hardin, 2010). Investigating agency to develop professionally and learn can give some insight into how teachers can be engaged in PD (Biesta et al., 2015).

Exploring how international and national higher education (HE) teachers' interactions influence engagement in PD can offer insight that could support these international groups' development. In a context where many different nationalities are working together, the differences in professional understandings in inter-national groups of teachers needs to be explored to find out whether and how this may influence engagement in PD. In the PYP context, with the diverse backgrounds of teachers, there currently appear to be no studies on the influences that can affect agentic action in PD. Nevertheless, the practical evaluative cultural and social structures in a PYP department may influence the interplay between participants that could inhibit engagement in PD (Biesta et al., 2015).

All participants said they preferred working with people in their TC who demonstrated a common professional outlook, and many participants identified a lack of cohesion among the variety of teachers. As can be seen below, eleven participants stated that they preferred to work with those who had a similar "world view" (1UNI3EE, 3UNI1T, 3UNI2T, 1UNI5T, 1UNI7US, and 2UNI1C), "work ethic" (1UNI6T, 3UNI1T, and 1UNI5T), "ideas" (1UNI6T and 1UNI5T), "beliefs" (1UNI6T), and "teaching methods and attitudes to students and different generations" (1UNI6T, 1UNI3EE, 2UNI6, and 3UNI1T). As will be explained in this section, the participants found these qualities in a wide variety of people with different backgrounds. As Stoll et al. (2006) acknowledge, there can be situations that both hinder and foster PD and learning in PLCs. A similarity in outlook and collegiality has been seen to both enhance and hinder collaboration; it can impede collaboration among colleagues who would like to maintain the status quo and as such do not wish to challenge their thinking with new ideas, beliefs and approaches (Datnow, 2012).

As PYPs are often staffed by international groups with different learning and professional backgrounds (see Appendix 9, Tables 7-9, pp. 253-254), investigating how their various iterative dimensions interact with their projective evaluative dimensions to affect engagement in PD could provide valuable insights to facilitate more effective and collaborative PD in this context.

The findings of the current study suggest that when collaborating with colleagues a common work ethic is preferred, regardless of the collaborators' backgrounds. Most of

the participants who mentioned this aspect believed that work ethic was not related to nationality or culture, while only three of the national participants from University 3 believed it was. Additionally, some believed that similar cultural professional understandings are needed to collaborate in PD. I will now address the social dimension and how the groups' interactions and their perceptions of roles in PD can influence their engagement.

The value of a common work ethic was one of the most identified sub-themes that arose as an influence on engagement when collaborating in formal PD. Participants 1UNI5T, 1UNI6T, and 1UNI7US mentioned that they preferred to collaborate with those with whom they shared a common work ethic, going on to state that they did not believe that this would arise purely as a result of nationality. All of these participants had over ten years' teaching experience and believed that their first priority was their students and their second priority was to work with like-minded people. One participant stated:

> *Well, I don't think of my job as a part-time job, and I'm not convinced that everyone shares that opinion so I find those people who ... have a commitment level above uh part-time work get along, I get along EXTREMELY well. And those who have a different idea, a different picture of what sort of work ethics or commitment level is appropriate or professional, I work around, I work around these people, because I have plans, I have objectives, I have goals, they are not personal they're for my class, my level.* (1UNI7US)

It is clear that this participant was concerned with work ethic, and his commitment to and focus on the job of educating the students, which, he suggested, certain others did not feel. He stated that he had a professional vision that he wanted to achieve and at the same time, he mentioned that he organised his work so as to avoid others with a different work ethic. Stoll et al. (2006) stress that a common professional vision is a vital element of collaborative PD. All three of the participants discussed in this section (1UNI5T, 1UNI6T, and 1UNI7US) stated that their students are the priority. It could be described as surprising that only three participants mentioned their students' rather than their own learning because the focus of the interview and questioning was on their views on collaborative formal PD.

3UNI5T, 3UNI2T, and 1UNI3EE stated in some detail that they were open to working with colleagues from different backgrounds, and even preferred to do so. In contrast to those who believed work ethic was not related to nationality, two participants (3UNI5T and 3UNI2T) felt that it was about nationality and culture. When asked with whom she felt she collaborated best within the context of PD, one participant stated:

> *Americans I guess… Because they are very professional, I don't know I think because I studied there I have the notion so let's say professional and when you share things that you know that they will do their best to do their bit, and we have that cooperation and also, they are not really they are so hard working but some Turkish teachers, not everybody, but some Turkish teachers are not that enthusiastic sometimes when you're partnered with them.* (3UNI5T)

3UNI5T stated that she thought the international teachers were very "professional." This this lexical item is a false cognate, and although the word looks familiar to English speakers, it has a subtly different meaning in the Turkish language, in which it means that a person is able to separate his or her personal and professional life. The term might also be used in Turkish to describe someone who exhibits a strong work ethic. Both 3UNI2T and 3UNI5T stated that they believed there was a different work ethic amongst national and international teachers. One example of this notion came from the response of a national participant, who stated:

> *When you, eh, I want to collaborate it is easier to collaborate with native speakers because they are ready to work, ready to collaborate uhm Turkish people, I'm also Turkish so this criticism can come to me as well, when you want to collaborate on something the idea in the Turkish people's mind is how can I do less. I mean, maybe it's a cultural thing, they don't want to work. And I hear this every single day. When I approach my native speaker friends to give a duty or to talk about a duty they are more willing to do it; when I approach a Turkish teacher they just check their phone first, we ask can I do this? Maybe feeling happy because this person chose you to collaborate with, that is not thought about. Again it's a cultural thing I believe.* (3UNI2T)

This participant believed that many national teachers were reluctant to collaborate and

often tried to minimise their workloads. She also felt that they could and should do more. She herself appeared an extremely motivated national teacher; therefore, her own behaviour may contradict what she stated. In contrast, international participant (2UNI4US) gave a different view of the national teachers. He was very positive about working with them and seemed to have respect for them and their work ethic. He stated:

> *The more experienced teachers, especially the ones who have taught here, because they can explain more on how the system works, more up, a lot of my colleagues especially my Turkish colleagues they ... many of them are more willing to help any way they can to, to make the experience a lot easier ... so yeah, I would say the more experienced Turkish colleagues are the ones that offer the most benefit and help.* (2UNI4US)

He appreciated that the national teachers had a deep understanding of education in Turkey and was grateful for the support they had given him, which made him keen to work with them. This is in direct contrast to what the previous participant (3UNI2T) from University 3 said about Turkish staff not being helpful. The reason for this discrepancy could lie in the fact that participant 2UNI4US was, at the time of the study, working on an ICELT course and often sought advice from his Turkish ICELT trainer, whereas participant 3UNI2T, who had responsibilities relating to the curriculum, was requesting support from other teachers. 3UNI2T argued that teachers, in particular the Turkish teachers, were reluctant to take on extra curriculum duties. It is possible that the teachers were reluctant to get involved in creating materials for the curriculum through lack of confidence to do so and fear that this would provide their peers with the opportunity to criticize. It may also be related to the fact that extra work did not elicit extra remuneration. The lack of bonuses was also suggested as a reason for reluctance to take on tasks by 1UNI1C at University 1.

Another participant also mentioned that a strong work ethic could influence attitudes to formal PD. When asked in the online pre-interview task about how the community could affect engagement in PD, she stated:

> *If a community has a culture of study and/or strong work ethic, this can certainly be an encouragement to the teacher to develop further professionally.*

(2UNI1C)

Openness to collaborating in PD and having space to take agentic action to develop professionally can both be facilitated with the respect and understanding of colleagues (Stoll et al., 2006), especially when it comes from those with different backgrounds. As stated before (see Appendix 9, Tables 7-9, pp. 253-254), there are as many overlaps as there are differences in participants' backgrounds.

Despite many participants professing that they preferred to work with those with a common work ethic, when asked directly, they generally felt that nationality and background did not affect interactions and collaboration. However, there was also an acknowledgement by a quarter of the teachers of a preference to collaborate with those with a common background (2UNI1C, 2UNI3C, 2UNI2US, 3UNI3T, and 3UNI6T), which can be identified as the iterative dimension of Biesta et al.'s (2015) achievement of agency model. It could be said that participants on the whole stated a preference to work with those with whom they shared a common understanding of teaching, education, and rules, only three have the same education backgrounds. It is possible that the iterative dimension of these teachers' agency, while being informed by different experiences, led to a common understanding of what makes good teaching, learning, and PD.

However, there was a minority of two national participants, 3UNI3T and 3UNI6T (neither of whom had any international experience), who stated their preference for working with other national colleagues as they felt they shared a common background and a common understanding of the students. The reasons given for this were, firstly, that they had a common understanding of the students and, secondly, that they had less access to international teachers. When asked in the semi-structured interview about whom she preferred to collaborate with, participant 3UNI6T explicitly stated that she found it more comfortable to collaborate with other national teachers:

> *… because we are Turkish people and we know what Turkish students want… We understand each other… because of a nationality maybe. We know our strengths and weaknesses and also the students*. (3UNI6T)

Another national participant, 3UNI3T, when responding to the same question, noted that she was presented with fewer opportunities to interact with colleagues of different nationalities, but also that she worked better with national teachers like herself. She stated:

> *Hah… I have to admit that I work well with my Turkish colleagues, I don't have much contact with the American colleagues or the English colleagues… but I can say that in general I work with my Turkish colleagues better and we share*. (3UNI3T)

It is notable that neither participant 3UNI6T nor 3UNI3T had any international learning or professional experience whereas the three other national teachers from the same university, who had both studied and worked abroad, appeared to be more open to working with international staff. A deeper understanding of those from different backgrounds can come from experiences outside one's norm and comfort zone; for example, work and study abroad can create opportunities to reflect on the differences and similarities in different education systems. When asked in the semi-structured interviews about whom they collaborated with best, national participants 1UNI5T and 1UNI6T from University 1 did not explicitly mention a nationality but instead talked about being able to collaborate and work well with those who have similar ideas, beliefs, and approaches to teaching. However, at University 3, the national teachers were in the majority (unlike University 1), which could be the reason that the national participants did not often have the opportunity to collaborate with their international colleagues.

However, it was not only those of the same nationality who perceived the importance of a common background; international participant 1UNI3EE felt that it was with the national teachers that he had more in common due to the fact that he came from an old country (in Eastern Europe) similar to Turkey, as opposed to a new country, such as the US. He felt that in older countries, there are more traditions of hierarchy and respect, especially for older, experienced people, which he appreciated:

> *Because you were talking about the hierarchy earlier, it's easier to work with Turks, I understand where they are coming from... they are not a mystery to me. I think they see me as different, they see me as an American. They don't*

understand that I understand them. (1UNIEE)

When asked to elaborate, he explained that when referring to the international teachers, he meant Americans, who are from a new culture. His rationale was that there was a difference between hierarchy and respect in old and new cultures as discussed in Chapter 1 section 1.3.1.3 pp.12-13. As the only international NNES in the study, his background had the fewest commonalities with other participants as he was the only participant from Eastern Europe, so he affiliated himself with those he believed were the most similar to himself. Even though he had gone through HE in the US and carried a US passport, he still identified with the "other," possibly because he originally came from Eastern Europe. To make his point, he used his perceptions of stereotypes of the different cultures he was exposed to in the department, for example that of old and new cultures. This constitutes another example of the complexity of backgrounds in international PYP departments. It is likely that participants' desire to work, collaborate, and develop with those they feel they have similar values and beliefs (Borg, 2011) is due to this rich diversity of different backgrounds (see Appendix 9, Tables 7-9, pp. 253-254), which could then be considered to exert an influence on agency and the achievement of agency in formal professional development.

The difference between old and new cultures, which could be described as another layer of the complexity and variety of teachers' backgrounds, was also mentioned by international participant 2UNI2US, who stated that teachers identify more with the culture they were brought up in rather than their particular ethnicity. He referred to those whom he described as ethnically Turkish but who had been brought up in a new country such as the US or Canada, and so would also not feel part of Turkish culture. Consequently, he perceived that their interactions would be more like his, that of the outsider:

> *If it had been an American teacher who was of Turkish descent but didn't grow up* [in Turkey] *... probably that person would have had the same type of interactions ... so I don't think it has anything to do with genetics or race...* (2UNI2US)

This observation highlights the very mixed picture of who collaborates well with whom

and who prefers to collaborate with whom. This concurs with the response from another participant, 2UNI1C, who had grown up in North America with a Turkish mother. When asked in the semi-structured interview about whom she preferred to collaborate with in PD, she stated that she did not feel similar to the Turkish teachers in terms of her views, such as those relating to acceptable norms of classroom boundaries and rules. These different perceptions of what is appropriate in teaching could be a barrier to collaborative formal PD with her national colleagues. Collaborative PD agency may also be challenged by the lack of harmony among the colleagues. She stated:

> *When I'm teaching like with my co-teachers, I always work better with a Western person because they understand like I'm pretty strict with my expectations, whereas the Turkish teachers are not as strict*. (2UNI2C)

This participant was clearly more comfortable working with those who she perceived followed similar professional cultural norms with regard to rules and the flexibility thereof. She went on to suggest that there are different levels of expectations relating to university rules between Western countries and the host culture (Turkey). This quote illustrates a possible influence of learning background and upbringing upon beliefs and communication.

Overall, the responses suggested that all but three of the participants (3UNI5T, 3UNI2T, and 1UNI3EE) showed themselves to be more comfortable collaborating with those whom they perceived as having similar mind-sets and learning and professional backgrounds (the word "similar" rather than "common" is used here due to the variety of learning and teaching backgrounds). It would appear that in general, teachers prefer to collaborate with those they find to be the least different from themselves; their preferred choice of collaborators did not seem to be related to nationality. Those who did not have a common background with anyone in the department tended to seek out those who had a background similar to and compatible with their own for the purposes of collaborative formal PD. It could be suggested that those who were open to collaborative formal PD with colleagues from different backgrounds often had had the experience of studying or working in that culture and, therefore, possibly had a greater understanding of the related cultural rules, norms, and work ethic; it is also possible that their experiences had given them the opportunity to understand the "other."

4.3.3 Collaborative PD with the "other:" Group dynamic

In PYP departments, there is a very complex mix of multiple learning and professional backgrounds, with many different perceptions of what amounts to good PD (see Appendix 9, Tables 7-9, pp. 253-254), This explains the differences in what forms of PD the participants found to be valuable and what they did not. Colleagues can influence their peers' attitudes to PD both positively and negatively, and groupthink can also occur (Lima, 2001; Brouwer et al., 2012). Teachers who complain may either consciously or unconsciously influence others' feelings about PD in the department. Many teachers complain for a variety of reasons, one of which is a conflict in interpretations of colleagues' qualifications, which can influence opinions, which has already been discussed above.

All of the participants stated that peers within a community could have a positive or negative influence on PD, due to the fact that they socially construct their ideas about teaching and learning. Perceptions of a negative environment in the department regarding PD were reported most frequently at University 1 and most infrequently at University 3. At University 1, the participants were older, more experienced, and had more qualifications (though not always in the field of ELT) (see Appendix 9, Tables 7-9, pp. 253-254). Participants 1UNI1C and 1UNI8T reported the effects of negative peer influence and a tendency towards groupthink regarding PD. The participants at University 3 were generally the least experienced and the least qualified among the three institutions. In the area of peer influence, the participants discussed the theme of community and PD, which arose both in the online pre-interview task and in the semi-structured interviews, where the participants were asked how the people they worked with affected their interest in PD. Three of the participants (3UNI4UK, 3UNI6UK, and 3UNI5T) from University 3 described how peers can positively influence each other with their interest and engagement in PD, which can be done by creating a dynamic of active inquiry in a safe environment. As Stoll et al. (2006) discuss, if elements such as collaboration, communication, trust, sharing, and equality are in alignment, then a TC can work effectively, and there can be an environment for achieving agency in PD. This example reflects the participants' views:

> *Community can affect teachers in a positive way, if there is a 'culture' of*

> *professional development, which the institution promotes and which fellow teachers actively embrace and participate in. Also, if there is high level of collaboration between teaching colleagues, this encourages interest in professional development.* (3UNI4UK)

This participant mentioned that institutional support for PD was a concern and that the teachers were open to collaborating in PD. Participant 3UNI6T agreed when talking about her fellow national colleagues and emphasised the benefit of collaborative PD.

A national participant, when answering the question in the online pre-questionnaire about how the community can affect teachers' interest in PD, highlighted that there are both beneficial and detrimental effects. She stated:

> *It is human psychology and what people do and think is usually contagious. If there are people who would like to actively participate in professional development activities, I am sure people will join them and the community will get bigger. However, if the situation is the opposite, even the willing teachers will lose their motivation after some time*. (1UNI5T)

The above participant's choice of lexis is of interest as "contagious" is generally used for diseases, but here, it is used to describe an attitude that may "infect" others. As in any community, there are social structures in PYPs, and some may not wish to step outside of the boundaries created by their peers (Hofstede et al., 2010). There is a desire to fit in with the norms of the many, and if the many are critical of PD, the few who feel positive about it may feel unable to express their enthusiasm. This in turn will inhibit their achievement of agency in PD. When asked in the online pre-interview how she thought the community could affect engagement in PD, 1UNI6T stated:

> *If the colleagues of a teacher are unwilling to be involved in professional development, that teacher is also affected negatively and remains neutral in order not to be criticized by the others.* (1UNI6T)

She also stated this as a reason there was the need for agency in PD for more experienced teachers in particular, and that these teachers should be able to choose when and what PD to do, if any. Another participant from the same university,

University 1 (1UNI8T), reported the same effect in the department:

> *I mean generally instructors, they think it's a waste of time, they already know the stuff, I'm quoting them right now, 'Nobody can tell me how I should manage my class, how I should do this activity.' The general tendency is formed by us, looking at each other and trying to understand how we feel… it's not, maybe, I couldn't get it very clear, it may not be particularly individuals' opinions of the professional development but looking at the other people around and seeing them not be happy about professional development he or she might feel the same, collective thinking.* (1UNI8T)

She talked about how teachers' opinions of PD can be influenced by their peers' and how teachers could be negatively influenced by their peers (Lima, 2001). It could be suggested from the data that participants may feel a need to defend themselves when others question their BAK (1UNI8T, 1UNI1C); such questioning could come from peers, management, and student expectations (discussed in more detail in Section 4.4). This may create solidarity among the teachers with similar beliefs; however, this could also lead to groupthink among members of the groups. It should be noted that at University 3, where most of the teachers were less experienced, there was a perceived need expressed for collaborative formal PD whereas at University 1, where most teachers were more experienced, many of the teachers expressed that they no longer needed PD as they did not believe they were learning anything new. It is clear that when and how collaborative formal PD is approached with more experienced teachers needs to be looked at more carefully.

There also tends to be a sense of solidarity among more experienced teachers with such a variety of learning and professional backgrounds. Teachers can influence each other and collectively resist, as was mentioned by the participants (especially at University 1 (1UNI8T, 1UNI5T, 1UNI6T,1UNI1C, 1UNI7US)), which could be seen as a form of agentic action to hold onto their beliefs and identity. If this collective resistance was turned on its head and teachers could see PD more as a learning opportunity than as a hurdle, this could facilitate engagement in PD, as was mentioned by 1UNI1C. This could possibly be achieved by giving these teachers responsibility in organising PD such as action research or senior mentoring roles, which is discussed more in detail in Chapter 5.

This section utilised the agency analytical framework created by Biesta et al. 2015. to address the themes that arose. The themes that emerged were the national and international interactions, which seemed to be influenced by the variety of the iterative dimension and where the participants' beliefs had arisen. Additionally, the participants' national and international professional understandings which came from their backgrounds informed their current beliefs. The last theme was the group's dynamic, which, again, was influenced by the variety of participants and their complex identities.

Section Two: Commoditised PYP English language curricula

4.4 The students' English language curriculum

There is much talk of agency and accountability in education in the West. Biesta et al. (2015) offer a great deal of evidence of the effects of this in Scottish schools. However, how this transfers to the context of this study, in universities that aim to compete internationally but have evolved from a different culture, remains to be seen. In private PYPs, there is accountability to the university president and the university boards, but they are less beholden to the YÖK than public universities are (see Chapter 1, section 1.2 p. 4 & section 1.3.2.2 p.16). Coursebooks and curricula have become very generic, with the aim of teaching the language to as many people as possible as quickly as possible. This is as a result of the global neoliberal attitude to education and the commoditisation of English language teaching. In this section, this aspect is broken down into four sub-themes for discussion: (4.4.1) Flexibility of the PYP English language curriculum and assessment, (4.4.2) Understanding of the "others'" curriculum and assessment BAK, and (4.4.3) commoditisation of language learning.

