

Perceptions of the Effectiveness of a
National Professional Development Course
for EFL Teachers in Vietnam
Using the Theory of Practice Architectures

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Summary

Continuous teacher professional development is one strategy that educational stakeholders have chosen to improve teacher quality as part of education reforms. The same situation occurs in Vietnam with various teacher professional development courses for EFL teachers.

Drawing on the theory of practice architectures, in this study I explored the arrangements that shaped the activities of a national EFL teacher professional development course in Vietnam (hereafter called EFL Course) as well as the arrangements that shaped teachers' teaching practices after the course. I also investigated teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of the effectiveness of EFL Course. Fifty-six teachers and eight teacher educators participated in this study. I adopted a qualitative approach in which data were collected from observations, questionnaires, and semi-structured interviews with the teachers and the teacher educators.

The findings of this study indicate that different factors acted as arrangements in shaping the activities in EFL Course and teachers' teaching. They included enablers and constraints coming from a range of resources at Vietnamese school and society from common languages (Vietnamese and English) to the role of English in the society. Among these factors, activities in EFL Course were mainly constrained by material-economic arrangements, namely EFL Course operation including its blended delivery mode, scheduling, and duration, coursebook, and location. Teachers' teaching was constrained primarily by social-political arrangements that included school structures and educational and socioeconomic systems. Importantly, this study highlights factors acting as practice traditions that contributed to shaping activities of EFL Course and teachers' teaching. These factors were Confucianism, teacher-centred teaching methods, and the one-off cascade traditional approaches used in teacher professional development.

This study exposes a mismatch in teachers' and teacher educators' expectations of the course as well as a disconnect between teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of the course's effect on teachers' teaching practices.

This study also indicates that more attention needs to be paid to multilayered systems, especially traditional values, that shape teacher professional development. Implications for policymakers, course providers, course participants, and researchers are provided to improve the effectiveness of teacher professional development courses.

Statement of Originality

This thesis titled *Perceptions of the Effectiveness of a National Professional Development Course for EFL Teachers in Vietnam Using the Theory of Practice Architectures* has not been submitted for a higher or any other degree to any other university or institution.

I certify that the thesis is an original piece of research; all data, references, and other sources of information, including co-authored journal publications and professional editorial support, have been acknowledged.

I declare that the research presented in this thesis complies with requirements of academic ethics. This research was approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee of Macquarie University (Reference number 5201800270, CON/MET). See Appendix A.

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Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a basic overview of the study. First, it introduces the context in which the study was carried out. This chapter also states the reason for the chosen topic through the rationale of the study. Next, the statement of the problem is devoted to highlighting current debates on teacher professional development. An introduction of practice architecture theory is then provided with its role as the theoretical framework of the study. Based on the contemporary debates in the field and the theoretical framework, aims and research questions are identified for the study. After that, the significance of the study is pointed out. The last section of the chapter outlines the structure of the thesis.

1.2 The context of the study

This study focuses on a teacher professional development course for English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers in Vietnam, so it is important to briefly describe the Vietnamese education system and the teaching and learning of English in Vietnam.

The Vietnamese formal education system consists of three levels. These are primary schools for students from Year 1 to Year 5, lower-secondary schools for students from Year 6 to Year 9, and higher-secondary schools for students from Year 10 to Year 12. It is compulsory for students in Vietnam to attend primary school at the age of six and lower-secondary school at the age of eleven. An academic year in Vietnam starts in September and is divided into two terms: Term 1 from September to January, and Term 2 from January to May. At the end of each term, students have a final examination to evaluate their progress during the term. In Vietnamese schools, students are taught a variety of subjects such as mathematics, literature, physics, chemistry, geography, history, and foreign languages.

English has been taught widely in Vietnam since the Vietnamese government began to implement economic reforms in 1986. Currently, there are seven foreign languages taught in Vietnamese schools, namely English, Russian, French, Chinese, Japanese,

Korean, and German. It is compulsory for Vietnamese students to start learning a foreign language from Year 3. Among the seven foreign languages, English is studied by around 90% of students (V. C. Le, 2007; X. V. Nguyen, 2003). At primary school, students have four English classes, each of 45 minutes, per week. At lower-secondary school and higher-secondary school, students have three 45-minute classes learning English each week.

There are a number of issues in English teaching and learning in Vietnam. For example, Vietnamese students demonstrate limited English competence (Bock, 2000; V. C. Le, 2017). Students are reluctant to participate in English speaking lessons (Thai et al., 2018) and many university graduates cannot speak English despite years of learning English at school and university (T. M. H. Bui, 2006). English classes are large with students of mixed ability (P. M. Nguyen et al., 2005). Such issues are claimed to be caused mainly by Vietnamese culture (T. H. Nguyen, 2002; P. M. Nguyen et al., 2005) or the predominant English teaching methodology (T. T. Tran, 2013). Specifically, the values of Confucianism such as face-saving (speakers avoid situations that may embarrass themselves), hesitation (speakers avoid speak first), high-context communication (meaning of discourses is the combination of words, speakers' tones, and underlying contexts) and conflict avoidance affect EFL students' speaking performances. In addition, Vietnamese people's views about the importance of examinations lead to students learning mainly for the sake of examination scores and, as a result, they easily forget what they learnt after the examination is over (Walkinshaw & Duong, 2014). The grammar-translation method, which was widely used in teaching English in the past (Denham, 1992), combined with a tradition of teacher-centred practices, can result in students' shyness and inactive classroom participation (N. N. Tran, 2011).

Recognising these issues in teaching and learning English in Vietnam, in 2008, the Vietnamese government approved the National Foreign Languages 2020 Project (NFL2020), which was extended to 2025, with a total budget of about 400 million USD. The aim of the project is to enhance students' proficiency for foreign languages in general and English in particular. In order to achieve that aim, a variety of professional development courses for EFL teachers have been organised in Vietnam with the expectation that these courses will improve teachers' knowledge and skills, and the increase in teacher quality will lead to an improvement in students' learning outcomes

(Vietnam Government, 2008). However, about 10 years since the project was initiated, students' and teachers' English competence is still criticised in the media (The Labour News, 2016; Tien Phong News, 2020). In 2020, there were more than 900,000 students participating in the 2020 National High School Graduation Examination. About 750,000 of these students sat for the English test. Nearly 64% of them achieved a score under the "pass score" of 5 for the test, with the average score being 4.5 over a band score of 10. English test scores were reported to be the lowest among all of the subjects in the examination (National Foreign Languages 2020 Project, 2020). In addition, the number of unqualified EFL teachers, according to the requirements of Vietnam Ministry of Education and Training (MOET), is still high with about 48%, 36%, and 53% of unqualified EFL teachers at primary, lower-secondary, and higher-secondary school, respectively. Despite these disappointing outcomes, there has been little research on professional development courses in Vietnam (V. C. Le, 2002). Among the studies on EFL teacher professional development in Vietnam, more focus has been placed on experimenting new approaches (e.g., M. H. Nguyen, 2008) while very few evaluate current courses sponsored by the NFL2020 (e.g., P. H. H. Le and Yeo, 2016).

1.3 Rationale for the study

In 2013, many Vietnamese university teachers of EFL who did not have any valid international certificates of English proficiency or any degrees from an English-speaking university were required to participate in an examination of English proficiency. This examination was organised by the MOET as the start of the NFL2020. I was one of those teachers.

Several months after the examination, results were sent back to our workplaces with an offer of attending a full-time professional development course for 8 weeks at a university of foreign-language teacher education. This course included 7 weeks for English proficiency, which contained lessons designed to improve English listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills and 1 week for English pedagogical content knowledge, which included sessions on teaching with ICT or classroom management. At the end of the course, participants' English proficiency and pedagogical content knowledge were assessed with a test that had a similar format to the contents we were taught during the course.

This course had a great effect on me. As an EFL teacher with 5 years of teaching experience when I undertook the course, it was the first time I had been assessed as a teacher and the first time I had participated in an inservice teacher professional development course. The course not only challenged my professional competence but also provided me with opportunities to improve my teaching. In addition, the course raised my awareness of taking personal responsibility for my professional development. It also made me start to think about how similar kinds of courses for other EFL teachers in Vietnam could be organised in order to support them in improving their teaching.

There were challenges, as well, that I faced during that time. These included the interruption in my teaching schedule, the pressure of the examination, and the intensity of the course when we had to study at least 8 hours each day for 2 months. I came to understand that the effectiveness of the course I experienced was under the control of various personal, material and contextual factors. In the role of a teacher at a university of education management, one question emerged in my mind: How can we minimise the constraints and maximise the enablers of the courses like this one?

The search for answers to this question oriented me to the field of teacher professional development and informed my decision to undertake higher-degree research studies.

1.4 Statement of the problem

One way to improve the quality of education is by continuous teacher professional development. When teacher professional development is of a high quality, it can change teacher beliefs (Kelly & Cherkowski, 2015; Lumpe et al., 2012), teacher knowledge (Abuhmaid, 2011; Kriek & Grayson, 2009), teacher practices (Desimone et al., 2002; Hart & Lee, 2003), and students' learning outcomes (D. L. Butler & Schnellert, 2012; Thurlings & den Brok, 2017).

There has been a consensus on the main features of high-quality teacher professional development (Wayne et al., 2008). A teacher professional development course should be content-focused (Desimone, 2009), support active learning, possess a degree of coherence with district policies and practices (Saunders et al., 2009), extend over a period of time (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017), and encourage collaboration among teachers (Huhtala and Vesalainen, 2017; Weiss & Pasley, 2006).

Despite the importance of high-quality teacher professional development, teacher professional development is not the only factor determining changes in teachers and students (Piper et al., 2018). Broader contextual factors also need to be considered (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002; Guskey, 2002; Merchie et al., 2018). For example, on the one hand, teachers may encounter difficulties when trying to implement new teaching approaches because of a lack of resources at their school (Nawab, 2017). On the other hand, support from colleagues and school leaders can motivate teachers to improve their practices (Bechtel & O'Sullivan, 2007; H. N. Tran et al., 2020; N. H. Tran et al., 2018).

In addition to the contextual factors, teachers and teacher educators, as participants in teacher professional development, have a great impact on the effectiveness of these programs. When participating in professional development programs, teachers bring with them their orientation to learning activities, which includes their prior knowledge, experiences, and beliefs (Opfer & Pedder, 2011). These help to determine whether the teachers recognise ways to change their teaching (Evans, 2014). Whereas in a professional development program, teachers are considered as change agents, teacher educators are change facilitators (Bai et al., 2019). Teacher educators contribute their knowledge, experiences, beliefs, and practices to teacher professional development (Hoffman & Duffy, 2016; Morrison, 2016; Peeters & Robinson, 2015). Teachers also evaluate the quality of teacher professional development programs through their perceptions of the teacher educators who present those programs (Zein, 2016).