A school curriculum means different things to different people. There are many definitions of curriculum, the original coming from the Latin "the course of a race," based on the original notion of running to proceed, as noted by Bobbit (1918). In education today, a curriculum usually comprises and outlines time-bound educational goals and clarifies how and by whom these goals will be implemented and assessed (Shulman, 1987; Elmore, 1996). Many educators see the curriculum as a definer of a country's culture and values (Saylor, Alexander, and Lewis, 1981; Lawton, 1996). The concept of curriculum has evolved over time, with more than just the explicit version coming into play. Smith (2000), Dewey (1902), and Kelly (2009) talk of different

school curricula in terms of implicit curricula as well as the excluded, extracurricular, and hidden curriculum, as discussed in detail in Chapter 2, section 2.3.1 p. 36.

Much recent literature concludes that teacher involvement in the processes of curriculum adaptation and change facilitates teachers' ownership of their work (Priestley, Edwards, Priestley, and Miller, 2012) and understanding (Hargreaves, Lieberman, Fullan, and Hopkins, 2009), while contributing to both a stable work environment and also a shared vision within the group of teachers (Sahlberg, 2011a). The current school of thought is that teacher agency, i.e. the possibility for teachers to be active agents of change (Eteläpelto, Vähäsantanen, Hökkä, and Es, 2013) or to "critically shape their responses to problematic situations" (Biesta and Tedder, 2006, p. 11) is an important factor in high quality education (Nieveen, 2011; Priestley, 2011). This ability to critically shape responses to problematic situations could be incorporated into successful PD in terms of facilitating an environment in which teachers feel safe to take risks in order to adapt successfully to challenges.

Although created and maintained by curriculum committees (sometimes with feedback from teachers), the projective evaluative material dimension of PYP curricula have the potential to interplay with the variety of teachers' past iterative learning and professional backgrounds (Biesta et al., 2015). A PYP curriculum may well advocate teaching approaches and beliefs that prove to be different to those the teachers have learned previously and practised throughout their careers. With the combination of international and national participants in this study (see Appendix 9, Tables 7-9, pp. 253-254), in a context where each PYP has a single curriculum building towards a high-stakes, summative assessment, unpacking the issues affecting agency can facilitate a more tailored approach to PD which would truly meet the teachers' needs so that they could collaborate more effectively with a view to improving their practice and the students' learning.

4.4.1 Flexibility of PYP English Language curriculum and assessment

It could be argued that the fixed nature of the exam and the high-stakes nature of the context of the courses narrow the possibilities for the curriculum to allow creativity. If the curriculum and pedagogic possibilities appear so, it may be that teachers see no

space to make changes to their practice and hence do not recognise the need for formal professional PD. In the current study, the participants were asked how the courses they taught would have to change in order for people to become interested in PD. They cited the lack of flexibility in the curriculum, which was partially a result of the quantity of material that they were expected to cover in such a short time to prepare students for the high-stakes exam. Participants from each university mentioned the curriculum directly and how they believed it affected engagement in formal PD. At University 2, 2UNI1, 2UNI2US, and 2UNI6T argued that the curriculum might inhibit creativity and experimentation in the classroom. In contrast to 1UNI2T, who had just arrived at University 1 and noted that the relatively new curriculum had many areas that needed work, or "gaps", as she described them, 1UNI5 and 1UNI6T stated that they felt the curriculum was set and there were no perceived gaps, so they no longer felt the need to be creative and engage in PD. It should be noted that 1UNI5T and 1UNI6T, who had been in their positions at University 1 for many years, taught at a different level from 1UNI2T (who was newly arrived), with different level heads and a different syllabus to support the overall curriculum goals and objectives. At University 1, when students first arrive, they are placement tested to ascertain their level of English, and they can be placed into A1, A2, B1, or B2 (CEFR) level classes. Each level has a separate curriculum and different course books to achieve the departments' ultimate goals and objectives, which are also used to write the proficiency exam. It is likely that their perceptions were influenced by their degree of familiarity with the curriculum; 1UNI5T and 1UNI6T talked about being part of the process to create the curriculum, whereas 1UNI2T was not part of this process; therefore, this factor may have had an influence how she felt about the curriculum. One participant stated:

> *We have a prescribed roadmap, and our students must meet these objectives, so there is little time to use and develop the skills we have learned through our PD.* (2UNI2US)

Another participant said:

> *... a course that has little flexibility would make it difficult to experiment with new methods in the classroom, which is crucial for professional development.* (2UNI1C)

At University 3, all but one of the participants (3UNI1T) demonstrated more positive attitudes towards formal PD. At University 3, the curriculum appeared to be more flexible and teachers were regularly asked for feedback on what it should contain. As mentioned above, 1UNI5T and 1UNI6T were involved in the construction of the curriculum, whereas the newcomer, 1UNI2T, thought that teachers should be asked more often for feedback on how the curriculum was working. Therefore, 1UNI2T felt that she had had no voice in what she was currently teaching, which could partly explain her differing perceptions. At University 2, it was mentioned by all the participants that the curriculum and assessment were closed. At University 3, the curriculum was still acknowledged to be time-bound, however. As one participant stated:

> *So there's a lot of teachers' input with the curriculum, it's not rigid… if there is a criticism or an idea shared by staff about one singular, particular thing they take into consideration. Because they cannot say we don't hear you, we have an open plan forum here.* (3UNI2T)

However, at University 3, 3UNI1T, who had over twenty years' experience in the profession, had a contrary opinion to 3UNI2T. 3UNI1T felt instead that the curriculum was not open. 3UNI1T stated that she felt the course books used to interpret the curriculum could possibly inhibit creativity, and thus, any desire for formal PD was also reduced as she was unable to use the projective domain. She said:

> *This is a pitfall actually, so it's like chicken egg story. There are conferences and we see publishers and we see teachers or writers speakers giving the presentations, of course they have to a certain extent… go hand-in-hand actually uh but still you don't usually see the point because mostly they usually try to divert you through the road, by the book, that kills the freedom of your teaching, that kills your vision.* (3UNI1T)

She stated that the formal PD provided in the form of presentations by publishers and speakers was done in order to support the books. She was not sure if the curriculum or the books came first. Perhaps, she felt that the books were forced upon the teachers and, because of this, she felt that achievement of agency in formal PD was less attainable. It

could also be suggested that she felt she had no freedom to make choices in her teaching, which could hinder the ability to think and plan for the future. The reason for this might lie in the "one-size fits all" course books promoted by publishers that are uncomfortably fitted into courses Copeland (2018).

It could be suggested that when teachers have a voice in the curriculum, and when changes to the curriculum are in line with their beliefs and values, they could also be more open to engaging in formal PD (Biesta et al., 2015). Indeed, this appeared to be the case for all but one participant at University 3 (3UNI1T), who overall appeared to be open to formal PD. On the whole, the years of experience and post-graduate qualifications among participants at this university were lower than those of the other universities (see Appendix 9, Tables 7-9, pp. 253-254). Therefore it could be suggested that longevity in the profession can influence engagement in formal PD. At University 1, 1UNI5T and 1UNI6T both stated they had been involved in fine-tuning the courses and had experienced collective agency; however, at the time of the interviews, they perceived the courses to be set, and they felt this could be one of the reasons for their lack of interest in PD. One participant stated:

> *I really feel that this institution is not making me excited there are it's just a and quiet and sedentary life, a calm… it just doesn't give me the feeling I need to do something… To learn more to do more here I feel I've stopped here ehh in my profession in my job and a there is nothing else to do a I kind of have this feeling so I have slowed down I have settled in…* (1UNI5T)

She stated that she felt no anxiety about her future, that is to say, the set notion of the material practical evaluative dimension, i.e., the curriculum, interplayed with the future projective dimension in that she felt that because the curriculum worked well and met the needs of the high-stakes exam, there was no space for change. This could be because she had no anxiety about or aspirations for future improvement in the curriculum and, therefore, she did not feel the need to engage in formal PD.

An extremely important aspect of the PYP curriculum is the assessment method used to test the curriculum's goals and objectives, which can include quizzes, midterms, finals, and the high-stakes proficiency exam. Successful completion enables students

to move on to their chosen university departments, where they can start studying their chosen subjects (Alptekin and Tatar, 2011; Aydınlı and Ortaçtepe, 2018). At all three universities, the courses are assessed each semester with semester midterm examinations and semester finals, as well as with weekly quizzes and homework. Lack of agency in this projective evaluative domain may influence engagement in PD, especially on the topic of assessment. Five participants (1UNI1C, 2UNI1C, 2UNI3C, 2UNI5US, and 2UNI6T) all talked about their lack of agency in assessment. One participant highlighted her lack of interest in related PD (a conference on assessment) because of her lack of agency in assessment. She stated:

> *These are the conferences that the school hosts, so ehm like this year's theme is testing and assessment, we don't which we have no part in so I don't really I'm not interested in it, maybe I would be interested in it personally because I am interested in assessment but I have no say in it so what I learn cannot apply.* (2UNI1C)

At University 1, 1UNI6T believed that a certain degree of agency was given to the teachers as they were responsible for creating informal class tests and grading midterms and finals, which made up over 50% of the final grade. The participant stated:

> *… hmm you know what I mean, in some schools, in other schools let's say, in terms of assessment eh it here we have the freedom to create our own quizzes so which is good, it's not something standard, I have the discretion to evaluate my students' performance as well of course we have common examinations like midterms and final examinations.* (1UNI6T)

Not all instructors felt the same; two participants, 1UNI1C and 3UNI3T, discussed issues that had arisen with the assessment committee, one stating that he thought assessment was a "closed shop" (1UNI1C) in that only a few were responsible for designing assessment and no one else was welcomed or encouraged to contribute or get involved. The instructors are not responsible for the proficiency exit exam, which is the form of assessment with the most backwash in the classroom because the students are intensely focused upon it. As a national participant stated:

> *Sometimes to teach and sometimes to assess, they* [students] *say we don't know, these questions are not related to what were taught during the semester or the module. You know there are things like this sometimes.* (3UNI3T)

The quote above suggests that the participant believed the curriculum to be too exam-focused. The majority of students in PYPs have previously been assessed through multiple-choice items in the national university entrance exam, and their experiences of teaching and learning include extensive practice with past exam papers at cram schools (Özkan and Kesen, 2008). They have developed strategies such as memorisation to be successful in this context, and they enter PYPs with an expectation to continue passively receiving information (Özkan and Kesen, 2008). Therefore, if the assessment is inflexible, then the teachers may be reluctant to be flexible in the classroom and less willing to engage in PD that may require them to reflect and update the teaching approaches that have been tried and tested.

At University 3, four participants (3UNI2T, 3UNI3T, 3UNI4UK, and 3UNI5T) talked about the clash of the iterative and projective evaluative dimensions whenever teachers discuss assessment with one another. They felt that there were differences in beliefs resulting from teachers' different teaching and learning approaches towards the idea of assessment.

> *… and we talk about, and assessment sometimes we talk about yeah, the questions the, time amongst each other and of course pedagogy, pedagogical differences, also we have complaints, we are discussing… Yes, sometimes in assessments, too many things are being assessed…* (3UNI6T)

The participants went on to note that they felt students were assessed too frequently, because teachers were often expected to summatively assess each skill (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) as well as grammar and vocabulary on a weekly basis.

Most teachers agree that the curriculum is too exam based. However, when grading papers, especially those with open-ended questions, which are more subjective and open to interpretation, tensions may arise as a result of differing learning and professional backgrounds. One international participant, when talking about

discussions she had taken part in with her colleagues regarding curriculum and assessment, pointed out the tensions that arose between the national and international teachers as a result of their different approaches:

> … *there are major arguments, sorry major discussions of what is acceptable, they* [the assessment committee] *have started giving these open-ended questions for comprehension, there are big discussions about what is acceptable as an answer. So we get, when marking the papers, we get the correct answers but then we have a clearing sheet so at the end so we can write all the wondrous things the students have said, and those questions of what is acceptable* [on the clearing sheet]… *and then it comes back from testing and often with really ... they accept the answer but if it was up to me I wouldn't accept it*. (3UNI4UK)

This international participant highlighted differences of opinions among the L1 speakers, who, it could be said, have a more holistic view of the language, having not explicitly learned its grammar and L2 national teachers who have learned grammar through explicit, formal instruction (Medgyes, 2017). It should be noted that this participant was relatively new to the profession and it was clear that she exhibited a more positive attitude than the more experienced teachers. She continued:

> *Well most people, are ehm quite keen on attending, they are quite keen on their PD because they want to do the job as well as they can because I think because they want the students to pass, they want to get them through.* (3UNI4UK)

Not only does the PYP curriculum need to address a high-stakes proficiency exam, it also needs to be completed within one academic year. In the majority of institutions, the curriculum is designed by a curriculum committee with the goal of enabling students to learn English intensively to the CEFR B2 level in one academic year. Scholarships in Turkey are usually for one year of PYP and four years of degree programmes. However, the CEFR recommends that students who start at A1 or lower spend between 1,120 (47 weeks of 24 hours per week) and 1,300 study hours (54 weeks of 24 hours per week) to acquire the language to the requisite B2 level depending on students' language learning background, the intensity of study, age, and the amount of study/exposure outside of lesson times. As PYP curricula do not cover the

recommended CEFR time, the curriculum must cover the expected language goals to attain a B2 level of English within a shorter time than is officially recommended.

At University 3, participants 3UNI2T, 3UNI4T, and 3UNI6T talked about having too much material to finish in the allotted time. One participant said:

> *The curriculum work is loaded, too many things to cover the curriculum at this institution… Hah, sometimes we have to, let's say four modules in our system input program and sometimes we complain about the things that we have for the curriculum too many things to cover.* (3UNI6T)

In addition to representing a source of frustration for teachers, the lack of time to cover course content is also likely to prove problematic for students, who may be overwhelmed by the quantity they have to study and become demoralised by their perceived lack of achievement. As is mentioned later in Chapter 4, section 4.4.1 p. 149, student expectations can influence the management expectations of the teachers, which in turn may lead to teachers being reluctant to embrace new ideas and PD as the environment could be described as not being conducive to risk taking.

Therefore, it could be suggested that the possible limitations imposed on the teaching staff by what could be inferred as overloaded and less-than-flexible PYP English language curricula could have an effect on teachers' agency. If agency is also limited in curricula, then this is likely to take away from teachers' agentic action in PD, leading in turn to further limitations upon teachers' willingness to reflect and develop professionally.

Given these findings, PYP English language curricula that are open to limited interpretations due to a high-stakes exam may not contribute towards creating an environment for risk-taking and change. This could, in turn, mean that teachers may be reluctant to reflect upon current behaviour and practices to evolve and develop.

4.4.2 Understanding of the "others'" curriculum and assessment BAK

A PYP curriculum lays out how students will be given the opportunity to learn English

to the level of upper-intermediate (B2 level of the Common European Framework of References for Languages [CEFR]) in one academic year (8 months) in an intensive programme with approximately 24 class hours per week (depending on the level and programme) (Aydınlı and Ortaçtepe, 2018). The participants in the study were asked to comment upon the conversations which occur with departmental peers with regard to the curriculum and to make any suggestions for changes that could enhance their engagement in PD. Addressing the research question relating to the influence of interactions on engagement in PD, analysis of the data indicated that the iterative dimension (the teachers' learning and professional backgrounds) interacted with the material practical evaluative dimension of the curriculum. That is to say, the iterative dimension of previous learning and professional experiences informed teachers' interpretation and execution of the curriculum in a PYP department. Given the teachers' wide variety of iterative dimensions (i.e., their many different combinations of learning and professional backgrounds), an entirely cohesive interpretation of how to deliver the curriculum did not arise. Additionally, the participants suggested that the curriculum was overloaded and inflexible, which suggests that the curriculum itself could discourage the achievement of agency and risk taking in PD.

As has been suggested above, in departments where the iterative domain consists of teachers with a variety of different learning and professional backgrounds, possible tensions may arise because of teachers' lack of understanding of the "others'" BAK. How to interpret the curriculum is key when teachers are working towards one common goal to prepare their students to sit a high-stakes proficiency exam. When speaking about the discussions they had regarding the PYP courses, six participants (1UNI1C, 1UNI3EE, 1UNI8T, 2UNI1C, 2UNI5US, and 3UNI1T) mentioned differing interpretations of the curriculum and the resulting conflict between national and international teachers. However, two national teachers with similar backgrounds said they had worked on the curriculum, and that they had collaborated cohesively in their group (1UNI5T and 1UNI6T). One participant noted that the differences between Turkish education and Western education can lead to differing opinions when discussing curriculum and assessment:

> *Well, I guess I can say in their country's education system, it is quite different, all I would say because in Turkey everything is rote, memorization, like there is*

eh uhm eh very mechanical approach to everything and when this occurs, here sometimes it does, when it comes to assessment and stuff especially in English language teaching… in Turkey teachers tend to teach too much grammar, so that comes up is a discussion most of the time as they (Turkish teachers) *think much more skill-based approach is more appropriate. I guess that's what they were exposed to when they were learning as a second language so there is just discussion all the time.* (2UNI6T)

Table 9. Participants' language learning experiences

UNI 1 Respond -ents	**Learned languages, CEF**	**Approach**	**UNI 2 Respond -ents**	**Learned languages, CEFR**	**Approach**	**UNI 3 Respond -ents**	**Learned languages, CEFR**	**Approach**
1UNI1C	Russian, C1 French, B2 German, B2	GT I GT/CA	2UNI2C	Turkish, B2 (IM) French, B1	I PPP	3UNI1T	English, C1 (UK summer school cert)	GT CA
1UNI2T	English, C2 German, A2	 PPP	2UNI2US	Turkish, A2	I	3UNI2T	English, C1	GT/PPP
1UNI3EE	Russian, (bilingual) Italian, B2 Turkish, B2/C1	 GT/I GT/I	2UNI3C	French, B2 Korean, B1 Arabic, A1 Turkish, A1	I/HS I I I	3UNI3T	English, C1 German, A2	I/GT/PPP/TB GT/PPP
1UNI4US	Creole, C2 Spanish, C1 Polish, A1 Turkish, B2	I GT I I	2UNI4US	NIS		3UNI4UK	French, C1 German, C1 Turkish, B1	GT/AL/I GT/AL/I I
1UNI5T	English, C1	GT/CA	2UNI5US	Turkish, B1	I	3UNI5T	English, C1 German, A2 Spanish	GT GT PPP/TB
1UNI6T	English, C2 German	CA CA	2UNI6T	English, C2 Italian, B1	GT/TB PPP/TB	3UNI6T	English, C1	GT
1UNI7US	Spanish, B1 Turkish, A1 Latin, A2 French, B1	CA GT/I GT GT	CA: Communicative Approach GT: Grammar Translation TB: Task-Based Learning IM: Immigrant parents		PPP: Present Practice Produce I: Immersion AL: Audio-lingual NIG: No information given			

As can be seen in Table 4 above, more international participants than national had learned second and third languages through the more traditional method of grammar translation. However, there is a difference in how the national and international teachers teach, in terms of their focus on grammar. National teachers have experiences of learning English grammar using Turkish, the students' first language (L1). In contrast, the international teachers had acquired their L1 with little or no formal grammar instruction. Although four international participants have a B2 level of Turkish, which is acceptable to study at universities around the world, the rest have lower levels of the students' L1. Therefore, the international teachers may have been unable to explain

grammar in the manner of their national colleagues, through the students' L1, so they have had to rely on alternate methods of instruction.

International teacher training courses such as the CELTA and DELTA are aimed towards this target market, i.e. teachers for whom using the L1 of their students is not an option. Generally these programmes for teacher education for English language teachers involves the provision of strategies to teach English/the target language (receptive skills, productive skills, and grammar) without needing to know or understand the students' L1, and translation, L1 and second language (L2) comparison, and speaking the L1 are all discouraged in the classroom.

At University 1, there was much discussion of the interpretation of the integrated skills curriculum that had been introduced in 2012. Participants 1UNI1C, 1UNI2T, 1UNI3EE, 1UNI7US, and 1UNI8T all mentioned that a curriculum of integrated skills had been introduced in place of a more traditional discrete skills version, and that there had been and still was resistance and tension regarding its interpretation and implementation. One participant stated:

> *For example, integration of skills I think there is a huge difference in thinking about integration of skills, communicative language approach between native and non-native speakers. I mean it's between instructors who have had instructor training here as opposed to outside of Turkey. It's cultural, isn't it, really?* (1UNI1C)

This participant stated his belief that the national teachers who had studied and taught at home (Turkey) had a different perspective on teaching approaches in the classroom to that of the international teachers, and that this difference was down to cultural factors. He did not acknowledge the international teachers who spoke English as a L2. However, there are many CELTA and DELTA courses supporting the communicative approach that are run in Turkey and attended by both national and international teachers.