Literature about teacher professional development reveals some research trends that may lead to limitations in the field. Many studies in this field often focus on features of high-quality teacher professional development and new approaches of teacher professional development (Gore et al., 2017; Lewis et al., 2006). Studies about the factors affecting the effectiveness of professional development tend to either follow cognitive theories to consider human factors, such as teacher beliefs and attitudes, or sociocultural theories to examine external factors, such as school context or educational system (Avalos, 2011). Few studies on teacher professional development employ a theory that balances the role of human and surrounding contexts. Moreover, few studies give equal voice to both teachers and teacher educators (see e.g., I. Lee, 2011; Peeters & Robinson, 2015). In the studies that do give equal consideration to teachers and teacher educators, researchers may also be the teacher educators or professional development providers

themselves (Borko, 2004). As a consequence, it can be difficult to determine the particular impact of the course due to the close involvement with and personal investment of the researchers in the outcomes.

1.5 Introduction of practice architecture theory

Mindful of the above limitations in the literature about teacher professional development, this study seeks to provide a balanced view about human and contextual factors in teacher professional development using the theory of practice architectures (Kemmis et al., 2014; Kemmis et al., 2012; Kemmis & Grootenboer, 2008). The research draws on the theory of practice architectures as the theoretical framework for the study.

Drawing on Schatzki's (2002) site ontologies, the theory of practice architectures explores the relationship between practitioners, practices, and sites of practices (Kemmis et al., 2014). From the perspective of this theory, practices are constituted by the discourses that people produce (sayings), the actions people perform (doings), and the way people relate to each other and the surrounding world. These three components "hang together" forming practices to achieve practice projects or aims (Mahon et al., 2017).

Practices, performed by practitioners, are not only shaped by practitioners' dispositions but prefigured and made possible by practice architectures. Practice architectures are cultural-discursive, material-economic, and social-political arrangements existing in sites of practices at the time practices are executed. These cultural-discursive, material-economic, and social-political arrangements prefigure and make sayings, doings, and relatings of practices possible respectively (Kemmis, 2019). Cultural-discursive arrangements refer to language resources that shape sayings of practices (Mahon et al., 2017). For example, cultural-discursive arrangements in English classes are English and specific terms related to teaching and learning English as a foreign language. Material-economic arrangements are physical, financial resources that make doings of practices possible (Mahon et al., 2017). For example, material-economic arrangements of an English class are tables and chairs in the classroom, timetable, curriculum, and class size. Thanks to these arrangements, teachers' teaching and students' learning are enabled or constrained. Social-political arrangements are resources that shape relatings of practices (Mahon et al., 2017). In an English class, social-political arrangements are class rules, the hierarchies in the class and at the school as well as the

teachers' code of conduct. Constrained and enabled by these arrangements, teachers perform their role of teaching in the class while students are responsible for learning under their instructions.

Another important aspect of the theory is the emphasis it gives to practice landscapes and traditions. That is, practices are not fixed and constant but, instead, they are constantly changing and evolving (Kemmis & Edwards-Groves, 2018). These developments are often in response to the contexts in which the practices are carried out, but they can also arise through the actions of and interactions among the various participants. These practice traditions, which are the residue of prior sayings, doings, and relating of practices, "encapsulate the history of the happenings of the practice, allow it to be reproduced, and act as a kind of collective 'memory' of the practice" (Kemmis et al., 2014, p. 27). Practice architectures are typically embedded within the practice traditions, so it is important to take into account the history and context of the practice. In the present study, this means considering the broader socio-economic situation in Vietnam and Vietnamese culture more generally. It also requires a regard for how teacher professional development has been conducted in Vietnam, especially for EFL teachers.

The above descriptions of practice architecture theory show that this theory affords the exploration of practices through detailed analysis of practitioners' sayings, doings, and relating. The conditions enabling and constraining practices are also emphasised in this theory (Kemmis & Edwards-Groves, 2018). More importantly, the theory of practice architectures not only allows researchers to identify the reasons for current shape of practices, but it can also provide suggestions for transforming the context to achieve practice aims or projects (Kemmis et al., 2017). Thus, questions about how to minimise constraints and maximise enablers of professional development courses for teachers may be investigated and answered.

1.6 Aims and research questions

With the use of practice architecture theory, in this study, I aim to provide a holistic picture of one teacher professional development course for EFL teachers in Vietnam (hereafter called EFL Course and described more in Chapter 4). This aim is achieved through examining the practice architectures (including the practice traditions) of EFL

Course and investigating how these shape the activities of the course as well as their impact on teachers' teaching after the course.

To better understand EFL Course, the teacher educators' and the teachers' prior expectations of the course and the perceptions of the course following its completion are explored. Exploring these aspects both for teachers and for teacher educators allows for a richer understanding of the course and its impacts on the participants. The picture of EFL Course is also complemented by my perceptions as a researcher who does not have any relationship with the professional development course – I was not involved in the design of the course, and I do not have any role in determining its outcomes.

The aims of the study are achieved by answering three research questions:

- 1) What are the practice architectures of EFL Course and how do these practice architectures shape the activities of the course?
- 2) What are the practice architectures of teachers' teaching practices in their school setting, and how do these practice architectures shape their teaching practices after the course?
- 3) How do the teachers and teacher educators perceive the effectiveness of EFL Course?

It is important to note that this study focuses particularly on teachers' teaching as an outcome of the course that is worthy of careful attention. That is because an important way to consider the effectiveness of any teacher professional development course is to examine whether and how it can change teachers' practices (Desimone, 2009; Guskey, 2002). In addition, the reference to "teachers' classrooms" in the second research question is not limited to the literal meaning of the word "classrooms". Rather, it refers to wherever teachers' teaching takes place, such as in a microteaching session with colleagues.

1.7 Significance of the study

Seeking answers to the above research questions is of significance in terms of practice and theory in the field of EFL teacher professional development.

In terms of practice, this study is necessary in the Vietnamese context. Specifically, although the NFL2020 in Vietnam has been criticised extensively in the media (The

World and Vietnam Report, 2016; Tien Phong News, 2018), this study is, to my knowledge, the first to examine a professional development course for EFL lower-secondary teachers sponsored by this project. Thus, it may contribute to answering public questions about the effectiveness of the NFL2020.

This study could also provide suggestions about teacher professional development for educational stakeholders in Vietnam and other developing countries. Specifically, this course is explored through the perceptions of teachers and teacher educators in combination with my observations as researcher who previously participated in a similar course sponsored by the NFL2020 but who does not have any role in the provision of the course. Thus, this study could provide a holistic picture of teacher professional development in Vietnam. From this picture, an understanding of the factors affecting the effectiveness of EFL teacher professional development courses more generally may be achieved. This, in turn, could support and enhance the enactment of educational policies and the provision of teacher professional development programs more broadly. Many developing countries have also undertaken reforms in the teaching and learning English (see Bolton, 2008; Hashimoto, 2018a); therefore, the knowledge gained from this study about teacher professional development courses may benefit international educators as well.

In terms of theory, this study contributes to the growing body of research that applies practice architecture theory. The literature of practice architecture theory includes a small number of studies about teacher professional development. These studies focus on new approaches of teacher professional development such as mentoring (Pennanen et al., 2016) and cooperative learning (Goodyear et al., 2017). However, traditional approaches such as EFL Course, in which a teacher educator predominantly gives lectures to teachers, are neglected. Therefore, it is necessary to conduct a study using practice architecture theory to explore factors shaping the effectiveness of a national professional development course and teachers' teaching practices. From this implementation, the study may reveal different layers of teacher professional development—from the micro level of teachers and teacher educators to the meso level of the school, and to the macro level of the broader socioeconomic context. Based on such an analysis, a balanced view of human and contextual factors in teacher professional development may be achieved, from which researchers may have suggestions for conceptualising teacher professional development.

1.8 Structure of the thesis

This thesis comprises seven chapters. This first chapter, *Introduction*, provides a rationale for the study and contains the research problem. It also provides explanations for the significance of the study and the context of the study within the broader educational context in Vietnam. The chapter also briefly introduces the theory of practice architectures as the theoretical framework for the study.

The second chapter, *Literature Review*, provides a review of relevant studies about teacher professional development. This chapter covers a range of issues in research on teacher professional development from conceptualisation of teacher professional development to evaluation of teacher professional development. In this chapter, teacher professional development in Vietnam is discussed, and then a gap in the current literature about teacher professional development is identified for the study.

The use of practice architectures as the theoretical framework of the study is discussed in the third chapter, *Theoretical Framework*. This topic is treated by first introducing the origin of practice architecture theory, then discussing the key ideas of the theory. This chapter also analyses how practice architecture theory has been used in the field, from which reasons for choosing this theory as the theoretical framework for the present study are uncovered.

The research methodology is elaborated in the fourth chapter, *Methodology*. In this chapter, detailed information about the course, the participants, and the research instruments is provided. Also, strategies to guarantee validity and reliability of the study are discussed. The ethical considerations of the study are also reviewed.

The findings of this study are presented in Chapter 5, *Findings*, which is a report of the main findings identified through the process of data collection and data analysis. The most important findings are then discussed, compared, contrasted, and considered in light of the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 and the practice architecture theory in Chapter 6, *Discussion*.

Chapter 7, *Conclusion*, recaps the major findings of the study and provides answers to the three research questions. In addition, implications for educational policymakers,

course providers, teacher educators, and teachers are offered. This chapter concludes with consideration of the limitations of the study and some suggestions for further research.

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a review of research literature relevant to the study. In so doing, a number of issues in the literature of teacher professional development are reported. First, to have a clear understanding of teacher professional development, different definitions of teacher professional development are discussed and compared with other terms such as teacher professional learning, inservice training, and staff development. Because teacher professional development is intended to create changes in teachers and covers teacher learning, models of teacher change and teacher learning under the effects of professional development are reviewed. After that, there is a discussion of different kinds of teacher professional development activities. Impacts of teacher professional development programs were then reported. Characteristics of effective teacher professional development are examined as an explanation for different outcomes in teaching and learning due to teacher professional development programs. This chapter also provides an overview of evaluation in teacher professional development and highlights the particular features of teacher professional development for teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) with particular reference to the differences between professional development in EFL and other subjects. After that, teacher professional development in the context of teaching and learning English in Vietnam is reported. To conclude the chapter, a research gap is identified for the present study.

2.2 Teacher professional development: Definition and distinction from teacher professional learning

Teacher professional development has been defined in different ways. Lieberman (1995) considered teacher professional development to be teachers' continuous study to improve student performance and school quality. Guskey's (2002) understanding is rather abstract in that he acknowledged teacher professional development as an "intentional, ongoing, and systemic process" (p. 16). Villegas-Reimers (2003) regarded teacher professional development to be "a long-term process that includes regular opportunities and experiences planned systematically to promote growth and development in the

profession” (p. 12). Bouffard and Little (2004) pointed out that teacher professional development comprises all educational activities performed to improve educators’ knowledge and skills. According to Desimone (2011), these activities include formal and informal events (these include seminars, workshops, courses, conferences, and teachers’ discussions), as well as group and individual activities (such as mentoring, co-teaching, observation, and reflection). However, Shagrir (2012) limited teacher professional development at systematic activities in which teachers can expand their knowledge and skills. Evans (2014) argued that teacher professional development is the process in which teachers’ practice is improved over an extended period of time. In the meantime, Darling-Hammond et al. (2017) considered teacher professional development as structured professional learning which can facilitate teachers’ practices and improve students’ achievements.