Two participants (1UNI2T and 1UNI4US) talked about the need for understanding gaps in the curriculum and in teacher knowledge. In other words, if there were more involvement in and reflection on the curriculum, it could open up greater potential for

the achievement of agency in PD (Biesta et al., 2015). One participant, 1UNI2T, expressed her opinion regarding the curriculum at University 1, which was introduced in 2012 (four years prior to the data collection), and which she perceived as lacking in depth (in comparison to the curriculum at University 2, where she had previously worked).

> *The thing is, I don't think the curriculum here is detailed enough, so I am not sure the people are aware of the gaps in the curriculum and the mismatches, uh I mean when they are identified… I think that every institution in every curriculum there must be some mismatches, and this curriculum is new… and they are trying to get some data on it… People may identify the areas and the mismatches and then they can, and I am sure there will be volunteers… to try to develop these gaps… and eh just to get rid of mismatches in the curriculum…* (1UNI2T)

Additionally, she believed there would always be gaps in the content of curricula that would need to be addressed, and that there is a difference between teachers' knowledge and what is necessary for the successful delivery of the curriculum. It could therefore be suggested that these gaps in the curriculum create a need for engaging in PD, and if, as suggested by the participant, teachers were given the opportunity to improve the curriculum themselves, they would achieve a level of agency that may also facilitate their desire for PD. At University 2, where the curriculum and assessment appeared to be the most inflexible, many were reluctant to engage in the offered formal PD.

As 1UNI1C highlighted, there are differences between the iterative domain among teachers whose own particular learning and professional backgrounds may not be in alignment with the current material domain of the curriculum. A few of the participants, 1UNI4US, 2UNI5US, and 3UNI6T, expressed a preference for a grammar-based approach, while most favoured a skills-based approach when presenting new language to their students. These differences in beliefs with regard to how the language should be taught and the curriculum interpreted , could influence achievement of agency in discussions of the curriculum within the teaching groups as teachers may be reluctant to share their views in an open forum, or, as has been mentioned, there is much disagreement. It is possible that the teachers felt this way because they were aware that

their beliefs were different and may be scrutinised or criticised, as 1UNI1C mentioned. If communication is inhibited, then there are fewer opportunities to interact, discuss, and negotiate a common goal, and to develop trust in the process, all of which could make the achievement of agency for PD challenging.

4.4.3 Commoditisation of English language learning

As discussed in Chapter 2, section, 2.3 pp. 35-37 in today's global, neoliberal university system, students are seen as clients that teachers have a responsibility to educate, and they have a far stronger voice than in the past (Vongalis-Macrow, 2007). Many universities compete in university world rankings, such as the *Times Higher Education World University Rankings*, with positions decided in part by student feedback on their experiences. Those international universities wishing to compete have introduced EMI in an attempt to appeal to the broadest possible international market (Dearden, 2015). The fact that many Turkish students wish to graduate from an EMI Turkish university stems from the apparent belief that it will open up opportunities for them in business and studying abroad (Kırkgöz, 2005). To facilitate entry into EMI universities, PYPs have been established in many countries to enable students to acquire the necessary English to pursue their studies. In this setting, curricula are created to organise teaching and to facilitate positive student learning outcomes.

As outlined in previous chapters, students in Turkey arrive at university PYPs directly after high school from a variety of different educational backgrounds, including both private and government schools, having experienced a variety of teaching approaches. Students from private schools may have sat the International Baccalaureate, while those coming from government schools (the majority) will have taken the Turkish state university entrance exam. This environment, in which students and teachers have differing experiences of learning and where students are learning as a means to an end, could result in low levels of motivation for both teachers and students. As one participant pointed out:

> *If language learning and teaching are intrinsically motivated, it makes a big difference. In an institution where language is taught as a general requirement, with classes of 30–40 students, there is very little interest for teachers to develop*

themselves professionally. (1UNI3EE)

He stated that in this current environment, where students had limited agency in their choices, because they needed to learn the language to study for their degrees, their potential negativity could affect the teachers and their engagement in PD. It is probable that the majority of students were focused only on passing the high-stakes exam at the end of the academic year so that they could begin studying in their chosen departments. In this environment of extrinsically motivated students, the teachers' projective dimension could be inhibited; that is to say, they may lack aspirations for future improvement, and they may not wish to engage in formal PD and of course this could also be a possible inspiration for teachers to engage in formal PD and find ways to motivate the students.

As has been discussed in earlier chapters, Turkish students arrive at their PYPs with a number of fixed expectations about the curriculum, methods of teaching, and assessment. As nine participants mentioned (3UNI1T, 3UNI3T, 3UNI4UK, 1UNI4US, 1UNI6T, 1UNI8T, 2UNI1C, 2UNI5US, and 2UNI6T), student expectations can influence the interpretation of the curriculum and the teachers' willingness to take risks for change, which can in turn influence engagement in PD.

When asked about student feedback, one participant, 2UNI6T, mentioned that they felt that students could be negative. Such attitudes may arise as a result of students feeling that their needs are not being met, and they may be demonstrating their agency through reluctance, anger, and resistance (Biesta et al., 2015). When asked about the PYP English language course, a participant stated:

> *Feedback we get from my students is not necessarily about teaching. They are really angry here, the students, they are really angry with the system, with this institution and, I must admit I think they are kind of right sometimes. And you can see that from the feedback on the course about the teachers, they are really critical and like basically they blame us [teachers] for their failures… that's what it's all about, I would say. The course, they are like, they don't like the books, they don't find activities beneficial, and they don't think assessment is done properly here, so that's what we get.* (2UNI6T)

It could be argued that students feel this way because they are being asked to study in a way that makes them feel uncomfortable, as it may differ from what they know and what they have had success with in the past. Additionally, they could be demonstrating resistance because they see English as a tool or as a means to an end and not an end in itself. They want a degree from a prestigious EMI university for the status it will confer to them in the job market, rather than out of a love of learning a language (Aydınlı and Ortaçtepe, 2018). One participant stated:

> *Our students on the other hand… They want to know English, they don't want to learn English I feel uhm they want to wave a magic wand and immediately you know English now [laughter], I feel that that's what they want I don't think they have a desire to learn the language. I think they have a desire to get a degree from the university, and a lot of them are at an English medium university because of the exam system and this is where they were able to get into, not because they really want to be here and some people want to be [University 2] because a degree from [University 2] means a job because it's a prestigious university, so they come here wanting the degree from [University 2] not wanting the education at [University 2] and not wanting to learn the English to get them to the degree. They just want the degree and this is just a hoop for them to jump through.* (2UNI5US)

Therefore, it could be said that the university entrance exam clearly has a backwash effect on the Turkish education system with ripple effects even into university learning, and this has an influence on students' skills and expectations. One participant stated:

> *… The education system, which students have experienced, for example prior to university, affects subsequent teaching, for example, in Turkey, the favoured examination system is multi-choice exams. Students have had little experience, e.g., of essay writing even in their own language, which makes the teaching of essay writing challenging in L2. PD can help teachers to understand these differences and improve classroom experience.* (3UNI4UK)

The students' lack of writing skills could also constitute an issue, as Turkey has been

perceived historically as an oral society in which, prior to the creation of the Republic, there was only a 10% literacy rate (Aydınlı and Ortaçtepe, 2018). The literate tended to consist mainly of religious leaders and imams who communicated in Arabic (Selvi, 2011). Another reason for the possible poor performance of writing skills in L2 could be the fact that writing is often neglected in the Turkish foreign language curriculum (Alptekin and Tatar, 2011), where the principal focus is on grammatical structures and lexis. Additionally, Göç (2005) finds that technology creates less of a need to express oneself in a literary form. At all three universities in this study, the proficiency exam incorporates the four skills, so it is seen as necessary that each skill is practised during the course (Alptekin and Tatar, 2011). 3UNI4UK, who is new to teaching, perceived these teaching challenges as a reason to engage in formal PD to gain strategies to support the students.

The students' learning and personal backgrounds also include how much English they have been exposed to and acquired, which can in turn affect their motivation to study. Lower-level students are often more motivated to study as they have had limited language learning experience and therefore fewer preconceptions of how a language lesson should be carried out. According to one participant:

> *Students in prep school [PYP] have different backgrounds, some of them are zero beginners [CEFR 0–A1], some are upper intermediate [CEFR B2], the ones with low level are usually motivated and eager to learn so they deserve more creative teachers, but the ones at higher levels are usually fed up with English learning since they come from private high schools. Here how the teacher is professionally developed might either play a big role or not. To attract those students' attention to the language is a big achievement for the instructor. Yes, we have to do, but we have to support our course books with extra supporting materials. We prepared lots of packs, writing packs, reading packs, vocab packs, because I've been studying with foundation students [an institutional term for the level of students with CEFR A1 English] you know they are demanding and eager to learn…* (1UNI6T)

For these students, learning English is unlike studying other departmental subjects, such as science or engineering, which they choose to study. They are studying English as a

tool, not as an end in itself; thus, their motivation is extrinsic—they would be studying another language if that were the lingua franca. It is interesting that participants 1UNI4US and 1UNI6T (both from University 1) exhibit very different understanding of the students' motivation and behaviour towards learning English. The national teacher (1UNI6T) who taught foundation students worked in a small group and was teaching the students who were new to learning the language. The international teacher (1UNI4US) was in a larger group who were teaching the students who had entered the PYP with a high level of English. As 1UNI6T pointed out, the students who start PYPs with a high level of English can be more challenging to teach as they have numerous previous English language learning experiences. They are also likely to have strategies for learning the language, and are, perhaps, less willing to listen to the teachers than students with very little English or none at all, who tend to be highly motivated and more prepared to listen to their teachers (Alptekin and Tatar, 2011).

If PYP students feel that their needs are not being met (as 1UNI4US stated), they demonstrate their frustration about the curriculum and assessment by acting out in class and giving negative feedback in evaluations. The participants who commented on this behaviour mentioned that it affected aspects of their classroom management when teaching. The possible tension around assessment could demonstrate the interplay of the iterative dimension of the students' learning backgrounds, experience, and expectations with that of the teachers' learning and professional backgrounds as well as their experiences of interacting in the present practical evaluative material dimension of curriculum and assessment. Given this, teachers might be more comfortable implementing tried and trusted approaches that they know work and that do not challenge the students' pre-conceptions of good teaching and learning.

Implementing the curriculum and encouraging students to focus in the classroom can be challenging for teachers. Students in PYPs have not been found to be greatly intrinsically or even integratively motivated (Öztürk and Gürbüz, 2013; Tarhan and Balban, 2014) to learn English or show positive attitudes towards the prospect of studying one sole subject for an entire academic year, which might contribute to their negative behaviour in the classroom. Tarhan and Balban's (2014) study found that both integrative and instrumental motivation facilitate PYP students' language learning, whereas Öztürk and Gürbüz (2013) observed that the PYP participants in their study had a moderate level of integrative motivation and a high level of instrumental

motivation. It should be noted that in another study from the same year, Öztürk (2013) found that the lack of student motivation was a factor in PYP teacher burnout. The interplay between the teachers' iterative dimension and the students' practical evaluative dimension in terms of the students' motivations to learn and engage with the curriculum both inside and outside the classroom can therefore be challenging for teachers. This could have an influence on engagement in PD, in that these challenges might encourage teachers to develop professionally so as to find ways to deal with the difficulties inherent in tackling student motivation (3UNI4UK).

Twelve out of the twenty participants (1UNI1C, 1UNI5T, 1UNI6T, 1UNI4US, 1UNI8T, 1UNI3EE, 2UNI5US, 2UNI6US, 3UNI6T, 3UNI2T, 3UNI4UK, and 3UNI5T) brought up the challenges that they faced when dealing with the student profile and the consequent reluctance towards PD that these challenges engendered, as they felt the PD on offer did not address these immediate classroom needs. PYP students were described as "angry" (2UNI5US). This could be as a result of the clash of the students' iterative learning backgrounds and the iterative learning and professional backgrounds of the teachers, with both believing that different approaches are successful. This anger and the resulting tensions could lead to institutions placing greater pressure on teachers to satisfy learners. The frustrations felt by the teachers were exemplified by one participant:

> *… the class that's what I'm focused on I'm trying to make Mert… pay attention I'm trying to make Merve put down her god damn phone and I'm trying to make Deniz like stop talking to Beste and start participating. Those are the problems I have, and have to say the teacher trainer, how much theory is involved? I don't care… all these… abstract things people present, I don't have a use for that. If you could tell me how I could frighten students so much that they will never take their phone out in class again but at the same time still get a positive evaluation from that student all at the end of semester, that's information I could use. If you can tell me how to increase their focus, if you can tell me how to motivate them to do their homework all this, if you could tell me how to better explain more economically cover this amount of material, if you could help me figure out what grammar forms should be emphasised more and which ones we should*

> *let go and let them make mistakes on, that would be useful information.* (1UNI4US)

The interplay of this pressure to implement an intensive English curriculum in a short time with the need to simultaneously maintain student motivation could possibly hinder agency and the fostering of a secure environment for formal PD and change. The issues described by the participant above could have arisen due to the theoretical nature of the formal PD with which he had previously engaged; as a result, he felt that he was not equipped to successfully deal with the student profile at hand. Adapting formal PD to address a specific student profile while also taking into account the influence of the student voice in the classroom could elicit a more positive response from teachers.

The teacher cited above was not the only participant to identify challenges with the student profile. 2UNI5US put forward the notion that the exam-based system was the main issue that needed to be changed before teachers could feel comfortable with formal PD and change. Given his background, it is likely that his iterative dimension had not prepared him to deal with this student profile; this participant had qualifications and previous teaching experience (teaching English at US high schools) but had not taught ESL/EFL. This could signify a need for and a reason to engage in formal PD. He stated:

> *I think classroom management, getting students involved, I think anything that we try to do to address that, it's just sticking a Band-Aid on something that needs surgery… I think we need to address the exam-based system…* (2UNI5US)

She (2UNI5US) continued by talking about the teaching approach that the curriculum was based on, namely, integrated skills and the communicative approach, and how these did not fit in with students' needs. She also noted that this created a negative environment that is not conducive to PD or even to the way she had learned to teach English (through Cambridge courses). This clearly influenced her agentic PD action.

> *In the departmental context, the perfectly packaged 'DELTA lesson' doesn't fit. Teachers recognize when a pie-in-the-sky idea for improving our school (especially student motivation) doesn't address the underlying needs of the*

> *students. Teachers feel patronised when asked to attend sessions or workshops on something they know is unlikely to make a difference with their students*. (2UNI5US)

Discussing the challenges they faced in the classroom, the participants appeared to be frustrated by the fact that they were not able to fully address the needs of the students and the primary focus of the curriculum, the proficiency exam. The participants clearly believed that the frustration that students feel is deep-rooted, and that simple solutions would not work. Although this may create a need for appropriate formal PD, the assessment could influence agency as it could be suggested that teachers are unable to comfortably reflect and take risks or explore new teaching techniques and approaches. In addition, organised formal PD has to address the teachers' needs and priorities in order for it to be seen as valid. The Cambridge suite of courses and training, which proposes task-based and communicative learning whereby students are given the opportunity to communicate, interact, and negotiate with the language, is not perceived as suitable for the exam-driven courses and students. Perhaps, when formal PD is based on such an approach, it is seen as "patronising" for this reason.

As 1UNI6T stated when the participants were asked about what they would change about the course (curriculum) to enhance their engagement in formal PD, the backwash of the assessment (in other words, teaching to the exam) was mentioned by more than one participant—1UNI1C, 2UNI3C, and 2UNI1C. However, 2UNI3C, like 1UNI6T before, did in fact note that she had agency in preparing quizzes and midterm assessments:

> *Yeah, uh the biggest change that our curriculum needs is it still very exam-focused, the students come in, if it's not on the exam if it's not an assignment, I don't want to learn it, and the course I'm teaching now pretty much teaching them only to pass the exam uh ….* (2UNI3C)

Another participant also talked about teaching to the exam, as well as his concerns about raising student interest and motivation so that the students would continue working during the summer semester (when the research interviews took place), as this is a time in which many of the students' classmates have already finished their courses

and gone home.

> *… like our courses are so short and we have so much to do. In such a short time it's like how do you keep making them interesting and then there's like the situation I am in now. I have 18 [repeat students] who've done all the work that I am giving them again. How do I make that interesting for them? And then and in my particular course, how to keep the motivation levels high because they have a month holiday before they take this exam determines whether or not they can get into their departments…* (2UNI1C)

Given these comments, it is clear that teachers generally find PYPs to be both loaded with course content and assessment-heavy. As mentioned earlier, this could be the result of the expectations of both students and institutions. Students expect assessments that examine receptive skills in the form of gap fills and multiple-choice questions, rather than productive assessment in the form of essays and presentations, which are more useful for the students in their future academic studies. There is a mismatch of ideas about the criteria for assessment as there are many different factions influencing it, which can create conflict and tensions. Firstly, the students want assessment in a format that matches their previously learned strategies, and they want to pass this assessment in order to ascend to their departments as soon as possible. Secondly, the institutions want to ensure that their clients are satisfied as well as remain competitive in the national and international HE rankings. Finally, the teachers in PYPs have a broad variety of learning and professional backgrounds, some with backgrounds and qualifications in learning and assessment.

It is probable that the high-stakes exam at the end of PYP programmes and the students' expectations of their assessments constrains teaching and therefore formal PD, unless it is highly practice-oriented. As a result, formal PD which may aim to engage teachers in discussion of theoretical issues or to work collaboratively to identify areas for development and improvement may be less valued as it leaves limited scope for creative reflection and teaching. Teachers may feel unable to make changes to their practice in this environment as the curriculum is tightly prescribed by the exam even though this conflicts with much of the current understanding of language learning and pedagogy. Therefore, PD providers need to recognise this and engage in more dialogue with

teachers. It is interesting to note that it seemed to be mostly the teachers from Universities 1 and 2 who expressed certain issues with assessment. This could be because the participant profile at these PYPs was more experienced than that of University 3; another explanation may be that there was greater perceived autonomy at University 3.

4.5 Conclusions

This study is set in a modern, post-traditional, intercultural, and globally aware world of education, a setting where agency can be seen as both a necessity and a challenge. Discussed in this chapter are the themes of the interplay between the teachers' iterative dimension and the curriculum, assessment, and agentic . This includes the flexibility of curriculum, assessment, and time; student attitudes and motivations and, finally, the influence of neoliberal university culture on teacher PD agency.

Collaborative formal PD has been reported to be a powerful tool to facilitate teacher professional learning (Levine and Marcus, 2010; Meirink et al., 2010). Positive, collegial interactions among teachers and their interactions with PD providers affect groups of teachers and have positive outcomes for collaborative formal PD and teaching; furthermore, beliefs can be adapted in an open atmosphere (Aubusson et al., 2007). To address the research question, "What are the factors that can influence international and nationals teachers' engagement in PD?", data were analysed from online pre-questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, and online post-reflections. These focused on the themes of context, community, institution, course, and self, and the effect of all of these on engagement in PD.

The analytical paradigm chosen to understand the rich data provided by the participants was Biesta et al.'s (2015) ecological framework. This change model framework of agency facilitates an understanding of what can foster an environment in which it is possible to take risks in order to develop professionally. As can be seen from this chapter, the participants hailed from a wide variety of learning and professional backgrounds, and their differences did not fit neatly into any boxes. To add to this, teaching staff demonstrated differing perceptions of and levels of interest in PD as they gained experience and confidence in the classroom, regardless of nationality and

background. Those with a longevity of experience were noted to be looking for PD that would support the exam-based PYP course and that met both their and the students' needs.

The main themes of teachers' learning and professional histories, culture, and social structures demonstrate that a PYP therefore, the formal PD in these departments should be open to understanding this. The diversity of qualifications, learning, and teaching cultures was understood by the participants and seen both positively and negatively. Many participants talked of experiencing a positive peer influence, whereby others can incite enthusiasm and collaboration. As one participant stated: "*If the community is truly open to other cultures and languages, it will positively affect teachers' motivation to improve*" (1UN1C). Therefore, a dialogue in an open and trusting environment on the overlaps and differences of professional qualifications should provide an ideal springboard from which to establish a common understanding among groups of teachers and turn these groups into cohesive communities.

Chapter 5: Analysis and Discussion

5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the factors that may influence engagement in professional development (PD) in groups of national and international teachers, and follows the presentation and analysis of the findings in Chapter 4. This chapter discusses these findings based on the study's research questions, which are:

What factors influence international and national teachers' engagement in PD?

Sub-Questions:

How do teachers' learning and professional backgrounds influence engagement in PD?

How do teachers' interactions with each other influence engagement in PD?

How does the PYP curriculum influence engagement in PD?

Mainly drawing from adult learning, international reflexivity, and agency theories, the related literature has been integrated to the context outlined in Chapter 1 and the constructivist adult learning theories reviewed in Chapter 2, as well as to the findings presented in Chapters 4. This chapter comprises four sections.

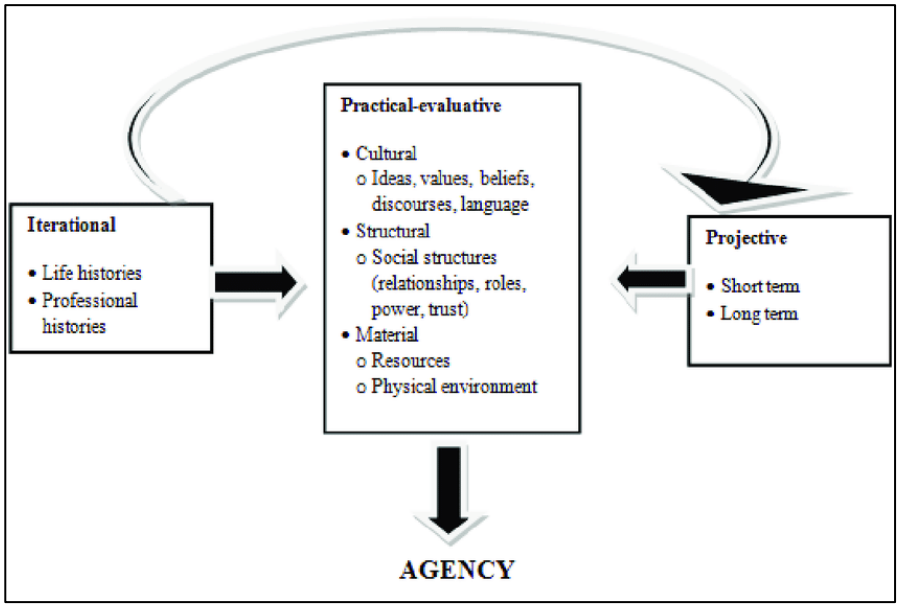

Figure 4. (Biesta et al., 2015) (same as Figure 2 p. 41)

As the analytical paradigm for this study is agency theory (Biesta et al., 2015), Section 1 looks at the past and present experiences of the teachers in terms of the iterative

dimension interplaying with practical evaluative cultural influences. Section two looks at the iterative dimension of PYP teachers' learning and professional histories, and examines the participants' formal personal learning experiences (5.2). Section three explores the interplay between the iterative dimension and the cultural practical evaluative dimension. of PYP teachers' learning and professional histories It discusses collaborative formal PD in groups of both national and international teachers (e.g. understanding the professional "other" (5.3)).

This includes understanding "others'" personal formal learning, qualifications (5.3.1), professional learning (5.3.2), views of professionalism (5.3.3), views of work hierarchy and rules (5.3.4), and views of work ethic (5.3.41). Section 4 discusses the iterative dimension of teachers' learning and professional histories links with the material practical evaluative dimension, which includes. the influence of the commoditised PYP English language curriculum. This section considers material influences in agency of PD (5.4.1), agency over the curriculum (5.4.2), the lack of cohesive understandings of teachers of the curricula and assessment (5.4.3), and commoditisation of English language learning and students' voice (5.4.3). Finally, Section 5 examines the relationship between the iterative dimension of PYP teachers' learning and professional histories with the cultural practical evaluative dimension and the projective dimension which comes under the theme of longevity in the profession, before outlining some conclusions.

Section One: The Analytical Framework, Agency

As discussed in detail in Chapter 2, section 5 pp.58-63, Biesta and Tedder (2007) and Emirbayer and Mische (1998) argue that when people are allowed the freedom to think, agency and education can lead to engagement in PD. Mezirow (1997), Biesta (2010), and Vongalis-Macrow (2007) all support the idea that teachers as active agents with opportunities for self-determinism are more likely to become and remain engaged, whether such opportunities relate to small changes in one classroom activity or to changes in the entire curriculum.

Biesta et al. (2015) attempt to advance thinking in the area of agency in education with an ecological view "an emergent phenomenon of the ecological conditions through which it is enacted… that is not something we can possess but something we can

achieve" Biesta et al. (2015 p. 22). Biesta et al. build on Emirbayer and Mische's (1998) argument that it is through the interplay of habit, imagination, and judgment that a reproduction and transformation of structures arises in reaction to issues, adding that these changes are also influenced by the context and timing. Emirbayer and Mische (1998) state that agency cannot be contained or produced; it is not a power. It is located in the present but influenced by the past and the future, and as such can be achieved. Biesta and Tedder (2007) discuss agency in their paper on agency and learning:

> [Agency] denotes a 'quality' of the *engagement* of actors with temporal-relational contexts-for-action, not a quality of the actors themselves. We might therefore characterise such an understanding of agency as an *ecological* understanding in that it focuses on the ways in which agency is achieved in transaction with a particular context-for-action, within a particular 'ecology'. (pp.136-137)

Archer (2003, 2007) and Giddens (1979, 1984, 1991), both scholars in this field, acknowledge that agency is teachers' power in the workplace, and it can influence teacher engagement in PD. Bredeson (2003), Leat, Livingston, and Priestley (2013), and Muijs et al. (2004) recognise the necessity of agency in engagement in PD. They add that agency is also fundamental in the current climate of accountability of teaching and learning in the form of school league tables and HE rankings which can limit agency as the competitive nature of the context will value this more than that of both student and teacher learning (Vongalis-Macrow, 2007; Biesta et al., 2015). In this study, which seeks to understand the factors that influence teachers' engagement in formal PD, it is vital to understand the interplay between PYP teachers' formal PD endeavours and their histories of learning and teaching as well as their future aspirations within their current contexts. With their wide variety of learning and professional experiences, PYP teachers represent an added complexity to the interplay of elements of the past, present and future found in these departments, which can influence engagement in PD, as is highlighted in the findings of Chapter 4.

Section 2: Iterative dimension of PYP teachers' learning and professional histories

5.2. Formal personal learning experiences (qualifications)

As has been discussed in detail in previous chapters, teachers in PYPs and in this study have a wide variety of learning and professional backgrounds (including PD), with experiences in both their own country and in other countries. In the context of the PYPs in which this study took place, the findings suggest that the teachers' professional and learning experiences exerted an influence on their engagement in formal PD. Much research supports the idea that for PD to be meaningful, teachers' learning and professional experiences need to be acknowledged (Mezirow, 1981, 1997; Knowles, 1984; Timperley, 2008; Borg, 2009; Leat et al., 2013). This study focuses on PYP teachers who come together from many different countries with many different learning and teaching experiences (see Appendix 9, Tables 7-9, pp. 253-254). The findings suggest that it is this diversity that explains the teachers' differing professional visions and beliefs about teaching and learning and might also influence the teachers' views on what PD is and how it could be implemented, which in turn influences their views on the purpose of PD (Andrews and Lewis, 2007). The main finding related to the iterative dimension was that to define the teachers as "native" and "non-native" was insufficient for covering the myriad of different learning backgrounds, ethnicities, and professional experiences. Alternatives to the terms "native" and "non-native" proposed by various scholars (e.g. Rampton, 1990; Copeland, 2016; Medgyes, 2017; Halliday, 2017) also put the teachers into groups that miss the variety and complexity. This study has attempted to acknowledge this complexity throughout and unpick how this 21st century context can influence engagement in formal PD.

Considering the variety of learning and professional experiences, the remainder of the chapter will address how this mix may influence the current practical evaluative context when the teachers partake in formal professional development in the workplace. It also aims to demonstrate how findings arising from the research question "How do teachers' learning and professional backgrounds influence engagement in PD?" and those from the other two research questions: "How do teachers' interactions with each other influence engagement in PD?" "How does the PYP curriculum influence engagement in PD?" are all very much interlinked. That is, the findings for the question pertaining to learning and professional backgrounds may inform some of the findings related to the questions about the influence of interactions and curriculum on engagement in PD.

Section Two: Interplay between the iterative dimension of PYP teachers' learning and professional histories and the cultural practical evaluative dimension

5.3 Collaborative formal PD in groups of both national and international teachers: understanding the professional "other"

The data clearly suggests the participants' iterative learning experiences? greatly inform and affect their current views and feelings regarding formal PD. This section will discuss how the practical evaluative dimension is influenced by the iterative dimension. It will consider understandings of the "others'" personal formal learning and qualifications, as well as their views of professionalism, work hierarchy and rules. Finally, it will examine understandings of the "others'" views of work ethic. When developing professionally, teachers bring to in-house PD their learning and professional experiences that have developed and evolved and which continue to evolve in the form of associations, concepts, values, feelings, and conditioned responses (Mezirow, 1997). Mezirow adds that these frames of reference are the lenses through which teachers see PD in the workplace. The participants in the current study had many different learning and professional experiences which had helped shape and continued to shape their ideas, values, and beliefs. Therefore, the teachers' views on teaching and learning cannot be defined in terms of one or two cultures or educational systems alone. In their study, Fitchner and Chapman (2011) refer to an international identity that native English speaker (NES) teachers can develop; they also note that while much research has been conducted on non-native English speaker (NNES) teacher identity, there is very little research on NES teacher identity. Looking at international teacher identity, Fitchner and Chapman (2011) put forward the notion that international NES teachers affiliate themselves with multiple cultures, which can affect their classroom practice. However, no extant studies have highlighted the possibility of NNES teachers being exposed to multiple cultures or examined how international NNES teachers and their identities can be affected by working with different nationalities. In line with Archer's (2007) explanation of ethnic reflexivity, the participants in the current study, both national and international, who had studied or worked abroad were found to be 'critically reflexive of their own internal conversations' (Archer, 2007, p. 93) as they had developed a different awareness of culture through their diverse experiences of different cultures. It

was noted that the national teachers, who had not studied or worked abroad were less inclined to work with the "other".

It appeared that the national NNES teachers who had either studied or worked abroad their identity may have shaped somewhat by these learning and teaching experiences and were found to be interested in engaging in collaborative PD with the "other". The, national NNES teachers without international experiences are less interested engaging in collaborative PD in workplace with different nationalities. The international NES teachers appear to have acquired a unique set of beliefs from interacting with and interpreting their teaching in different countries and environments. The mixture of PYP teachers' demonstrate complex and varied identities.

Teachers' experiences and identities need to be acknowledged and supported for meaningful PD to take place. This study proposes that PD leaders at PYPs need to be aware of and better understand the teachers' different learning and professional backgrounds and give teachers the opportunity to become aware of their colleagues' similarities and differences in an environment where they can openly and reflexively negotiate meaning and their understandings of the students and the course. To explore this concern further, this section looks at understandings of the "others'" personal formal learning, qualifications, previous professional learning, views of professionalism, views of work hierarchy and rules, and views of work ethic.

5.3.1 Understanding "others'" personal formal learning (qualifications)

The data suggests that teachers would benefit from a reflexive understanding of the "others" qualifications as there were some indications of stereotyping the "other' by some. Perhaps reflexive reflection on the "others'" qualifications, personal formal learning, previous professional learning, views of professionalism, views of work hierarchy and rules, and views of work ethic.

The results of the study indicate that certain groups of teachers, comprising those with both national and international qualifications and a wide variety of learning and professional backgrounds, are not always understood or valued by their peers. The qualifications the teachers hold are a reflection of institutional requirements and PD

policies, which can be quite varied; a range of different qualifications is accepted at different institutions, and schools' minimum requirements can be more but not less than what the Council of Higher Education (Yükseköğretim Kurulu [YÖK]) requires.

It appears that the wide variety of qualifications can sometimes lead to inaccurate and sometimes negative assumptions, or even stereotypes, about colleagues' abilities and knowledge, which can influence attitudes towards collaborative formal PD in the workplace, as teachers may feel less willing to collaborate with peers who have qualifications they do not always understand. There was evidence to suggest that teachers may have misunderstood "others" learning and professional experiences. Those teachers with fewer qualifications may assume that others are as equally lacking or perhaps feel looked down upon. These feelings could possibly influence collaborative formal PD. However, in terms of how the participants viewed their colleagues' qualifications, this type of negativity was not universal in the findings; four teachers in the study were found to have respect for the "other," and this seems to be a result of experiencing learning outside of the culture they were brought up in, which appears, for some, to enhance their ability to reflect and be open to collaboration in PD. It could be suggested that given a suitable intervention teachers could learn about the other's qualifications.

There is a great deal of literature on the differences between NES and NNES teachers and the disparities in how they are treated, especially in terms of how NNES teachers are not valued by students and management as much as NES teachers are (e.g. Swan, Aboshiha, and Holliday, 2015; Kiczkowiak, Baines, and Krummenacher, 2016; Holliday, 2017) despite often having much more relevant qualifications, such as undergraduate qualifications in ELT, as indicated by the findings in this study. Many studies compare and contrast teachers' different skills and qualifications and what this can mean in the classroom (e.g. Medgyes, 1994, 2017). Additionally, there is research showing that in-house PD is not always well-received among PYP teachers in Turkey (Aydınlı and Ortaçtepe, 2018). However, there is no literature on how diverse groups in PYP approach collaborative formal PD as collections of national and international teachers, or on the influence this diversity of qualifications can have on the achievement of agency in PD. The data suggests that this diversity of qualifications and the lack of understanding of the "others" by some may link with other areas, such as interpretations

of the curriculum and assessment, interactions, and working together on collaborative PD.

5.3.2 Understanding the "others'" previous professional learning

The collaborative learning of teachers in a community is often put forward as facilitating effective PD and is supported by social learning theory (Wenger, 2010), adult learning theories (Mezirow, 1996, 1997), and PLCs (Wenger, 1998, 2010; Stoll et al., 2006). Thus far in the discussion of this study, it has been suggested that the members of the groups of PYP teachers have different learning and professional backgrounds, different qualifications, different learning and teaching experiences, and different cultural beliefs about hierarchy, rules, and work ethic. In addition, it has been suggested that these differences are not linear or equally divided between two different groups and there are many overlaps as teachers' very fluid beliefs, assumptions and knowledge (BAK) have been informed by and collected from their global educational experiences. It has also been suggested that a better understanding of the "other" and the understanding of the demonstration of certain autostereotypes (conceptions of self) and heterostereotypes (conceptions of others) could make the differences easier to manage. The findings indicate that differences in BAK may give rise to challenges when attempting to create an environment of openness to collaborative learning and achievement of agency in formal PD.

Teachers interacting in a work setting can create an environment for sharing challenges and successes (McLaughlin and Talbert, 2007). In the current study's environment of national and international teachers, the data suggest there was some sharing in that participants were willing to work with others with a similar work ethic regardless of their nationality. There did appear to be openness to collaboration between those who had international working and learning experiences. However, there were indications of misunderstanding the "other's" learning and professional backgrounds especially qualifications and language learning experiences.

The analysis of the results suggests that the past and present dimensions that can to some extent influence engagement in PD are the perceptions of other colleagues' formal personal learning; i.e. their qualifications. A cohesive understanding of the curriculum

and assessment, and cultural understandings of professionalism will be discussed further below. The participants in the study demonstrated an awareness that their colleagues had different learning and professional backgrounds, which might influence their own engagement in PD. The findings suggest that there were sometimes misunderstandings about the "others'" backgrounds, which can create barriers when working together. The "other" does not always understand colleagues' qualifications and respect them. This can influence PD, especially when being asked to collaborate with colleagues, as the participants might feel less able to be open.

The findings indicate that teachers' experiences of different professional cultural environments can exert an influence on their interactions as a group, particularly for collaborative PD. There has been much research comparing the similarities and differences between NES and NNES teachers (Holliday, 2017), but there is very little work on how they interact together within teaching groups. The results of the current study demonstrate that seven of the international teachers (both NES and NNES), with their complex professional identities, find that they prefer to collaborate, or feel that they collaborate better, with those who have shared similar experiences of living outside their own cultures. For international teachers who prefer to collaborate with other international teachers, this could be described as a disconnection from or limited connection with the host culture. A common feeling of disassociation can cause international teachers to develop a common bond (Redfield, 2012). However, although the idea of tribalism was considered in this study, it was rejected as too rigid as there were no distinctly separate groups; the groups demonstrated great fluidity and had many overlaps, as demonstrated by the many contradictions discussed in Chapter 2. This disconnection appears to have been more pronounced at University 2, where there also appears to have been the most limited agency in terms of curriculum, assessment, and PD. This would suggest that Biesta, Priestley & Robinson's (2015) concept of teacher agency in terms of what and how teachers teach and assess is vital to create an environment of reflection and change, as has been put forward for mono-cultural teaching environments.

The findings show that not all of the teachers always wanted to collaborate with someone of the same perceived culture; although it did appear that there was an overall preference for working with those with similar cultural references. One Canadian

participant mentioned his affinity with the British teachers, and the Eastern European participant spoke of sharing a cultural understanding with the national teachers. In this host country, where hierarchy and respect for older, more experienced people can be seen as the norm, as discussed in Chapter 4, section 4.2.4 pp. 121-128, these ideas can clash with international teachers' views on autonomy, which can influence harmonious collaboration for PD. Mixed-nationality parentage, i.e., teachers who had been brought up in Western countries by one parent from an old country (Turkey in this study), also adds to the complexity as there are a number of NES teachers who return to the country of their parent/s to teach. It was noted that the culture of the country in which the participants had been educated exerted a dominant effect on their perceptions of appropriate cultural norms in education. These differences in understanding professionalism and education, coupled with the differences in learning and professional backgrounds, can have an influence on collaborative PD for teachers in PYPs.

Having identified the complex mixture of teachers' backgroundsd in PYP departments, this study also found that this mix influences teachers' collaborative PD efforts; this finding is supported by social learning theories such as PLCs (Stoll et al., 2006). As discussed in Chapter 4, the results show that social interactions can sometimes be hampered by limited cooperation and the lack of a common learning and professional understandings among some members of a department in which teachers hold a wide variety of views on teaching approaches and PD. Despite a number of participants describing the divides among different groups (with some even referring to these differences as 'tribal'), upon deeper analysis, there appears to be too much blurring of lines, overlap, and fluidity among the groups for this to be the case. Perhaps, the concept of othering would better describe what appears with autostereotypes and heterostereotypes, which stem from people ignoring that others' cultures are different but not generalisable, especially when looking at a large number such as a whole country or race.

From the findings, it could be suggested that the dominant culture, that is, the majority nationality and/or the nationality of those in charge in the department, is seen as one factor that causes the divides, in that those who are not a part of the dominant culture do not feel so included. At Universities 2 and 3, participants discussed the differences

between NES and NNES teachers, without mentioning international NNESs and sometimes not mentioning the variety of NESs (for example American/Canadian/Australian). At University 1 (which had an international director), when nationalities were mentioned, the divisions were often described as being between teachers from the same country as the director and those who were not from that country. Often, those in the dominant culture did not see any issues with divisions, whereas those who were not members of the dominant culture did. One issue that arose was the use of the Turkish language in these departments, which was mentioned only by participants from University 1, where the director was an international NES and in which policies to promote the usage of English were stricter and more heavily enforced. The director, using his power in this position, created an environment where all teachers were compelled to speak English in the department and the classroom, a language policy to this effect was in the teachers handbook (Mooney, A., et al. (2011); Fairclough 2001) Context is of great importance in collaborative PD (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Butler, 2004), where language differences can present problems for comfortable communication, in this case, both for the international teachers who do not speak Turkish and the national teachers, who are discouraged from speaking their own language in their own country. Therefore, many participants might experience "othering" Dervin (2011), as the many differences that make them feel uncomfortable are more easily explained by stereotypes rather than looking at each colleague as an individual.

The results show that the national teachers who had not studied or worked abroad were often more comfortable collaborating with those who had the same or similar experiences. This appeared to affect communication, as did the desire to collaborate with colleagues with a common work ethic and a common understanding of the rules and education. Again, there were a variety of different contributions from participants discussing how this mixture of international and national teachers interacted and how this can influence teachers' engagement in PD. Tight (2015) and Menter (2011) both build on Becher's (1989) metaphor of "tribes and territories" in the university context (see Chapter 3). There were suggestions of distinct groups in their setting; however, in the findings of the current study, there are too many layers and overlaps to be able to describe these PYP communities as tribal. Perhaps the tribes could be described as those with common work ethics.