These definitions show both consensus and lack of consensus in conceptualising teacher professional development. In terms of consensus, all the researchers have considered teacher professional development to be activities that improve teachers’ profession, which encompasses teachers’ knowledge, beliefs, and practices. This way of defining teacher professional development seems to assume that teacher professional development is a remedy for deficiencies in teachers’ careers rather than related to teachers’ lifelong learning process when they enter the teaching profession (Webster-Wright, 2009). In addition, when teacher professional development is defined, the context in which it occurs is generally not taken into account despite the ways that context can influence the activities and outcomes of teacher professional development. This way may lead to the separation of teacher professional development from its context (Johnson et al., 2011).

In terms of lack of consensus, these definitions reflect different views about teacher professional development. Although Lieberman (1995), Guskey (2002), and Villegas-Reimers (2003) argued that teacher professional development comprises a range of purposeful activities performed by teachers, schools, and other social organisations over a long period, Bouffard and Little (2004) and Desimone (2011) conceptualised teacher professional development through one-off or informal activities such as seminars, conferences, and teachers’ discussions. Moreover, whereas some researchers linked teacher professional development to students when arguing that teacher professional

development can improve students' learning outcomes (see, e.g., Lieberman, 1995; Darling-Hammond et al, 2017), others only related it to teachers (Evans, 2014) because it can take considerable time for teacher professional development activities to have any flow on effect to influence students' achievement (Ono & Ferreira, 2010).

Another issue where there is a lack of consensus concerns how the term teacher professional development has been used interchangeably with other activities such as teacher professional learning, staff development, and inservice training (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009; Guskey, 2002; Kosko & Wilkins, 2009). Tynjälä and Heikkinen (2011) combined these terms into learning and professional development, which they defined as an ongoing process of learning throughout a teacher's career. It is noteworthy that the learning in this definition consists of both formal and informal activities. Such a combination can lead to ambiguity in researching and understanding teacher professional development.

Teacher professional development is distinguishable from other terms, especially teacher professional learning. Defining teacher professional development as activities designed to improve teachers' knowledge and practices, Fullan (2007a) asserted that those activities are part of professional learning which is all learning activities that teachers undertake in their daily lives to improve their teaching. To some extent, teacher professional learning can be seen as the goal of professional development activities (Boylan et al., 2018). Effective teacher professional development requires teachers to engage in their own professional learning. In this sense, teacher professional learning is the stable growth in teacher expertise from which teachers' practices and students' achievements are enhanced (New South Wales Institute of Teachers, 2007). As such, teacher professional development and teacher professional learning can be defined as interrelated constructs. Another feature to distinguish teacher professional development and teacher professional learning lies in the way they are performed. Teacher professional development is activities organised for teachers by educational stakeholders whereas teacher professional learning comes from teachers themselves due to their professional needs (Durksen et al., 2017).

Although both teacher professional development and teacher professional learning share the same purpose—namely, to improve teachers' practices and enhance students'

learning—teacher professional development is organised formally whereas teacher professional learning occurs both formally and informally (Borko, 2004). Darling-Hammond et al. (2017) advocated this conceptualisation by considering teacher professional development to be “structured professional learning” and emphasised that teachers’ practices and students’ learning outcomes are improved only in the case of effective teacher professional development. Whereas teacher professional learning is concerned with the process of change in an individual teacher’s knowledge, skills, and attitudes, teacher professional development does not end at these individual changes. Rather, it involves other related professional issues such as teacher identity, school development, and especially student learning (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Fraser et al., 2007). Teacher professional development also includes the processes by which the knowledge and skills teachers obtain from their learning are implemented in their practices. This understanding distinguishes teacher professional development from inservice training, which is described as a “model of teacher learning in which outside experts supply teachers with knowledge they lack” and from staff development, which is “teachers implementing new programs in response to external mandates” (Feiman-Nemser, 2001, p.108).

The interchangeable use of terms relating to teacher professional development and other activities such as staff development or teacher professional learning may affect the focus of teacher professional development programs. For example, if policymakers equate teacher professional development with staff development, they may focus too much on systematic formal activities such as training courses while ignoring other forms of teacher professional development such as mentoring or Lesson Study (Yoshida, 1999). Therefore, providing an exact understanding of teacher professional development is necessary.

Drawing together the previous definitions of teacher professional development from the literature, as well as the distinctions it has from teacher professional learning, inservice training, and staff development, in the present study, teacher professional development is defined as follows:

Formal teacher professional learning activities organised systematically by educational stakeholders such as school districts, schools, teacher educators,

or teachers themselves over an extended period of time to improve teachers' professional knowledge, skills, and attitudes, from which, under a supportive context, teachers' practices and students' learning can be enhanced.