Collaborative PD can promote development when teachers co-construct and develop knowledge by reflecting, experimenting, and acquiring new teaching ideas reflexively from their colleagues (Leat et al., 2006; Meirink et al., 2009). While meetings (as opposed to arranged PD) to discuss classes could also facilitate this process, such gatherings tend to feature less of a focus on deep reflection and co-construction of knowledge. Critical reflection means challenging one's deep-rooted assumptions about teaching and learning (Achinstein, 2002), which can give rise to vulnerable feelings; if this is ignored, teachers can become defensive and resistant, especially to the possibility of adopting alternative teaching approaches (Brookefield, 1995; Timperley, 2008). The findings of this study suggests this, especially concerning the more experienced teachers. For deep reflection, teachers could be encouraged to collaborate with colleagues with different learning and professional backgrounds so that they have their beliefs challenged (Lima, 2001; Kelchtermans, 2006), which could stimulate the more experienced teachers to work towards a shared professional understanding of teaching and learning which would be more conducive to an effective PLC.

Stoll et al. (2006), from their review of the literature, believe that for a professional learning community to be successful, it is necessary to foster shared values and vision, collective responsibility, collaboration, group and individual learning, reflective professional inquiry, mutual trust, inclusive membership, and openness (looking beyond the group for learning). However, the complex professional identities of the groups of international teachers and how these teachers interact add to the challenges in communication and appear to inhibit the achievement of agency for PD. These could be described as challenges to collaboration for everyone in the department, which means that both national and international teachers may also feel less comfortable about taking professional risks. In the PYPs of this study, one hurdle to the achievement of agency derived from the divisions among the teachers when they worked together, which inhibited openness and cooperation. These challenges to collaborating in PD may stem from a lack of understanding of the "other" or of the "other's" qualifications and ideas on professionalism, which can include understandings of rules, hierarchy, and work ethic.

5.3.3 Understanding the "others'" views of professionalism

Although qualifications were often mentioned by the participants and the data demonstrates misunderstandings of the "other", this was not the only area in which such occurrences happened. It appears that the cultural dimension in the context of these PYPs is influenced by a mixture of highly complex perceptions of professional behaviour for teachers and students, which exist in addition to the diversity of qualifications and the multitude of experiences that the international teachers bring to the groups' dynamics. The results of this study suggest that the teachers who had been brought up and educated in different countries sometimes had differing perceptions of what forms professionalism in the workplace should take, which could relate to views on work ethic, hierarchy and rules. There was not always a common understanding among the teachers of interpretation of rules, an example give interpretations of flexibility on late homework, despite all three universities having teacher handbooks with such rules laid out. Such a common understanding can facilitate the support of agency in PD (Biesta et al., 2015) allowing teachers to collaborate well together. For some, these cultural differences, in addition to qualifications, as discussed above, can add to the challenges of collaborating in PD. However, the differences of interpretations of the rules were not simply along the lines of nationality or ethnicity, there were those who had had different experiences had reflexively influenced their understanding an example being the Eastern European participant who had worked in Turkey for over 20 years and felt this influenced his behaviour more than his university career in America.

5.3.4 Understanding the "others'" views of professional rules

Every culture has rules that guide the structures within a given society. Different cultures have different rules, although many countries' business cultures exhibit overlaps as well as differences (Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov, 2010). In this study, the findings intimate that perceptions of cultural norms in the workplace can influence collaboration and engagement in PD, especially when these different views relate to the appropriate hierarchy and rules for the workplace. This not only includes teachers' expectations of rules but also the effects of the institution and student expectations. A lack of understanding of the "other's" rules can mean, which could mean in turn lead to dissonance in group work.

To exemplify the differences in understandings of rules in the workplace, one of the participants mentioned the interpretation of rules related to student tardiness, where there seem to be different levels of flexibility towards the students, depending on where the teacher comes from and his or her cultural background. The lack of a common interpretation of such rules, whether they are implicit or explicit, can influence collaboration in PD, as Stoll et al. (2006) discuss when looking at suitable criteria for a professional learning community (PLC). Some participants mentioned that it was easier to collaborate on PD with those who were likeminded.

The rules governing how to deal with students were not the only difference that arose; hierarchical expectations in the workplace and how those in more senior positions should be respected and treated were also discussed. It was noted by some of the international teachers that the hierarchy within the department was different from what they had been used to, which appeared to inhibit agency in PD for some of them. This was mentioned mainly at University 2, where more international teachers participated in the study; these teachers were in a work environment made up predominantly of national teachers and management. However, both national and international teachers at University 1, where the director was international, also talked of the effects of different perspectives of hierarchy. Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov (2010) discuss different acceptable workplace hierarchies and rules and note differences between old and new countries and developing and developed countries (discussed further in Chapter 2).

5.3.5 Understanding the "others'" views of work ethic

The data suggest that having a common work ethic was important to the participants when collaborating in PD, as discussed in Chapter 4, section 4.3.2 pp 135-144. At University 1, where there was a 50/50 mix of national and international teachers, a strong work ethic was related to the individual rather than to a nationality or culture. However, at University 3, where there was a small percentage of international participants and teachers, it was noted by two national participants that the national teachers were reluctant to do extra work. It was also noted by one participant that a strong work culture was necessary for successful PD. Having a strong work ethic could be defined as possessing integrity, determination, and a sense of fairness, as well as

being courageous, honest, humble, tolerant, focused, and responsible (Milton-Smith, 1997; Atilla, 1999; Suar, 2004). Others have described work ethics as moral principles, which include one's moral duties (Yankelovich and Immerwahr, 1984; Herrera et al., 2007). Perhaps, for this study's participants, having a similar work ethic also meant sharing an understanding of what "professional" and "professionalism" means in the context of the workplace. Van Nuland (2009) argues that ethical codes can originate from professional ethics, which are the beliefs that teachers accept about relationships with students, colleagues, and management. In general, a person's work ethics are a reflection of his or her values in life, which depend on environment, experience, and life-long learning (Turk and Vignjević, 2016).

Work ethics can be achieved in a number of ways, one of which is engaging in PD (Gunnel, 2015). If, as Turk and Vignjević (2016) note, the interpretation and understanding of work ethics differ between countries, this will no doubt also be the case among teachers in PYPs who have different nationalities and backgrounds. As has been discussed previously, the meanings of "professional" in English and "profesyonel" in Turkish are different; the former relates to working hard and ethically, while the latter refers to the separation of one's work and personal life, in addition to the length of one's career and level of qualifications. In this study, many participants of different nationalities preferred to collaborate in PD with people who exhibited a similar work ethic, with many suggesting it was not related to nationality. Turk and Vignjević (2016) stress the need for more research in relation to teachers' work ethics and their effect on teaching and student learning, as well as on the influence of work ethics on teachers' engagement in PD. In the current study, a lack of a shared understanding of work ethics appears to have hindered PD among teachers who felt that their colleagues had different conceptions from theirs.

The international teachers (both NES and NNES) and some of the national teachers had learning and professional experiences that derived not just from their own countries, as mentioned by the participants in the study. Having identified the different cultural expectations of norms in the workplace, further consideration is required of what this means for PYP teachers who are not a homogeneous group sharing a single culture. The participants of this study cannot be simply divided into NES and NNES teachers as the NESs who come from both old and new countries may have picked up or

collected other cultural norms from working abroad; additionally, an NES/NNES distinction does not take account of the international NNESs who come from developing or developed, old or new countries. In addition, it was mentioned that national teachers and host country students share a deep, common understanding of the host country's hierarchy and rules which the international NES and NNES teachers may not share. This adds to the complexity of the already diverse group.

The groups comprised a variety of qualifications, previous professional learning, and perceptions of professionalism, hierarchy, rules, and appropriate work ethics. While all of these views are rooted in the teachers' iterative past, they continue to evolve fluidly because the teachers have had and continue to have so many different learning and teaching influences. Individually and combined, these themes can have an influence on engagement and the achievement of agency in PD as they can affect the environment in which teachers collaborate in formal PD.

Section Three: Interplay between the iterative dimension of PYP teachers' learning and professional histories with the material practical evaluative dimension

5.4 Collaborative formal PD in groups of both national and international teachers: Influence of the commoditised PYP English language curriculum

The PYP environment is overshadowed by the high-stakes exit exam. This requires the teachers to work together to reach the common objectives of the curriculum and the department. Relating to the discussion of Section 2, possible differences in professional vision lead to teachers often having differing views on pedagogy, which may be reflected in their ideas of what good PD should entail and what will engage them. The results suggest that there are two practical evaluative dimensions that can influence engagement in PD: 1) cohesiveness of understanding the curriculum and assessment in PYPs, and 2) time constraints in implementing courses. The cohesiveness of understanding the curriculum and assessment is linked to the variety of learning and professional backgrounds held by the teachers, as well as their lack of understanding of the "other". Time constraints are possibly a result of the commoditisation of HE and English language learning, which results in limits imposed by institutions. These

institutions are already restricted by YÖK, while also facing competition with other universities and student expectations of learning a language within a year (Aydınlı and Ortaçtepe, 2018).

5.4.1 Commoditisation of the English language curriculum: Agency over the curriculum

The first material dimension found to influence engagement in PD is the amount of time that is allowed for implementing courses. The data suggest that the lack of flexibility in the curriculum and assessment could inhibit attempts to reflect on current PD and the creation of new activities as pressure to complete the curriculum contents are too high. It was suggested by the participants that in PYPs, teachers are pressed to ensure that students have completed the course and can pass the high-stakes proficiency exam within a maximum of one academic year, which, in reality, amounts to approximately two 15-week semesters and, possibly, an additional five-to-six-week summer semester. This arrangement goes against the recommendations of the Common European Framework of References for Languages regarding the number of study hours required to learn a language; and many PYP teachers also observed that the allocated time was far too little (Aydınlı and Ortaçtepe, 2018).

As discussed in Chapter 4, the large quantity of material to be covered in courses can leave teachers with less flexibility and less time to be creative and experiment. Thus, a top-down approach employed by teachers in the classroom might be perceived as time-effective (Aydınlı and Ortaçtepe, 2018). Constraints regarding the material to be covered appeared to inhibit teachers' agency and their motivation and room to be creative and engage in PD. Hargreaves et al. (2009) and Priestley et al. (2012) discuss teachers' relationships with the course and materials (see 3.16) and how this can enhance a shared vision (Sahlberg, 2011) and a safe environment for collaborative PD (Nieveen, 2011; Priestley, 2011). Liyanage et al. (2015), studying English language teachers in China, observe the need for agency in curriculum and assessment specifically to permit collaboration and reflexive learning from each other, both formally and informally. Linking back to Chapter 4, it could be suggested that collaborative formal PD can address this need.

In addition to time, the findings indicate that for some participants, the amount of input and agency the teachers had regarding the curriculum was related to how interested and engaged they were with PD, which is in line with much of the current literature (Ball, 2008; Biesta, 2010; Biesta et al., 2015). However, in this study, agency in the curriculum was not found to enhance the more experienced teachers' engagement in PD; on the contrary, some felt that because they were satisfied with the curriculum, there was no reason to develop themselves, which contradicts the findings of previous studies (e.g. Ball, 2008; Biesta, 2010; Biesta et al., 2015), who stress the importance of agency in engagement.

Additionally, different participants noticed different gaps in the curriculum that needed to be addressed; some were looking for a more controlled curriculum to ensure the students received a consistent product, whereas others felt there should be more agency given to the teachers. The latter opinion was generally held by the more experienced teachers, as discussed in Chapter 4.

At University 2, there appeared to be limited teacher agency over the curriculum. There were indications that the tightly controlled curriculum at University 2 could possibly have inhibited creativity in collaborative PD. If teachers had greater involvement in the curriculum and were encouraged to engage in reflection on such matters, this could perhaps open up greater potential for achievement of agency in PD (Biesta et al., 2015). At University 1, gaps in the curriculum that needed to be addressed were a reason for engaging in PD, and teachers also saw a difference between the teachers' knowledge and what the curriculum should achieve.

5.4.2 Understanding the "others'" views of the English language curriculum and assessment

Within this context of the international and national teachers working together in this study, the findings suggest that a cohesive vision of the curriculum and assessment does not always exist in PYPs. That is, the variety of learning and professional histories resulted in such a variety of teachers' BAK and interpretations of the curriculum and

assessment that this appeared to represent a possible inhibitor of collaborative formal PD.

The first material practical evaluative dimension to be discussed is the material element of the curriculum. The results suggest that the teachers were using different teaching approaches to implement the curriculum, and there were conflicting opinions as to who was using which approach. Beliefs were expressed that some teachers preferred a grammar-based approach and others a skills-based approach to present the language to the students. However, there were many assumptions expressed by the international teachers that the national teachers were using a less autonomous, top-down approach; while the national teachers made assumptions that the international teachers were not educated enough in the field to teach the curriculum. In addition, it could be said that the implicit curriculum, which can involve school culture and the behaviours, attitudes, and expectations discussed by Campbell (2003), Kelly (2009), and Jackson (1986), is different for each individual teacher due to their different cultural backgrounds, as discussed in Chapter 2.

At all three universities, the findings suggest a general consensus among all participants that the curriculum was too strongly exam-focused, i.e., the main goal was for the students to achieve a suitable grade on a high-stakes proficiency exam. Evidence of this is presented in Chapter 4. It seems that such a tightly prescribed final, summative assessment greatly affects teachers' choice of pedagogy and their willingness to take risks and make changes in the classroom, however minor these changes or risks may be. Livingston and Hutchinson (2017) and Livingston (2015) refer to the limiting effect that assessment can have on teachers' pedagogical choices. They also discuss the need for openness and transparency in testing so that teachers can understand how to support formative assessment in the classroom. However small or large informal class tests may be, classroom assessment can involve teachers teaching to the test (Livingston, 2015; Livingston and Hutchinson, 2017). Simply focusing on assessment knowledge and skills-based PD will not facilitate building the teachers' views of the bigger picture regarding the inter-dependence of assessment and other key aspects of learning and teaching; moreover, such a focus may not contribute to a shared understanding among all members of staff (teachers and school leaders) (Livingston and Hutchinson, 2017).

As was the case with their views of the curriculum, there is also evidence to suggest that the participants felt that there were differences in beliefs arising from teachers' different teaching and learning approaches and beliefs about assessment. In addition, the results suggest that the teachers believed that the students were tested too often, with weekly assessments of all four skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) plus grammar and vocabulary. It is not only the form and amount of assessment that caused tensions within the teaching groups, but also the marking of subjective open-ended questions that are open to interpretation. There is much research on assessment in PYPs in Turkey (e.g. Aydınlı and Ortaçtepe, 2018). This perceived overload of assessment adds to the atmosphere of a stress-driven course, where teachers feel far from able to take risks to reflect and learn, and try out new activities, techniques or approaches. The high-stakes exam appears to constrain creativity and experimentation in teaching, which could in turn exert a negative influence on engagement in PD, unless the PD in question is highly practically oriented. Perhaps, teachers would feel more able to take risks and make changes in this environment if the curriculum and assessment were less rigid and they were given more agency. This will be discussed further in Chapter 6.

5.4.3 Commoditisation of English language learning and students' motivations

The 21st century commoditisation of education, especially HE, has seen students transformed into customers. The acquisition of the English language is a means to an end for students, who merely wish to obtain a certificate and enter their departments. English has become a tool for study. In addition to the pressures exerted by the institution pushing students to complete the course and successfully pass the summative high-stakes assessment, the students also have their own expectations and learning histories. As the findings of the study show (and as the literature supports (Alptekin, 2007; Alptekin and Tatar, 2011; Aydınlı and Ortaçtepe, 2018)), students come to university with learning strategies they have acquired in order to pass the university entrance exam. This exam is presented in a multiple-choice format and tests receptive rather than productive skills. The content required to pass the exam is learned through memorisation (Aydınlı and Ortaçtepe, 2018). In the data, it was suggested that the national staff, who had been through the system themselves, tended to have a greater understanding of the students' needs, whereas the international staff may demonstrate

less empathy due to a lack of understanding of the students' needs stemming from the fact that they had not experienced the education system themselves. Perhaps, the Cambridge suite of teacher training qualifications (CELTA, DELTA, ICELT) could involve more preparation for teachers working with students who, according to the data, appear to want to be taught via a top-down exam preparation approach that is comfortable and familiar for them, but does not adhere to the communicative method advocated by Cambridge for multi-lingual classrooms.

In addition, although there are both summative and formative assessments in PYPs, according to the teachers' perceptions, the former is what students place most value upon, given that they believe this is their "ticket" to their real goal, i.e. to study in their departments. The backwash of the final, high-stakes proficiency exam combined with the students' learning strategies makes for a very constricted environment when it comes to developing as a teacher.

Section Four: Interplay of iterative dimension of PYP teachers' learning and professional histories with the cultural practical evaluative dimension and the projective dimension

5.5 Longevity in the profession

The final area of the results to be discussed in this section relates to the influence of teachers' longevity and experience in the profession, and how these can influence engagement in PD. These findings can shed light on the interrelationship between the past, present, and future that experienced teachers feel influences their engagement in PD.

The results of this study suggest that, over time, as they gain experience, many English language teachers become less interested and engaged in PD; this was alluded to by both novice and experienced teachers in the study. As Tsui (2005) states, teachers evolve as they gain experience. This is borne out by much of the literature, where many studies have identified the differences between novice and experienced teachers and their differing knowledge, skills, and beliefs (Rodríguez and McKay, 2010), emphasising that experience adds to teachers' complexity and needs (Richards and

Farrell, 2005; Gatbonton, 2008). Rodríguez and McKay (2010) note that many experienced teachers are unresponsive to PD despite the fact that they need the opportunity to update and reflect on their practice and beliefs. Tsui (2003) concurs with this belief and refers to the many "experienced non-experts" (p. 3) in the ELT profession. Additionally, as Farrell and Lim (2005) find, there can be differences between what teachers profess to do and the reality of what they actually do in the classroom; based on their lesson observations, the researchers found that the teachers often took a more traditional, teacher-centred role in the classroom; yet, when they were interviewed, the teachers talked of using a more student-centred, bottom-up approach.

In addition it was suggested by both the experienced and less experienced participants that those with longevity in the profession were less motivated to engage in PD. This could be because PYP departments are limited for those with aspirations. Teachers in PYP departments have goals of facilitating each years batch of students through the high stakes exam, but apart being the Director or being on the assessment, PD or curriculum committees there were no places to go for potential career growth.

5.5.1 PD to suit PYPs

The participants in the study, more than half with over 10 years experience 4 with over 20 years experience were open to PD, but PD that suited this context. As has been mentioned teachers respond to and engage in different PD at different times in their career (see Bolam 1990; Desimone, Smith, & Ueno, 2006; Mesler & Spillane, 2009; Mok & Kwon, 1999; Richter et al 2011 Bolam & McMahon 2004 Jones and Dexter 2014). At University 3, a mentoring programme was in place which involved less experienced and experienced teachers conducting peer observations of one another, discussed further in Chapter 6. This initiative was viewed as very successful by the experienced teachers because it gave them a role that acknowledged their previous experience and learning (Richards and Farrell, 2005). This kind of programme can be important for adult learners (Mezirow, 1997) because it affords experienced teachers and novice teachers opportunities to reflexively reflect on their practice (Livingston, 2016). These experienced teachers are not working in a mono-cultural environment; they are working with teachers about whom they often make assumptions, due to the fact that they do not have similar experiences. This was found to be the case for both

national and international teachers. It was especially noticed that the more experienced teachers who were often resistant to PD found this mentoring programme engaging. In addition, at University 1, two participants mentioned favourably engaging in teacher generated collaborative action research projects. Again giving the teachers opportunities to autonomously work on learning areas of interest and also improve learning outcomes for students. All participants were open to PD but felt that they would prefer PD that supported the time bound curricula and high stakes assessment. Perhaps organising PD around these areas, although not the most transformative PD, would encourage teachers to create trust and participate and be open to further PD.

5.6 Conclusions

The current study is set in the modern, post-traditional, intercultural, and globally aware world of education, a setting where agency can be seen as both a necessity and a greater challenge than in the past, when teachers tended to work in more mono-cultural environments. In todays' neo-liberal university environment, where lingua franca language teachers hail from many different nations, teachers have become a commodity to be used to guide students to successfully passing high-stakes exams so that the students are able to do what they really want at university (i.e. begin their degree programmes). The evidence of this study shows that it is challenging for teachers to achieve agency in PD in this environment, where the interplay between the past, present, and future is deep, complex, and tangled.

This study set out to develop a better understanding of what factors influence national and international teachers' engagement in PD. To achieve this aim, the following research question was posed: What factors influence international and national teachers' engagement in PD?. This was broken down into the sub-questions: How do teachers' learning and professional backgrounds influence engagement in PD?, How do teachers' interactions with each other influence engagement in PD?, and How does the PYP curriculum influence engagement in PD?

This chapter has discussed the findings in relation to recent literature in the field. The chapter was set out in five sections based on Biesta et al.'s (2015) analytical framework

of agency. Section 1 dealt with the past and present in terms of the interplay between the iterative dimension and the practical evaluative cultural influences. Section 2 focused on the past and present and how the iterative dimension interplays with practical evaluative material influences. Section 3 looked at the present and future in terms of how the practical evaluative material dimension interplays with projective influences. Lastly, Section 4 examined the past, present, and future and how the iterative interplays with the practical evaluative and the projective dimensions.

As Biesta et al. (2015, p. 85) state, "Teachers' relationships—with other professionals as well as with people in the wider communities in which they work—have the potential to impact significantly on their professional agency." Therefore, the relationships formed by teachers and the interactions among members of these groups of teachers with differing learning and professional backgrounds may indicate different expectations and beliefs, which can affect the interactions themselves. Possible differences and commonalities have been explored to understand what may influence active, agentic PD.

An international PYP can comprise a very diverse group of staff, with diverse learning and professional backgrounds, which bring with them a very diverse set of complex factors that influence engagement in PD. This study attempts to provide some insight into this complexity and tease out some possible issues that need to be reflected upon prior to creating a PD programme. As Livingston and Hutchinson note, "Teachers are more likely to engage meaningfully in professional learning where they feel the issues presented are real for them and the learning is focused on exploring possible solutions they can put into place in their classrooms" (2017, p. 300).

It was found that in this environment, there was a very complex mixture of identities and learning and professional backgrounds, especially among the international teachers, who had collected experience by working and studying in many countries. It can therefore be very challenging for the PD provider to identify meaningful solutions when there are non-linear differences in cultural values and in understandings of the past education of peers, professionalism, hierarchy and rules, and work ethics, which can also lead to different interpretations of curriculum and assessment. This lack of a common understanding regarding many crucial areas can constitute a hindrance to a

productive PLC and/or community of practice (CoP). It was evident that this was especially the case for teachers with more experience. However, managed carefully, this environment could also foster a rich, intercultural inter-experiential relationship with PD.

One of the participants identified the positive potential of this complex mix of teachers when he stated:

> *...it might be considered to be invaluable given that a number of native and non-native speaker instructors have been educated in a wide variety of backgrounds, have an amazingly varied wealth of information and knowledge in various aspects of the profession, and are all sitting and looking at each other as if we were all from the same school and have been practising the same methodology. There are some amazing strengths and areas of expertise among such a group of people, and unless they can be properly exploited, they are useless in the professional development sense. (1UNI1C)*

This study's findings suggest that such a rich diversity of teachers from different backgrounds could potentially yield a richness of experience for sharing, but this needs to take place in situations where teachers' collective agency is possible. To make this possible so that teachers can collaborate in formal PD with a focus, teachers need to be given opportunities for reflecting deeply on their assumptions about others' qualifications and others' different understandings of rules, hierarchy, and work ethic. Teachers should be given opportunities to collaborate on learning projects to raise mutual awareness and respect for the strengths of the other. Through this process and through collaborative reflection, they will be able to obtain a deeper understanding of what colleagues from other backgrounds are capable of in the teaching context. These projects should involve teachers struggling and negotiating meaning together in order to ensure deeper collaborative, transformative reflection to differentiate them from traditional PD sessions, which tend to be received rather than produced (Borg, 2015). However, for this struggle to motivate teachers rather than deter them, an environment of trust, support, and reward needs to be fostered so that the teachers remain focused. There should be inter-directional conversations about the "others'" different BAK and their learning and professional histories to find out about their differences. There should also be a professional culture created at the institution that is closer to the nature of "ask,

do not assume". Then, and only then, can departments attempt to implement what current research recommends, that is, collaborative research projects to successfully engage teachers (Borg, 2015; Edwards and Burns, 2016). However, as teachers often lack research skills, challenges can arise, and they need structure and support (Wyatt and Dikilitaş, 2016). This could be offered through teacher research mentoring (e.g. Yuan and Lee, 2015; Edwards and Burns, 2016) with support from in-house teacher trainers or teachers who have previously engaged in research, such as those who have completed MA theses. Another way of reducing this lack of understanding of the differences in qualifications could involve the "Translators" approach (Livingston, 2015), whereby those who have experienced more than one educational background (such as national teachers who have studied abroad) could work together on a teaching team to facilitate communication and understanding. The roles that teachers take in such initiatives could be similar to those that arise in Lave and Wenger's (1991) CoP; however, because of the different nationalities, the groups that collaborate need to contain the "other" so that the process can enhance deeper reflection and reflexivity regarding the self and the others' skills, experience, and qualifications.

Chapter 6: Findings and Conclusions

6.1 Introduction

This study set out to explore the factors that engage teachers in PD in PYP departments in Turkey. This involved addressing the overarching research question: what factors influence international and national teachers' engagement in PD, and the research sub-questions: how do teachers' learning and professional backgrounds influence engagement in PD?, how do teachers' interactions with each other influence engagement in PD?, and how does the PYP curriculum influence engagement in PD?

This concluding chapter provides a summary of the key findings from the analysis presented in this thesis and discusses knowledge and policy implications in relation to PD in groups of international and national teachers in Turkey. Additionally, the chapter highlights the study's theoretical and methodological limitations and recommends areas for possible future research.

6.2 Key Findings

This qualitative study was initially based on the theoretical frameworks of adult learning (Mezirow, 1997) and the social learning theories of Stoll et al. (2006) and Lave and Wenger (1991). Following the first sweep of the data, this study's analytical framework was chosen to assist in better understanding the emerging themes. Biesta, Priestley & Robinson's (2015) agency model, which was based on Emirbayer and Mische's model of agency provided the analytical frame. Biesta, Priestley & Robinson's (2015) agency model includes the past iterative learning and professional experiences that can interact with the present practical evaluative and the future projective (see below), all of which are interrelated and interdependent with respect to the achievement of agency to engage in PD. The use of the agency model as an analytical framework in the analysis of engagement in formal PD in PYPs has not been done before and therefore brings a new perspective to this discussion.

This study takes an interpretivist worldview with a qualitative design, including semi-structured interviews with online pre- and post-reflection tasks (see Chapter 3). This approach enabled the researcher to draw from a body of rich and in-depth data. When addressing the research questions, it was observed that the key findings, particularly when related to the model of agency, interplay and overlap with each other. For instance, the teachers' iterative experiences influence many aspects of their teaching lives, their interactions with others, their interpretations of the curriculum, and their engagement in PD, especially in a setting such as the one in this study, which included so many different learning and professional backgrounds.

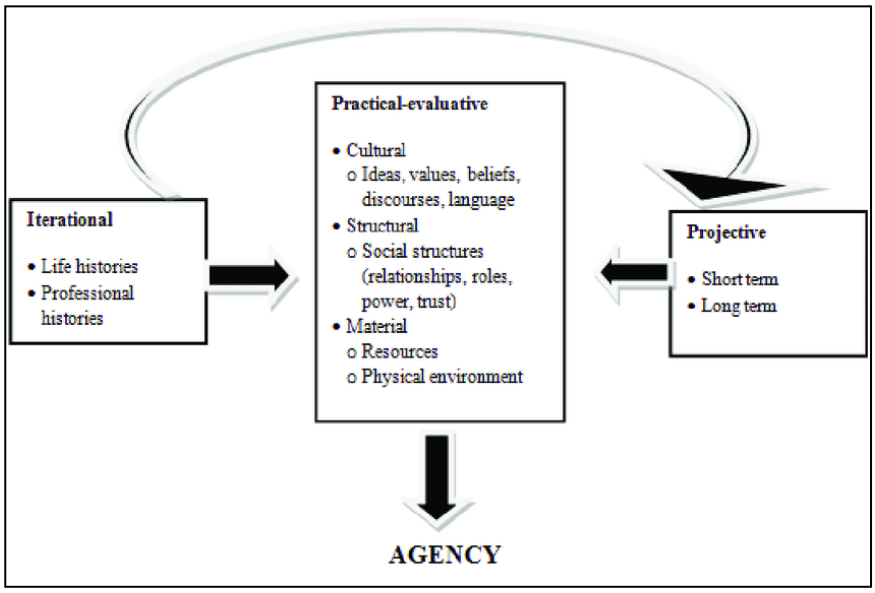

Figure 5. Framework of agency (Biesta, Priestley, and Robinson, 2015

6.2.1 Overarching research question: What factors influence national and international teachers' engagement in PD?

Table 10. Factors that can influence engagement in PD in PYPs

Iterative PAST	Practical Evaluative PRESENT	Projective FUTURE
-> Longevity of career ->		
Professional Histories • Multiple formal personal PD experiences (Qualifications)	**Cultural** • Value: *Formal Personal PD (Qualifications)* • Lack of Value: *Formal Professional PD* • Beliefs: *Variety of BAK*	**Short-term** **Long-term** • Near end of career • No financial benefits
	Structure	

• Multiple formal professional PD experiences	• Relationships: *Understanding "Others'" learning Understanding "Others'" professional norms*	
	Material • Resources: *Curriculum & Assessment* • Environment*: Commoditisation of English Language Education*	

PYPs include complex combinations of teachers from different nationalities, as is reflected in the biographies of the participants and the findings. As a result, many of the factors that influence engagement in PD in this multi-national context are intertwined with others. Using Biesta et al.'s (2015) achievement of agency model, Table 5 above lays out the main influences to engagement in PD that emerged in this study. The iterative dimension of the multitude of formal personal and professional PD resulting from the variety of teachers (see Appendix 9, Tables 7-9, pp. 253-254), and their different qualifications and experiences of PD were factors that influenced the groups' engagement in formal PD. In the present, practical evaluative dimension there were indications that much value was put on the cultural aspect of formal personal PD (qualifications), with little value place on formal PD. Another theme that emerged in the present was a structural aspect. This concerned the influence of the lack of understanding of "others"' learning, their formal personal and professional learning, and their professional norms. This lack of a deep understanding, and its substitution with stereotypes, could influence collaborative professional PD. Additionally, as a result of the commoditisation of ELT, the power of the student voice (and sometimes their parents' voices, too) might influence engagement in PD, as what students (and parents) perceive to be good learning may end up being the chosen teaching approach rather than the approaches that teachers and the curriculum advocate.

In terms of the present material resources aspect of the model, the themes that were found to possibly influence engagement were the limited flexibility of assessment and the amount of time allocated to execute the curriculum. These outcomes could perhaps be a result of the current neo-liberal HE environment and the commoditisation of education, which brings with it greater accountability as well as more competition with other institutions.

The final main theme that emerged as an influence on engagement in formal PD related to longevity of career. This factor was mentioned by teachers with different lengths of experience in the profession, and demonstrated an interplay of present, past, and future.

6.2.2 The first sub-research question: How do national and international teachers' learning and professional backgrounds influence engagement in PD?

The initial finding, as mentioned in Chapter 5, relates to the challenges of defining English language lingua franca teachers, as teachers have such a variety of backgrounds (see Appendix 9, Tables 7-9, pp. 253-254), as has been noted by many scholars, most recently Copeland (2016). In the current study involving 20 teachers, there were evident differences in the participants' learning backgrounds, with only three teachers having the same combination of qualifications. PYP teachers have a wide variety of qualifications and learning and professional backgrounds, and it appears that these may inform their BAK and influence their views on and their engagement in formal professional PD as well as their interactions with other teachers and the curriculum (see Chapter 4).

Another significant theme emerging from the study that appeared to influence the teachers in their engagement with formal PD was their longevity in the profession (see Chapter 4) that is the culmination of their professional and learning experiences over time. This was found across the nationalities. There is evidence to suggest that as the teachers became more experienced (no exact time limits were given), they increasingly felt that formal PD was less necessary and of less benefit. This attitude could stem from a desire not to diverge from the high-stakes assessment and/or curriculum (see Chapter 6). Moreover, interest in PD might decline with experience because teachers at the end of their careers feel that they are not remunerated for the perceived efforts required to reflect and adapt. It was also found that longevity in the profession may also affect interactions as the less positive attitudes to PD manifested by more experienced staff could affect their colleagues (see Chapter 6).

It has been noted by many (e.g. Biesta, Priestley & Robinson 2015) that learning and professional backgrounds may affect agency when interplaying with the present and

future and this may influence engagement in PD. Much has been said about NNES (who make up the majority of English lingua franca teachers) and NES and their differences (Copeland et al., 2016). However, this study contributes knowledge by addressing the lack of research on how the backgrounds and interactions of groups of national and international teachers working together can affect interest in PD (see Chapter 6). Furthermore, this knowledge regarding the variety of learning and professional experiences in PYPs and how it can affect different aspects of the context and interrupt effective interplay between the past, future, and present makes a contribution to the debate about agency in PD, especially in an international context in which teachers from different cultures work together, as is becoming the norm in this globalised world. More will be explained below regarding how this variety of learning and professional experiences can influence the present interactions and interpretations of curriculum and assessment, which can also interrupt engagement in formal PD.

6.2.3 The second sub-research question: How do national and international teachers' interactions influence engagement in PD?

As noted previously, the wide variety of teachers' learning and professional backgrounds was found to influence engagement in PD when teachers collaborate in groups. The themes that emerged in relation to this research question (discussed fully in Chapter 4) were collaboration, the influence of culture, social structures, and the perception of the "others'" learning and professional histories and their professional norms. This theme was broken down into several sub-themes which influence engagement in PD: perceptions of a common work ethic, professional understandings, and common interpretation of the curriculum. The latter is also discussed in Chapter 6 (6.2.4). Again, the teachers' expectations of norms in the workplace appear to be a result of their learning and professional experiences; that is, their interactions are informed by their histories and resulting beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge. For the international teachers of this study and four of the national teachers, the evidence suggests that such interactions can be especially rich, with many having worked and learned in different countries and in different environments. Past experiences appeared to inform understandings of work culture and ethics and how teachers interact with their peers. The evidence suggests that these experiences influence the PYP teachers' interactions when collaborating and with whom they feel comfortable collaborating.

The data suggest that the teachers' lack of understanding regarding their peers' qualifications (the "other") and their perceived value, as well as their lack of understanding of the "others'" professional histories and their professional norms, could represent obstacles to collaborative formal PD. However, this factor might also facilitate rich reflection and learning with cross-nationality peer mentoring. The mentoring programme at University 3 was indeed viewed by some participants as a successful way to share teaching knowledge, especially as it breaks down barriers between new and more experienced teachers. Additionally, the interplay of the teachers' iterative experiences with the curriculum and agentic PD action, as described in Chapter 4, and the interplay of the teachers' iterative experiences with assessment and agentic PD action influenced interest in PD. Teachers with different backgrounds have different perceptions of how to interpret curriculum and assessment. This means there is a possible lack of a common understanding, which is an important factor in collaborative PD in PLCs (Stoll et al., 2006).

There is evidence to indicate that the international teachers felt like outsiders but, again, like much of the evidence in this study, this is not the case for all of the participants. There was evidence of othering and the creating of stereotypes, as well as indications of a reluctance to engage in PD with the "other" among some teachers, while other teachers (both national and international) preferred to collaborate on formal PD with the "others". However, overall it could be suggested that international teachers do indeed affect the dynamic of these PYP groups (see Chapter 4), and that the outsiders' reflexive experiences add to the complexity.

In addition, as mentioned in Chapter 6 in the discussion of longevity in the profession, teachers who had worked in the same environment for a long time and had experienced a great deal of PD and reflecting on their work and practice appeared to be comfortable with the level of competence they had reached in their profession and no longer felt PD was necessary. Some mentioned not wanting to waste time on information and practices they had seen before; others mentioned that they felt the quality of the PD, although well-meant, was lacking. It was noted by the majority of participants that, over time, there was a lessening of engagement in PD, regardless of culture, and this could influence less-experienced peers' views of formal PD.

This finding adds to the knowledge regarding groups of international and national teachers' PD, highlighting the need to create an environment in which there are opportunities for a greater understanding of the "others'" learning and professional backgrounds and professional norms. While research has demonstrated that work culture and work ethic are factors that can affect agency and engagement in PD (Biesta, 2015), there are no studies on engagement in PD set in PYP contexts such as this study's, which includes differing opinions borne of such different experiences. However, some themes transcend nationality. For instance, longevity in a workplace can lead to a reluctance to reflect and change, as can the narrowed focus of PYPs on assessment borne of the commoditised curriculum. However, it was evident throughout this study that enthusiasm for PD had by no means been entirely extinguished for any of the participants.

6.2.4 The third sub-research question: How does the curriculum influence national and international teachers' engagement in PD?

In the current environment of commoditised HE, where the lingua franca is English, "one-size-fits-all" course books, curriculum, and assessment are the norm (Peter Ives (2019). As has been discussed in Chapter 4, there is evidence to indicate that the variety of teachers' iterative interplays with the current practical evaluative material, which includes curriculum and assessment. This interaction can affect teacher agency and engagement in formal PD, as addressed in Chapter 4 in the discussion of flexibility of curriculum and assessment. As mentioned in Chapter 5, the data suggests that the limited flexibility of the curriculum and assessment were factors that could influence engagement in PD. Teachers might feel limited in their capacity to reflect and make changes to their teaching practices, however small, due to the pressures from their institutions and customers (students) to ensure that the curriculum is interpreted so that the exam is passed in as short a time as possible and students can progress to their chosen departments. Although many have discussed how curriculum can limit engagement in PD (e.g. Biesta, Priestley & Robinson, 2015; Livingston, 2016), its affect has not been addressed in the context of international and national teachers collaborating on formal PD in PYPs. If teachers feel they lack a voice in curriculum or assessment, this lack of opportunity for teacher input negatively affects agency and

their desire to collaborate. In addition, as has been mentioned above, the teachers' understanding of how the "others'" BAK affects their interpreting of curricula and course books and grading of assessment is related to their understanding of the "others'" learning and professional histories and norms. These understandings might influence engagement in formal PD.

6.3 Implications

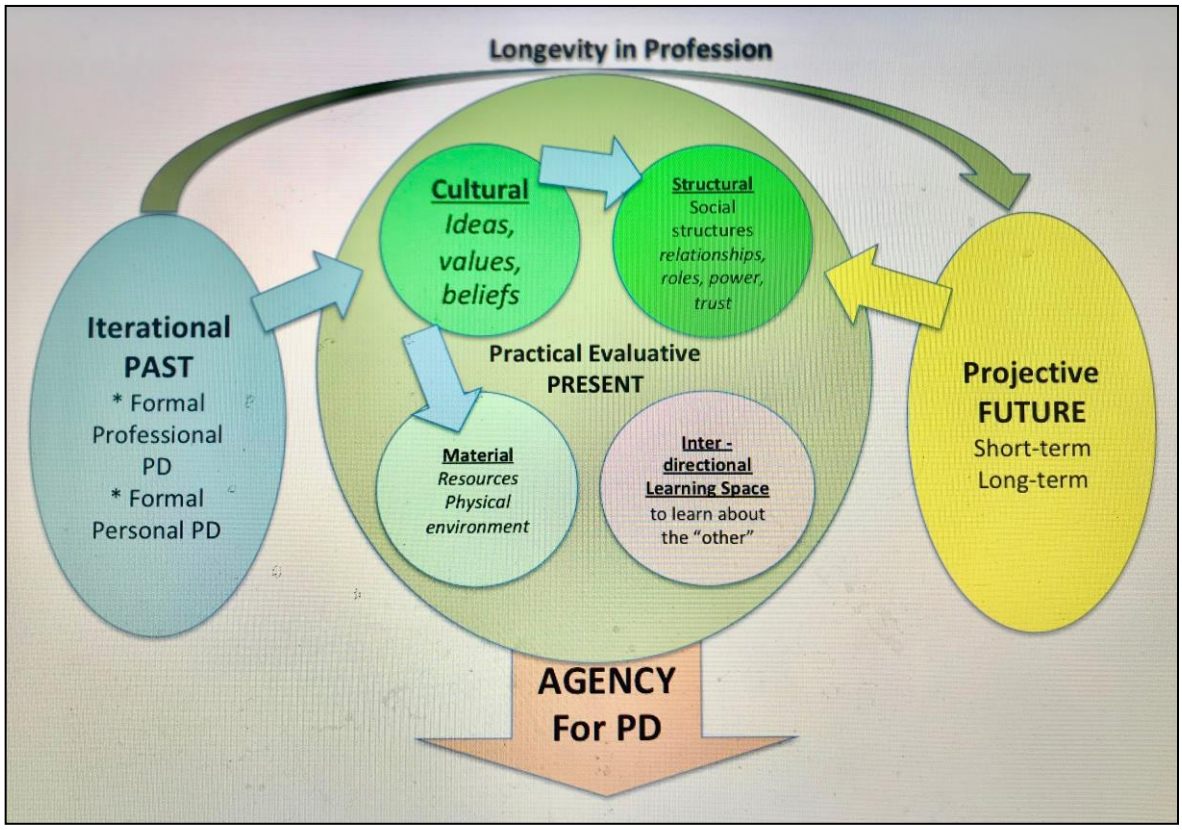

Figure 6. Model for multi-national group of teachers achieving agency in PD

There are many possible positive and proactive actions that could result from a knowledge and awareness of why formal PD can sometimes be found to be less engaging by national and international teachers in PYPs. Figure 5 below is a proposed model for how a multi-national group of teachers can achieve agency in PD, adapted from Biesta et al.'s (2015) model. Although this agency paradigm has not been utilised before in a context of multi-national teachers engaging in PD, much of the data supports this model. However, as can be seen in Table 5, many complexities and issues arise from perceptions of "others'" BAK and professional practices; thus, the model specifies a space be factored into formal PD to learn about those with different learning and professional experiences and different professional norms. This should be an inter-directional learning space in which teachers learn about each other in order to walk

together along the same path and be able to engage and collaborate in both formal and informal professional learning. Possible interventions to achieve this are discussed below.