2.3 Teacher learning and teacher change in teacher professional development

2.3.1 Models of teacher change and teacher learning

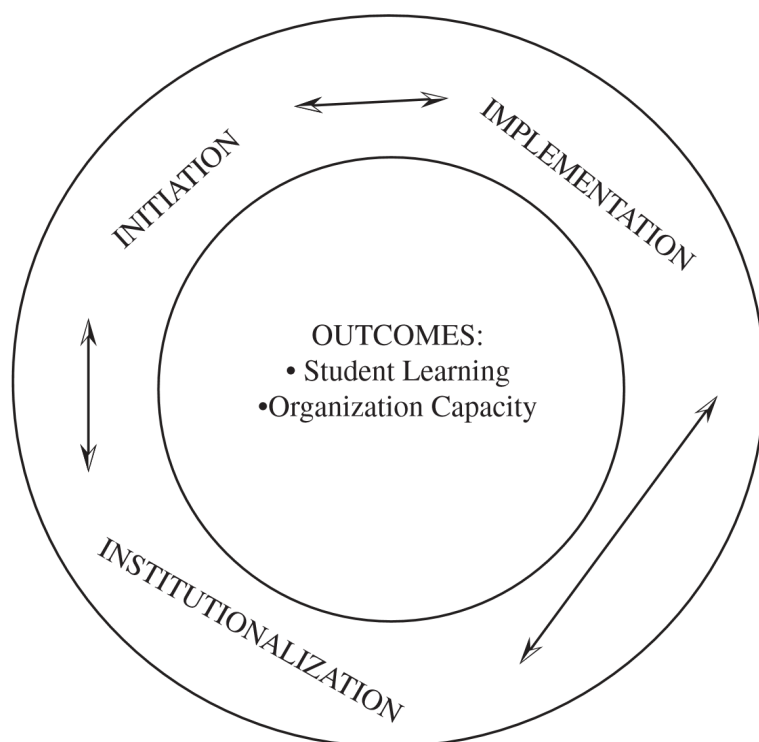
Because teacher professional development refers to the process of changing teachers' knowledge, skills, beliefs, and practices (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017), the mechanisms of teacher learning and change need to be explored to understand the impact of teacher professional development. In this section, six models of teacher learning and change that are widely cited in the literature are discussed.

Fullan (2007b) described the educational change process in three phases: initiation, implementation, and continuation or institutionalisation. Initiation refers to the process in which a change is introduced, analysed, and then adopted. Implementation refers to the time during which ideas of change and reform are put into practice. Continuation involves the process through which teachers reflect on the change that they made in the first phase (initiation), then decide whether to continue adopting the change.

These three phases can then create outcomes such as improvement in students' learning or school improvements. This process of change is illustrated in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1

Fullan's (2007b, p. 66) Simplified Overview of the Change Process



As can be seen in Figure 2.1, the relationship between the phases of initiation, implementation, and continuation is interactive, meaning that change in one phase can provide feedback about the previous phase and information for the next phase. Based on the feedback, there may be adjustments in the previous phase as well as information for making decisions in the next phase. For example, when a teacher decides to apply a new teaching approach (initiation), there will be a change in their practice (implementation). During the process of implementation, teachers can recognise shortcomings of the new teaching approach, so they may change the way they apply the approach, and this change can also lead to some change in the institutionalisation phase; for example, to stop choosing the new teaching approach. The two-way interactions are supported by the fact that Fullan's (2007b) model is derived from "reflective action" (p. 41) which means that behaviours change once there is a change in beliefs.

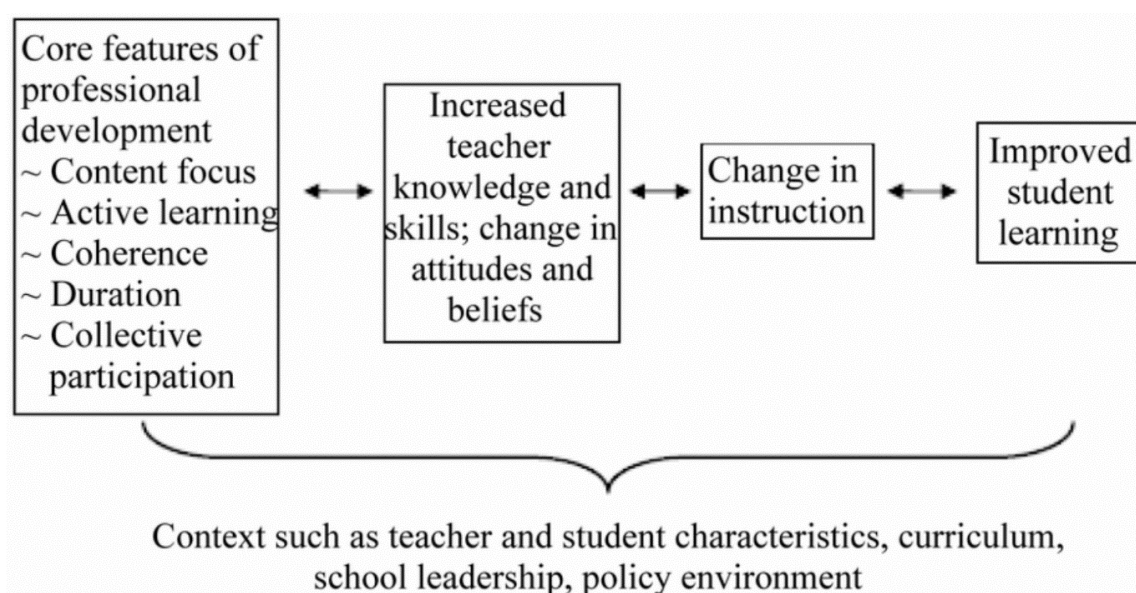
Another noteworthy point in Fullan's (2007b) model is the appearance of the institutionalisation phase, which comes before the outcome of the change process. This appearance confirms that educational change cannot always produce immediate

outcomes. Change takes time (Ono & Ferreira, 2010); however, this change process is illustrated as a closed circle, raising a question of what motivates the changes.