Implications for practice: In order to take into account the different backgrounds and experiences of teachers, it would be helpful if teacher trainers (as they are called in the ELT field) and those responsible for planning formal PD were made aware of the differences in qualifications and understandings of professional norms on more than just a superficial level. An inter-directional learning space could be created with teams of teacher trainers and consisting of a mixture of nationalities and backgrounds in order to give this group of teacher trainers an "authentic" understanding of the fuller picture. Once the teacher trainers have a greater understanding of the multi-national mix, they could create meaningful collaborative tasks for teachers, such as research or mentoring projects, which involve working with the "other" to reach a common goal. These meaningful tasks should require a combination of all of the teachers' strengths to succeed. It is well documented that NES often have a better understanding of collocations, whereas NNES, having learned English as an L2, generally have a superior grasp of grammar. Tasks could involve materials design or action research projects. An alternative could be peer observations or peer mentoring across the nationalities to gain a deeper understanding of the "other".

International NES and NNES and national NNES all bring great strengths to the curriculum, the classroom, and the students. Combining these assets in a cooperative PLC could build a powerful body for group reflection and support. This could start with offering PYP teachers more agency in the curriculum and assessment so as to utilise their skills as teachers and their knowledge of the students in the classroom.

Implications for policy making: Currently, the Turkish government does not organise or mandate PD for PYPs. This task is generally the responsibility of each individual PYP department, as is evidenced in this study. A Turkey-based group called T-Plus meets annually to discuss projects that its members have conducted in groups to support ELT PD, especially designed for teacher trainers in PYP. PD actions in Turkish ELT overwhelmingly relate to grading. It may be helpful for teacher trainers if a more holistic collaborative training plan were created involving teachers from all

backgrounds to suit each context. For example, this might consist of an international mentoring programme (Livingston, 2016) or of teacher-generated action research projects.

6.4 Research Limitations

In this study, a snapshot was taken of 20 PYP teachers lived experiences. However, there were both theoretical and methodological limitations to this study, as described below.

6.4.1 Theoretical limitations

This study was inspired by a problem identified by the researcher regarding the low levels of engagement in PD and the lack of research on the challenges presented by groups of international and national PYP teachers reflecting together. As mentioned before, an interpretivist research paradigm was adopted, which underscores the assumption that social reality is shaped by human experiences and social contexts. By exploring knowledge within an interpretivist paradigm, the aim is to "refine and deepen our sense of what it means to understand other people and their social practices with a genuine interest in understanding and enriching 'the life worlds' (Habermas, 1987) or 'lived experiences' of others (i.e. our research participants)" (Kamberelis & Dimitriadis, 2005, p. 33). When adopting this research approach, the participants of a study are not viewed as technical instruments of communities, but are considered "the most powerful means available to human beings for constructing what is 'really real' (Geertz, 1973, as cited in Kamberelis & Dimitriadis, 2005, p.36). These fundamental ontological and epistemological assumptions bring a set of theoretical limitations to the study. The first of these relates to the context-sensitivity of the findings. Since data cannot be isolated from their social context, the transferability of findings is limited. Moreover, in this paradigm, the observations are interpreted through the eyes of the participants and their narratives, which are then interpreted by the researcher, who must then express the participants' narrated experiences in such a way as to explain the phenomenon under study. Despite these acknowledged limitations, the study has attempted to contribute to a deeper understanding of influences that affect teachers' engagement in PD, especially in contexts consisting of both national and international teachers.

6.4.2 Methodological limitations

The research took an interpretive analysis approach to the data, which enabled the researched phenomena to be studied in depth. However, there were limitations. This study focuses on engagement in PD in groups of national and international teachers. The participants had a wide variety of nationalities, professional backgrounds, and qualifications, many of the latter not entirely relevant to the field (see Appendix 9, Tables 7-9, pp. 253-254). Replication of these teachers' biographies would be extremely unlikely, especially following recent political events in Turkey and the departure abroad of many academics and teachers. Another set of participant teachers might result in alternative data.

The research sample was limited to teachers at private universities in large cities, rather than at the many government-run universities in those cities and in smaller cities in Turkey. The participants were mainly national teachers and international teachers from new countries. Perhaps, a balance featuring more NNES international teachers and international NES teachers from older countries would have added insight into the multi-national variation among teachers. In terms of the online post-reflection, even though the questionnaire was semi-structured, some respondents failed to answer the open-ended questions. These answers may have provided valuable data relating to school culture and behaviours, attitudes, and expectations.

The Council of Higher Education (Yükseköğretim Kurulu [YÖK]) controls teacher recruitment, and determines the entry level of English required by students and the acceptable external examinations. This consideration aside, PYP contexts can still be created in specific accordance to their leaderships' wishes, as it is they who decide the curriculum, the internal assessment, and the form of PD (if any). This point is reflected in the different ways that PD is approached in the three universities visited for this study. Given the important roles played by individual department leaders, this limits the application of the findings to other PYPs due to differences in context, participants, and cultures. To overcome this issue, generalisations were made concerning the similarities and differences among several similar types of PYPs.

It should also be recognised that power distance could have created bias in the data and in the analysis of the data, as the researcher had been a teacher trainer herself in a PYP for nearly ten years. Additionally, during the interviews, the NNES participants gave their responses in their L2. In fact, only one participant was of the same nationality as the researcher. However, the researcher's experience in the field was of benefit in this case, as her understanding of the context brought with it an understanding of the possible concerns that teachers may feel in participating in the study and she was able to give reassurances regarding the ethical necessity of anonymity. In addition, she was able to adjust her language appropriately to ensure she was clearly understood, while also checking her own understanding of what the participants had said.

As a qualitative study, this research does not contain the reliability or generalisability of a large-scale study; nevertheless, a great deal of rigour was applied in analysing the data supported by NVIVO.

6.5 Further Research

The data obtained from the participants was rich and deep. The pre- and post-interview stages added extra layers discussed (see Chapter 3, section 3.3.1, pp 81-91), with the pre-interview tasks giving the teachers an opportunity to engage in an inner conversation prior to the semi-structured interview. As described above, a number of findings emerged that were new to the context of groups of national and international teachers' engagement in PD. The teachers' many different kinds of learning and professional backgrounds were reflected in data that consisted of many different ideas and answers. However, the participants also shared similar perceptions, such as a preference for conducting PD with peers who had a common work ethic and regarding the backwash effect of the proficiency exam. Therefore, conducting a similar study with a larger research sample may add to the knowledge, identify further themes, or support some of the more dominant themes emerging from this study.

In terms of future research, a single study could be conducted to explore each individual theme, such as the influence of relationships between nationalities on PD. Further research might also be conducted on PYPs at English Medium Instruction universities

run by the government and with less international staff, or at other EMI PYPs in the Middle East or Europe, so that a comparative study can be made.

6.6 Conclusions

This research has provided a fascinating insight into the factors that influence engagement in PD among teachers of different nationalities. Unlike studies that look at how mono-cultural teachers work together, or studies that compare and contrast NES and NNES teachers, or studies that consider NES and NNES teachers as a singular whole, this study acknowledges there are differences between teachers that are far more complex and varied than can be captured by the simple NES and NNES distinction and looks at how and why these different kinds of teachers engage in PD.

Analysing the data within the ecological agency paradigm initially put forward by Emirbayer and Mische (1998), and developed by Biesta, Priestley and Robinson (2015), sheds light on the broad variety of teachers' pasts and how these interplayed with their presents and futures. By using this analytical framework, teachers' engagement was not viewed merely in terms of a single entity in isolation, but rather in terms of the collective dimensions that could support the teachers' achievement of agency in PD.

The data illuminated the complexity of this particular teaching context and its many influences on PD. The data suggests that teachers' learning, their professional backgrounds, and their different qualifications result in very different BAKs. There was an acknowledgement that for many of the teachers, their attitudes to PD and learning when collaborating in the present interplayed with their professional norms, including their work ethics and workplace expectations (e.g. relating to hierarchy and rules). For some, this created obstacles to collaboration and engagement in PD. These differences were noted by many and, in some cases, led to "othering" by some of the participants, which could in turn simplify the differences and result in stereotyping. However, as has been mentioned, the data was not linear; there were participants of different nationalities who had great respect for, and even preferred to collaborate with, the "other".

A lack of a common understanding of culture and knowledge was also often evident in the teachers' different understandings of curriculum and assessment. This also sometimes led to "othering" and stereotyping by some of the participants. There is evidence to suggest that this lack of a cohesive understanding was also a factor that influenced teachers' engagement in PD, as was their limited autonomy in matters of curriculum and assessment. Another factor not related to nationality but still related to the interplay of the iterative and the present was longevity. It was observed that teachers of all nationalities lose engagement in PD over time, perhaps because of feelings of accomplishment in the field and the repetitiveness of much PD. Finally, the teachers' learning histories and expectations often clashed with the expectations of the curriculum and assessment.

It could be suggested that in PYPs, there needs to be an intervention to support a deeper understanding among peers of different backgrounds. This intervention could consist of a series of on-going actions to create an inter-directional learning space in which teachers of different nationalities can engage in an open dialogue about their BAK and classroom teaching and so formulate a more positive and greater understanding of the "others'" learning and professional backgrounds and their professional norms. As the evidence suggest a possible reluctance among some teachers to work with the "other", conscious choices need to be made regarding how and with whom teachers engage in formal PD. This might involve creating an inter-directional space or instituting mentoring, peer observations, or collaborative research.

The research, while small in scale and with its limitations, has raised awareness of the potential for rich collaborative multi-national PD for PYP teachers and will hopefully constitute the first of many transformative projects to come for the researcher.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 Plain Language Statement

College of Social Sciences

Study title and researcher details

University of Glasgow, School of Education
Project Title: **Teachers' Engagement in Professional Learning: English Language Teaching Practitioners' Perceptions**
Researcher: Gaele Macfarlane
Supervisors: Professor Kay Livingston and Dr. Hazel Crichton
Full-Time Research PhD

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide whether or not to join the study, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please read the following information carefully, and discuss it with others if you wish. Please feel free to contact the researcher if there is anything that is not clear, or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part. Many thanks for taking the time to read this.

What is the purpose of the study?

The purpose of this study is to research how teachers are engaged in professional learning through the lens of English Language teachers' perceptions in Turkish private university pre-sessional (prep) programmes. The research will be used for Gaele Macfarlane's PhD, and the study will be completed by 31.12.2018.

Why have I been chosen?

You have been chosen because you are an English language teacher in a Turkish private university pre-sessional (prep) programme with experience of professional development in the workplace. Your experience and knowledge of working in this field is invaluable, and as such, an understanding of how you are engaged in professional learning will greatly facilitate the study.

Do I have to take part?

It is completely up to you whether or not you would like to take part. If you decide to take part, but then at any stage would like to withdraw from the study, you are free to do so.

What will happen to me if I take part?

The study will be in the format of an online questionnaire to obtain data on your learning history, a pre-reflection of topics that we will explore more deeply in the subsequent interview, and finally a post-interview reflection.
Phase 1: You will initially be asked to complete a short online questionnaire of your learning experiences and professional development professional development history in the English Language teaching field; in addition, you will be asked to share your perceptions of different

methods of professional development and write 5 examples of different experiences of professional development, which will be discussed further in the subsequent interview. This phase should take a maximum of **20 minutes**.
Phase 2: The researcher will invite you to an interview, which will take **40 – 50 minutes**, to discuss further your ideas and feelings on what you do or do not find interesting about professional development. This will take place on campus in a neutral zone at a time and place that is convenient for you. With your permission, the interviews will be audio recorded.
Phase 3: A week after the interview, the researcher will ask you to complete an online post-interview reflection with prompts and to share any issues that you felt did not arise, or those that you would like to clarify. This should take **20 -30 minutes**; however, if you have more to say, then the researcher would be very grateful for the information.

Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?

All information collected about you during the course of the research will be kept strictly confidential. You will be identified by an ID number, as will your institution, and any information about you will have your name, address and institution removed so that you cannot be recognised from it.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

The data collected for the study will be available only to the researcher, Gaele Macfarlane, her PhD supervisors Professor Kay Livingston and Dr. Hazel Crichton, and the external PhD examiner. The research will be published as a PhD thesis, journal articles, book chapters and conference presentations.

Who has reviewed the study?

The researcher and her PhD supervisors have reviewed this study as have the University of Glasgow's College of Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee.

Contact for Further Information

If you have any concerns regarding the conduct of this research project, you can contact the researcher Gaele Macfarlane by phone at 00447774 997874, or by email at g.macfarlane.1@research.gla.ac.uk. You can also contact her supervisors, Professor Kay Livingston at Kay.Livingston@glasgow.ac.uk or Dr. Hazel Crichton at Hazel.Crichton@glasgow.ac.uk, or the College of Social Sciences Ethics Officer Dr. Muir Houston at Muir.Houston@glasgow.ac.uk.

Appendix 2 Consent Form

University of Glasgow

College of Social Sciences

Consent Form

Title of Project: Teachers' Engagement in Professional Learning: English Language Teaching Practitioners' Perceptions (Recorded)

Name of Researcher: Gaele Macfarlane

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the Plain Language Statement for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.

3. I confirm that I understand that I am giving consent to complete the online questionnaire, the interview, which will be audiotaped and the online written post interview reflection.
   I understand that I, and my Institution, will always be to be referred to by pseudonym in any publications arising from the research.

4. I agree / do not agree (delete as applicable) to take part in the above study.

Name of Participant	**Date**	**Signature**
Researcher	**Date**	**Signature**

Appendix 3 Interview Themes

College of Social Sciences

Interview Themes

1. Personal Experiences of PD
2. Institution and PD
3. Context and PD
4. The taught course and PD
5. Group/Community and PD

Appendix 4 Pre-interview Bio & Reflection

PAGE 2: Introduction to the Online Questionnaire (The Data)

Q1: **I have read the above statement and am happy to be part of the study and continue with the questionnaire.**	Yes

PAGE 3: Phase 1a. Learning history and professional development experienced

Q2: **How many years have you taught English as a second language to prep students?Please tick the relevant box.**	16 - 20
Q3: **How many years have you been teaching English as a second language?Please tick the relevant box.**	21 or over
Q4: **What types of English have you taught?Please tick the relevant boxes.**	High School, English for Specific Purposes, Business, General, Academic
Q5: **What type of undergraduate qualifications do you have?Please tick the relevant boxes.**	BA Linguistics, BA Ed
Q6: **What type of post graduate qualifications do you have?Please tick the relevant boxes.**	Masters Linguistics, Masters Ed
Q7: **What types of TEFL qualifications or courses do you have?Please tick the relevant boxes.**	CELTA
Q8: **Please list the languages you know apart from your first language, the approximate CEF level, where you learnt the language and what teaching methodology e.g. Grammar Translation, PPP, Task Based, Guided Discovery, Audio Lingual, Immersion, Other.Example: L2 Turkish, (Council European Framework Reference) A2, Turkey,Grammar Translation & Immersion**	
L2	Russian C1
L3	French B2
L4	German B2

KC27.05.16 Gaele Macfarlane (PhD data collection)Phase 1A & B. Teachers Engagement in Professional Learning: English LanguageTeaching Practitioners' Perceptions.

Q9: **What types of professional learning have you engaged in?Please tick the relevant boxes.**	PD sessions with an internal trainer, PD sessions with an external trainer, Attending/presenting at conferences, Collaborative learning groups, Reading current literature, Sharing peer approaches/materials in the classroom, Peer/Trainer Observations, Self generated research projects

PAGE 4: Phase 1b. Perceptions of professional development and how you are engaged.

Q10: **What do you feel about different types of professional learning?Please tick the relevant value for each method.**

PD sessions with an internal trainer/expert	Valuable
PD sessions with an external trainer/expert	Valuable
Attending/presenting at conferences	Valuable
Collaborative learning groups	Valuable
Reading current literature	Valuable
Sharing peer approaches/materials in the classroom	Valuable
Trainer/Peer observations	Valuable
Self generated research projects	Valuable

Q11: **How do teachers' learning histories affect their interest in professional development?**

There are various definitions of "learning histories", but I would like to mention two areas here. The first is one's own study of a second/foreign language. I started learning Russian, for example, at a period when 'grammar-translation' was in vogue. Nevertheless, I had two professors (both native speakers) who used methods one would now relate to the communicative approach, and with great success. These years of learning, and later further study of Russian in the USSR itself, encouraged me greatly to explore not only methodology in second language acquisition, but also aspects of classroom management, materials development, and assessment of language learners. My own experiences in two different periods learning a foreign language played a major role in my interest in my own professional development when I started to teach languages myself.
Second, the greatest effect on my interest in professional development was instilled by several pre-eminent researchers/professors that I had for Master's courses. The work of Patsy Lightbown and Nina Spada, Roy Lyster, and others left me with only a "tip of the iceberg" knowledge about second language acquisition and teaching - and encouraged me to do whatever I could to improve my own "level" in the field and especially in the classroom. These teachers had a profound effect on how my own career would be shaped, and brought me to a belief of the importance of professional development - in some form - on a constant basis.

Q12: **How does work experience affect teachers' interest in professional development?**

Work experience is one of the major contributing factors to one's interest in PD. It seems to me that the two are intrinsically united ...one's work environment is key to interest in PD, and should play a major role in the "need" for more professional development. This is often as a result of the "meeting" of teachers from disparate backgrounds and work experiences. It also seems to me that there is something wrong with the notion (held by some teachers) that there comes a time, with considerable work experience, that PD is no longer necessary. To my way of thinking, the two are bound together like hand and glove ... on the contrary, the more work experience one has should demand a need for even more PD!

Q13: **How does where a teacher works make a difference (country/city/institution), if any, to their interest in professional development?**

I would not say, generally speaking, that the country or city makes a serious difference in interest in PD. However, the institution, and more importantly the attitude of the management and "leadership" in that institution does. I have worked in this profession in a number of cities in my own country, and in a number of foreign countries in various institutions. The most negative period in two decades is in my current institution, where PD has been actually discouraged! For me personally, what this has meant is an even greater need for some form(s) of active/consistent professional development - in a rather "negative" sense because it is per se missing from my daily menu. It seems only natural to me that if the official line is that "PD is a waste of time and money", and this attitude is reinforced from above with enough weight, then one's interest should and quite possibly will wane. I personally have taken quite the opposite approach - reminding myself at least of its importance and endeavoring whenever possible to overcome this negative administrative stance.

Q14: **How can the community that teachers work with their affect interest in professional development?**

I see Professional Development as one of the single most important aspects of a good teacher's work. I believe it should be actively and professionally encouraged, and not always to make an individual a "more productive" instructor or a "better asset" to the institution. PD also affects self-esteem, encourages collaboration, and benefits learners. Its overall positive effects are often (sadly) either underestimated or neglected altogether.