The question of what motivates changes in Fullan's (2007b) model can be answered somewhat by Desimone's (2009) conceptual framework for studying the outcomes of professional development on teachers and students. This framework is shown in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2

Desimone's (2009, p. 185) Conceptual Framework for Studying the Effect of Professional Development on Teachers and Students



Desimone's (2009) framework illustrates how change starts from teacher professional development. This change then leads to change in teacher knowledge and skills, attitudes, and beliefs, and then change in practice and the outcome is improved student learning. This conceptual framework identifies the two-way relationships between professional development, teachers' knowledge and beliefs, teachers' practice, and student learning. These relationships are affected by the context of teacher professional development, consisting of teacher and student characteristics, curriculum, school leadership, and the policy environment.

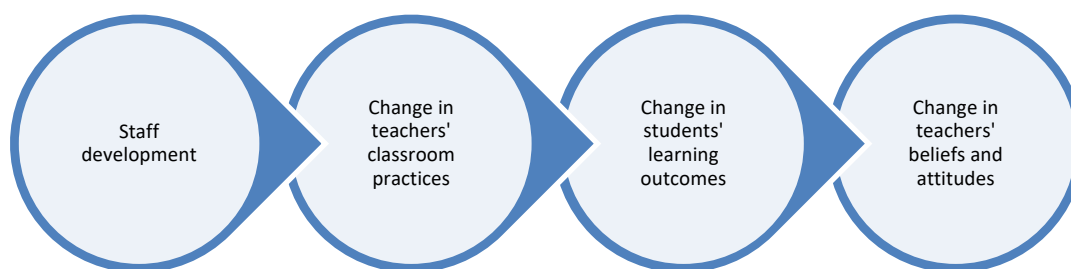
Desimone's (2009) framework does not explain why teacher professional development can lead to a change. Instead, it claims that provided a teacher professional development

program possesses certain features (as shown in Figure 2.2), there will be changes in teachers' beliefs and practices, and then student learning outcomes. In reality, however, different patterns of teacher change in professional development can exist. These patterns include changes in beliefs but not in practices, or changes in practices but not in beliefs (O. Lee et al., 2004; Brinkerhoff, 2006; Tam, 2015). Yang et al. (2020) also revealed that the professional development program in their study changed teachers' practices, but hardly improved teachers' knowledge.

In contrast with Fullan's (2007b) and Desimone's (2009) views, Guskey (2002) argued that the process of teacher change should begin with change in teachers' practices, then in students' learning outcomes, and finally in teachers' beliefs and attitudes (Figure 2.3).

Figure 2.3

Guskey's (2002) Model of Teacher Change Process



Guskey's (2002) model of teacher change derives from his view that teachers' beliefs and attitudes change only when teachers witness the effects of their practice on students' learning. However, Guskey (2002) noticed that before there are changes in teachers' practices, teachers need to have some doubts about their current practices. From this process, they may experiment with the new teaching approach in their lessons, leading to changes in their classroom practices. After witnessing the effectiveness of the new teaching approach, the teachers' beliefs can then change.

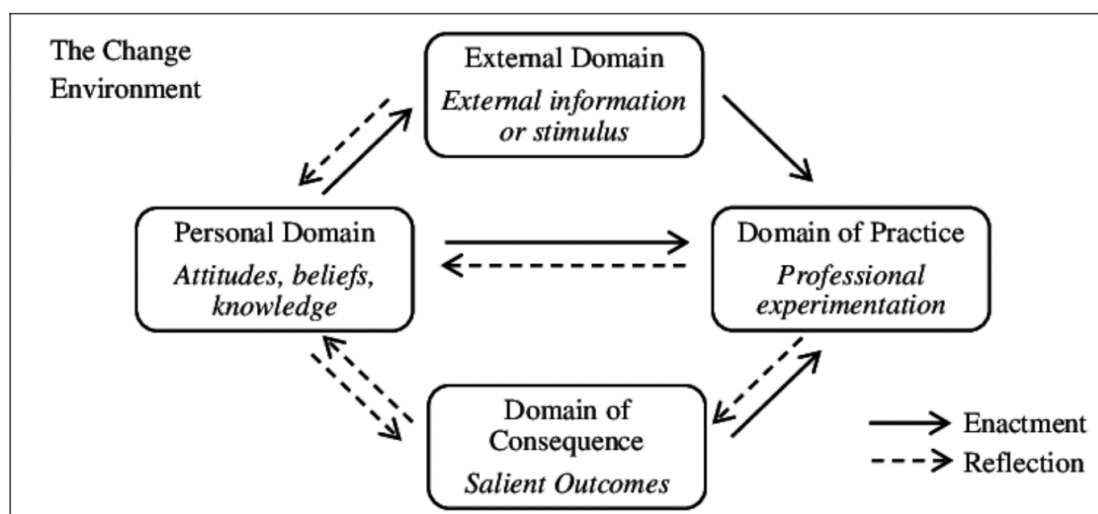
Guskey's (2002) acknowledgement of teachers' doubts in his model presents a complex issue not only in his model of change but in other models such as those of Desimone (2009) and Fullan (2007b). This issue is determining what change comes first:

teachers' beliefs or teachers' practices. Currently, it appears that the literature on this issue is divided. Some studies have indicated that teachers' beliefs lead to teachers' practices (see, e.g., Borg, 2011), while other studies provided evidence that when teachers demonstrated some change in their classroom practices, there were changes in their beliefs (see, e.g., Kang & Cheng, 2014). Moreover, although Desimone (2009) and Fullan (2007b) considered improved students' learning outcomes to be the goal of the change process, in Guskey's (2002) model, student improvement is the source of change in teachers' beliefs and attitudes. Guskey (2002), therefore, raised the importance of teachers' beliefs and attitudes in professional development.