Q15: **How does the course (curriculum/pedagogy/assessment) affect teachers' interest in professional development?**

I assume this question means a course (e.g. a Master's level or other "organized course" in some aspect of ELT? I could mention a number of such courses, but will briefly note that courses I took with Patsy Lightbown ("How Languages are Learned") inspired me and encouraged me to become an avid and constant supporter of thorough and efficient PD programmes wherever I have worked since. Given that my present institution does little to encourage PD (see Question 13), I am very happy that such courses taken 15 years ago still have this effect. I am sure that each of us must have a mentor or a professor or an individual in our programmes who have managed to instill in us this need for "knowing more". Working with an "expert" in a narrow aspect of the field and having an opportunity to see how that individual works can in itself be enough to begin this process. It affects not only one's interest in professional development, but of course in one's own beliefs and teaching as well. I could talk about Patsy Lightbown's character and abilities to stimulate this interest for many pages, not simply a few words. Becoming part of the various PD sessions she encouraged for a few years was enough to enure I have become a supporter of all the items mentioned in Question 10. I would say it is much stronger than simply "teachers' interest" - it becomes an extension of almost everything one does on a daily basis, both inside and outside the classroom.

Q16: **Many thanks for completing this survey, please add any further comments here.**

Several of the questions seem to overlap in content! I hope my replies are detailed enough for this initial questionnaire, and that I have interpreted them correctly. In No. 15, for example, I assumed this meant a course in a Master's programme (or elsewhere) being taught by a specialist in the field. This can overlap with No. 11, for example. Thank you for an opportunity to begin to verbalize my thoughts on this subject - an important one - and to think aloud about why I feel it is so important!

Appendix 5 Post Interview Reflection

KC Gaele Macfarlane (PhD data collection) Phase 3. Teachers Engagement in Professional Learning: Teaching ELT Practitioners' Perceptions

KC Gaele Macfarlane (PhD data collection) Phase 3. Teachers Engagement in Professional Learning: Teaching ELT Practitioners' Perceptions.

PAGE 2: Introduction to the Post-Interview Reflection (The Data)

Q1: **I have read the above statement and am happy to be part of the study and continue with the questionnaire.** Yes

PAGE 3: Online Post Reflection

Q2: **What further thoughts do you have about the work context affecting teachers' interest in professional development?**

Two have come to mind.
First, what is needed is "committed leadership". By this I mean a Director who is her/himself committed to Professional Development - on a personal level and even more so for her/his teachers. One knows there is trouble when one's Director notes that "gatherings such as IATEFL are boring and quite frankly a waste of time." If the institution employs a Director of a large preparatory programme who has never taught such courses, knows nothing about the curriculum, its assessment, or indeed professional development itself as a means of ensuring a better programme and a happy and healthy team, what hope is there to improve overall the functioning of the programme or the mental health of its practitioners?
Second, over the years I have noted that more than a few excellent instructors have left the institution partly because of a definite lack of any semblance of organized professional development. Good teachers are not always easy to find – and keep – and without an "exit interview", who knows why these people have departed? I find it increasingly interesting and want to understand why some feel that Professional Development should or should not play a role in their careers.

Q3: **What further thoughts do you have about the course (curriculum/assessment/pedagogy & student feedback) affecting teachers interest in professional development?**

No further comments, except it might be considered to be invaluable given that a number of native- and non-native-speaker instructors have been educated in a wide variety of backgrounds, have an amazingly varied wealth of information and knowledge in various aspects of the profession, and are all sitting and looking at each other as if we were all from the same school and have practicing the same methodology. There are some amazing strengths and areas of expertise among such a group of people – and unless they can be properly exploited, they are useless in the professional development sense.

Q4: **What further thoughts do you have about the diversity of teachers' learning histories affecting interest in professional development?**

Diversity is very important! In the recorded interview, you asked about the nationalities represented in my Department, and I believe my answer was six (Turkish, American, British, Canadian, German, and Romanian). With that diversity comes an even more startling diversity if one considers where those six nationalities have worked during their professional years. The possibilities for PD sessions based on that fact alone are endless.

Appendix 6 Transcription & Data Analysis

3. I would not say, generally speaking, that the country or city makes a 4. serious difference in interest in PD. However, the institution, and more 5. importantly the attitude of the management and "leadership" in that 6. institution does. I have worked in this profession in a number of cities in 7. my own country, and in a number of foreign countries in various 8. institutions. The most negative period in two decades is in my current 9. institution, where PD has been actually discouraged! For me personally, 10. what this has meant is an even greater need for some form(s) of 11. active/consistent professional development - in a rather "negative" sense 12. because it is per se missing from my daily menu. It seems only natural to 13. me that if the official line is that "PD is a waste of time and money", and 14. this attitude is reinforced from above with enough weight, then one's 15. interest should and quite possibly will wane. I personally have taken quite 16. the opposite approach - reminding myself at least of its importance and 17. endeavoring whenever possible to overcome this negative administrative 18. stance.	Leadership role model Self motivation	
Transcription	Theme	Comments
1. Q14: How can the community that teachers work with their affect interest in professional development? I see Professional Development as one of the single most important 2. aspects of a good teacher's work. I believe it should be actively and 3. professionally encouraged, and not always to make an individual a "more 4. productive" instructor or a "better asset" to the institution. PD also 5. affects self-esteem, encourages collaboration, and benefits learners. Its 6. overall positive effects are often (sadly) either underestimated or 7. neglected altogether.		
Q15: How does the course (curriculum/pedagogy/assessment) affect teachers' interest in professional development?		
Transcription	Theme	Comments
1. I assume this question means a course (e.g. a Master's level or other 2. "organized course" in some aspect of ELT? I could mention a number of 3. such courses, but will briefly note that courses I took with Patsy 4. Lightbown ("How Languages are Learned") inspired me and encouraged me 5. to become an avid and constant supporter of thorough and efficient PD 6. programmes wherever I have worked since. Given that my present 7. institution does little to encourage PD (see Question 13), I am very happy 8. that such courses taken 15 years ago still have this effect. I am sure that 9. each of us must have a mentor or a professor or an individual in our 10. programmes who have managed to instill in us this need for "knowing 11. more". Working with an "expert" in a narrow aspect of the field and 12. having an opportunity to see how that individual works can in itself be	Leadership Model/Example Early training Experts	

Transcription	Theme	Comments
1. **Q11: How do teachers' learning histories affect their interest in professional development?** 2. There are various definitions of "learning histories", but I would like to 3. mention two areas here. The first is one's own study of a second/foreign 4. language. I started learning Russian, for example, at a period when 5. 'grammar-translation' was in vogue. Nevertheless, I had two professors 6. (both native speakers) who used methods one would now relate to the 7. communicative approach, and with great success. These years of learning, 8. and later further study of Russian in the USSR itself, encouraged me 9. greatly to explore not only methodology in second language acquisition, but 10. also aspects of classroom management, materials development, and 11. assessment of language learners. My own experiences in two different 12. periods learning a foreign language played a major role in my interest in 13. my own professional development when I started to teach languages 14. myself. Second, the greatest effect on my interest in professional 15. development was instilled by several pre-eminent researchers/professors 16. that I had for Master's courses. The work of Patsy Lightbown and Nina 17. Spada, Roy Lyster, and others left me with only a "tip of the iceberg" 18. knowledge about second language acquisition and teaching - and 19. encouraged me to do whatever I could to improve my own "level" in the 20. field and especially in the classroom. These teachers had a profound 21. effect on how my own career would be shaped, and brought me to a belief 22. of the importance of professional development - in some form - on a 23. constant basis.	Study Experience Study Experience/Early training Role Models	His experience of language learning has affected his BAK. His early teacher training (Masters course) has impacted on his BAK)
1. **Q12: How does work experience affect teachers' interest in professional development?** 2. Work experience is one of the major contributing factors to one's 3. interest in PD. It seems to me that the two are intrinsically united ...one's 4. work environment is key to interest in PD, and should play a major role in 5. the "need" for more professional development. This is often as a result of 6. the "meeting" of teachers from disparate backgrounds and work 7. experiences. It also seems to me that there is something wrong with the 8. notion (held by some teachers) that there comes a time, with considerable 9. work experience, that PD is no longer necessary. To my way of thinking, 10. the two are bound together like hand and glove ... on the contrary, the 11. more work experience one has should demand a need for even more PD!	Need	Work Experience creates a need Disparate backgrounds
1. **Q13: How does where a teacher works make a difference (country/city/institution),** 2. **if any, to their interest in professional development?**		

Appendix 7 Data collection tools

Table 1: Pre-interview open-ended questions

Phase 2: Pre-Interview Tasks		**THEMES**
1.	How do teachers' learning backgrounds affect their interest in PD?	Personal
2.	How does work experience affect teachers' interest in PD?	Personal
3.	How does the place where a teacher works make a difference (country/city/institution), if at all, to their interest in professional development?	Context/ Institution
4.	How can the community within which teachers work affect interest in PD?	Community
5.	How does the course (curriculum/assessment) affect teachers' interest in PD?	Course
6.	Many thanks for completing Phase 2, please add any further comments here.	

Table 2. Interview Questions

Phase 3: Semi-structured interviews		
Section A Many thanks for agreeing to participate in my study about engagement in professional development. 2) …. Do you agree to take part in this study…? I would like to add that as well as recording this interview, I will take notes as I go along, so please do not think I have stopped listening to you when I look down and take notes.		
Section B **The Semi-Structured Interview Questions**		**THEMES**
1.	Can you explain to me why you became an English teacher?	Personal
2.	Can you tell me about your PD experiences before you came to this institution?	Personal
3.	OK, so with this in mind, how would you describe a good PD session or workshop?	Personal
4.	So with this in mind, how would you describe a good leader of PD?	Personal
5.	In general, was the PD used positively or negatively in your institution? And why is this?	Institution
6.	What is your opinion of the PD given at your institution?	Institution
7.	If you were to compare the PD in your institution with your general ideas of PD, what would you say?	Institution
8.	What do you know about the Turkish government's policy towards English language teachers' PD? Do you know anything about it?	Context
9.	Have you experienced PD in other countries?	Context
11.	So, in the institution that you are working for now, is the PD similar to or different from what you know of other institutions in Turkey?	Context
12.	How would you compare your learning experiences to your colleagues' in terms of how you think of high school and university education—do you think it was different or similar?	Community

13.	In your department, who do you work best with and who do you collaborate with here?	Community
14.	What kind of PD are people in your department interested in, in general?	Community
15.	So with this in mind, are there discussions between colleagues about assessment, curriculum, and pedagogy?	Course
16.	How is official feedback on teaching obtained, and what is done with the feedback?	Course
17.	What kinds of changes in the course, the curriculum, and assessment could change teachers' interest in PD?	Course
18.	Are the people leading the PD aware of what individual members of the department are thinking about PD?	Course

Table 3. Online post-interview questions

Online Post-Reflection Questions		**THEMES**
24.	What further thoughts do you have about the impact of the place in which teachers work on their interest in PD?	Context
25.	What further thoughts do you have about how the course (curriculum/assessment and student feedback) might affect teachers' interest in PD?	Course
26.	What further thoughts do you have about how the diversity of teachers' learning backgrounds might affect interest in PD?	Personal
27.	How would you interest teachers in PD?	Community/ Institution
28.	What would you say to disinterested teachers? Why?	Community/ Institution
29.	Many thanks for taking the time to complete Phase 4. If you have any further comments, they would be very much appreciated.	

Appendix 8 Data analysis

Table 4. Themes within the structure of the analytical framework

1. Analytical Framework	2. Themes from the second sweep of the data, using the agency analytical framework	3. NOP referring to theme	4. NOT theme is referred to	5. Third Sweep of the data: Consolidation of themes
Iterative: Life histories		20	167	
Iterative	• Travel • No other jobs • Lots of jobs			4.2.1 Personal formal learning: qualifications
Iterative + Practical Evaluative Structural Relationships Cultural Ideas, Values, Beliefs	• Qualifications hierarchy of value • Not valuing the others qualifications • Respecting the others qualifications • Lack of understanding of others educational background (teaching & learning methodologies) • The others understanding of ELT			4.2.3 Perceptions of "others'" learning
Iterative: Professional histories		20	207	
Iterative + Practical Evaluative Structural Relationships Cultural Ideas, Values, Beliefs NOP: Number of Participants NOT: Number of times	• Lost interest • Lost faith • Less open • Less submissive • Insecurity of inexperience • Younger teachers know approaches are changing • Focus on class • Opportunity for CoP			4.2.2 Understanding of formal PD 4.2.4 Professional Experiences: Longevity in the profession

Table 5. Themes within the structure of the analytical framework

1. Analytical Framework	**2.** Themes from the second sweep of the data, using the agency analytical framework	**3.** NOP referring to theme	**4.** NOT theme is referred to	**5.** Third Sweep of the data: Consolidation of themes
Practical evaluative: Cultural and Structural: Collaborative PD and PL with 'the other'		20	578	
Iterative + **<u>Practical Evaluative</u>** **Structural Relationships** **Cultural Ideas, Values, Beliefs**	• Shared experiences Living outside their own culture • Disconnection of international teachers from host culture • Lack of social life with national/international teachers • Tribes • Stereotype of other • Lack of cohesion in dept for PD • Different learning backgrounds lack of respect • Dissonance/divide/tribal • Code switching • Feelings of exclusion & discomfort with dominant group • Complexity of group • Meta-reflexive understanding of culture (int pts) • Challenges of interacting with other • Use of native language to identify the other			**4.3.1 Collaborative PD with the other: national and international interactions** **4.3.2 Collaborative PD with the other: Professional understandings** **.3.3 Collaborative PD with the other: Group dynamic**
<u>Practical Evaluative</u> **Structural Relationships** **Cultural Ideas, Values, Beliefs**	• Common outlook (preferred working with) • Similar world view • Common understanding of w/e • Working with like minded people • Prefer working with the other • Prefer not to work with the other • Prefer to work with the similar • Common understanding of the students • Perceptions of "the others work ethic and own peoples w/e • Community affects the work ethic			**4.3.2 Collaborative PD with the other:** National and international **Professional understandings**
<u>Practical Evaluative</u> **Structural Relationships** **Cultural Ideas, Values, Beliefs**	• Peer influence positive & negative • Collective thinking • Good collaboration amongst teachers			**4.3.3 Collaborative PD with the other: Group dynamic**
The others understanding of ``ELT		**4.4.2 Perceptions of the "other's" education system**		

Table 6. Themes within the structure of the analytical framework

1. Analytical Framework	**2.** Themes from the second sweep of the data, using the agency analytical framework	**3.** NOP referring to theme	**4.** NOT theme is referred to	**5.** Third Sweep of the data: Consolidation of themes
Section Three Practical evaluative: Material and Cultural		**20**	**208**	
Material Resources, Physical Environment Cultural Ideas Values Beliefs	• Curriculum too full • Curriculum flexibility • Context • Course books (the writer about course books) • Lack of agency in assessment • Autonomy in quizzes • PD supporting students learning • Time to execute curriculum			4.4.1 Flexibility of the PYP English Language curriculum and assessment
Material Resources, Physical Environment Cultural Ideas Values Beliefs	• Differences of BAK on assessment • Differences of interpretation of the curriculum • Lack of common language on teaching approaches			4.4.2 Understanding of the "others" Curriculum and Assessment BAK
Material Resources, Physical Environment Cultural Ideas Values Beliefs Material Resources, Physical Environment Projective future aspirations	• Class size • Challenging classroom management need for PD • Stds reason for learning • Stds resistance to learning • Stds extrinsic motivations for learning • Variety of stds learning histories • Backwash of assessment on stds expectations and teaching to exam • Student learning expectations • Reason for learning language • No future anxiety			4.4.3 Commoditisation of language learning

Appendix 9 Participants Biographies

Table 7. Outline of participants' tertiary learning backgrounds

Code	Nation-ality	International study	Countries worked in	BA *ELT*	BA *LIN*	BA *ED*	BA *O*	MA *ELT*	MA *LIN*	MA *ED*	MA *O*	CELTA	DELTA	ICELT	Other
International Participants															
1UNI1C	Canadian		Canada, Russia, France, Germany, Turkey		*	*			*	*		*			
2UNI1C	Canadian		Canada, Turkey				*						*		
2UNI3C	Canadian		Canada, Korea, Saudi Arabia, Turkey				*	*							
1UNI4US	American		US, Poland, Spain, Turkey			*	* (L)			*					
1UNI7US	American		US, Saudi Arabia, Turkey		*						*	*			
2UNI2US	American		US, Turkey				*					*		*	
2UNI4US	American		US, China, Oman, Algeria, Turkey				*				*	*		*	
2UNI5US	American		US, Turkey			*		*					*	*	
3UNI4UK	British		UK, Turkey				*					*			
1UNI3EE	Eastern European	HE America	US, Russia, Japan, Turkey				*	*				*			
National Participants															
1UNI2T	Turkish			*							*		*	*	
1UNI5T	Turkish			*				*							
1UNI6T	Turkish	Course in the UK		*				*							
1UNI8T	Turkish			*				*							*
2UNI6T	Turkish (EM)						* (L)							*	
3UNI1T	Turkish	Course in the UK	Worked in the UK as a nanny			*									
3UNI2T	Turkish	Course in the UK				*	* (L)					*		*	
3UNI3T	Turkish						* (L)					*			
3UNI5T	Turkish	Studied in UK & US		*			* (L)				*	*			
3UNI6T	Turkish						* (L)							*	

BA ELT	**MA ELT**	English Language Teaching	**CELTA** (Cambridge)	Certificate in English Language Teaching for Adults
BA LIN	**MA LIN**	Linguistics	**DELTA** (Cambridge)	Diploma in English Language Teaching for Adults
BA ED	**MA ED**	Education	**ICELT** (Cambridge)	In-Service Certificate in English Language Teaching
BA O	**MA O**	Other	**Other**	Other TESOL certificates

(EM) ethnic minority ***(L)** : Literature

Table 8. Duration and variety of participants' experience in the field

Years of teaching	International		National		Experience in the field	International participants (PTS)	National (PTS)
	PYP YRS (PTS)	Teach YRS (PTS)	PYP YRS (PTS)	Teach YRS (PTS)	Pre-School	5	4
1–5	5	2	3	2	Primary		
6–10	1	2		1	High School	2	4
11–15	3	2	4	2	Young Learners	5	7
16–20	1	3	1	2	English for Specific Purposes	6	5
21+		2	1	3	Business English	6	
PTS: participants					General English	8	9
					Academic English	9	9

Table 9. Participants' language learning experiences

UNI 1 Respond -ents	Learned languages, CEF	Approach	UNI 2 Respond -ents	Learned languages, CEFR	Approach	UNI 3 Respond -ents	Learned languages, CEFR	Approach
1UNI1C	Russian, C1 French, B2 German, B2	GT I GT/CA	2UNI2C	Turkish, B2 (IM) French, B1	I PPP	3UNI1T	English, C1 (UK summer school cert)	GT CA
1UNI2T	English, C2 German, A2	PPP	2UNI2US	Turkish, A2	I	3UNI2T	English, C1	GT/PPP
1UNI3EE	Russian, (bilingual) Italian, B2 Turkish, B2/C1	GT/I GT/I	2UNI3C	French, B2 Korean, B1 Arabic, A1 Turkish, A1	I/HS I I I	3UNI3T	English, C1 German, A2	I/GT/PPP/TB GT/PPP
1UNI4US	Creole, C2 Spanish, C1 Polish, A1 Turkish, B2	I GT I I	2UNI4US	NIS		3UNI4UK	French, C1 German, C1 Turkish, B1	GT/AL/I GT/AL/I I
1UNI5T	English, C1	GT/CA	2UNI5US	Turkish, B1	I	3UNI5T	English, C1 German, A2 Spanish	GT GT PPP/TB
1UNI6T	English, C2 German	CA CA	2UNI6T	English, C2 Italian, B1	GT/TB PPP/TB	3UNI6T	English, C1	GT
1UNI7US	Spanish, B1 Turkish, A1 Latin, A2 French, B1	CA GT/I GT GT	CA: Communicative Approach GT: Grammar Translation TB: Task-Based Learning IM: Immigrant parents		PPP: Present Practice Produce I: Immersion AL: Audio-lingual NIG: No information given			

Table 10. Factors that can influence engagement in PD in PYPs

Iterative PAST	Practical Evaluative PRESENT	Projective FUTURE
-> Longevity of career ->		
Professional Histories • Multiple formal personal PD experiences (Qualifications) • Multiple formal professional PD experiences	**Cultural** • Value: *Formal Personal PD (Qualifications)* • Lack of Value: *Formal Professional PD* • Beliefs: *Variety of BAK* **Structure** • Relationships: *Understanding "Others'" learning Understanding "Others'" professional norms* **Material** • Resources: *Curriculum & Assessment* • Environment*: Commoditisation of English Language Education*	**Short-term** **Long-term** • Near end of career • No financial benefits