Believing that teacher change in professional development belongs to "change as growth or learning" (p. 948), Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002) proposed the Interconnected Model of Teacher Professional Growth, shown in Figure 2.4.

Figure 2.4

The Interconnected Model of Teacher Professional Growth (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002)



Similar to Guskey's (2002) model, the Interconnected Model of Teacher Professional Growth consists of four components: professional development, teachers' beliefs and attitudes, teachers' practice, and students' learning outcomes, though these are named as the external domain, personal domain, domain of practice, and domain of consequence, respectively. The external domain concerns factors that provide new information and stimulus to the change process, such as a professional development course focusing on new teaching approaches. The personal domain consists of teachers' beliefs, attitudes,

and knowledge. The domain of practice is teachers' applications of ideas gathered from the external domain and implemented in their practice. The domain of consequence includes important outcomes of teachers' applications that are evaluated by teachers themselves.

Clarke and Hollingsworth's (2002) model emphasises reciprocal relationships between the four domains through the mediating processes of enactment (also called enaction) and reflection. Enaction does not mean "acting". Acting means simply performing an activity. Acting occurs in the domain of practice. Enaction is the process of transferring knowledge gained from teacher professional development, teachers' new beliefs, or results of teachers' implementation into teachers' actions. Enaction is the link between the domain of practice with the three other domains. Specifically, new information or stimulus in the external domain is turned into action in the domain of practice; teachers' attitudes, beliefs, and knowledge are incorporated into their practice through enaction process; and the value of the results gained from professional experimentation is shown by potential adjustments in subsequent practices in the domain of practice. There exists an enactment pathway connecting the personal domain and the external domain, which means that teachers' change in beliefs leads to their subsequent pursuit of a new stimulus and information to improve their profession.

Reflection is defined as the process by which teachers recall their previous activities to decide what they should do in the future. Therefore, three of five reflective arrows in Figure 2.4 connect the personal domain with other domains. These reflective arrows can be understood as follows: new information or stimulus is recalled in teachers' attitudes, beliefs, and knowledge in the personal domain through reflecting; what teachers do in the domain of practice provides feedback to their attitudes, beliefs, and knowledge; and the outcomes of their implementation in the domain of consequence help them evaluate what they believe. There are two reflective arrows connecting domain of consequence with the domain of practice and the personal domain. The reflective arrow from the domain of practice to the domain of consequence refers to teachers' interpretation of salient outcomes. The reflective arrow from the personal domain to the domain of consequence is related to teachers' re-evaluation of salient outcomes.

The Interconnected Model of Teacher Professional Growth illustrates the teacher change cycle based on the reciprocal relationships among four domains. Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002) acknowledged that change in one domain does not always lead to change in the other domains. However, when a change occurs, it may lead to either a change sequence or growth networks. Change sequences are identified when change in one domain leads to change in one or two other domains, but going no further, whereas growth networks refer to continuous changes among domains. For example, when a teacher applies a teaching strategy from a professional development course, there will be a connection between the external domain and domain of practice through the process of enaction. This connection creates the change sequence. After applying and witnessing the outcomes of the application (domain of consequence), a teacher might feel satisfied (personal domain) and continuously refine her practice (domain of practice). Thus, a growth network is created through the process of continuous enaction and reflection.

In comparison with growth networks, the existence of change sequences is temporary because change sequences lack ongoing refinement in practice and continuous reflection in teachers' beliefs. Therefore, the model emphasises that the goal of professional development should be growth networks, which are stable and lasting change sequences.

The changes in the four domains occur in a change environment that can be referred to as contextual factors. Contextual factors can either enable or constrain the change process. For example, teachers' application of a new teaching technique gained from a professional development course can be constrained by educational policies and a shortage of teaching facilities. On the other hand, teachers' application can be facilitated by collaboration among colleagues and the leadership practices at their school.

One of the important strengths of Clarke and Hollingsworth's (2002) model lies in its encompassing other linear models such as Guskey's (2002) and Desimone's (2009). Change in the external domain leads to change in practice through enaction, to consequence through reflection, and personal domain through reflection, which is similar to Guskey's (2002) model. In addition, it is similar to Desimone's (2009) model when considering the external domain, personal domain, domain of practice and domain of consequence. Different models encompassed in Clarke and Hollingsworth's (2002) model suggest that the change in teachers can go in any direction and can start from any

domain. The Interconnected Model of Teacher Growth also focuses on teachers' growth rather than teacher change with the perspective that teachers' growth is more stable than is teacher change because it connects more than two domains. In addition, the Interconnected Model acknowledges that teachers may experience different processes and rates of professional growth, so attention to individual teachers when designing professional development programs is recommended.

Although the above models concern teacher change in relation to other factors in teachers' professional lives, Evans (2014) explored teacher change at the teacher level only. In order to answer the question about why teachers change, Evans (2014) proposed the recognition of something as a "better way" of doing things to be the most important motivating factor. In other words, teachers apply a new teaching strategy only when they recognise that this new teaching strategy is a better way to teach students than is their current practice. In addition, Evans (2014) argued that professional development is multidimensional, occurring in three groups of dimensions of teacher professionalism: behavioural components, attitudinal components, and intellectual components. This is depicted in Figure 2.5.

Figure 2.5

Dimensions of Professional Development in Evans' (2014) Model

Behavioural development	Attitudinal development	Intellectual development
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Processual change • Procedural change • Productive change • Competential change 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceptual change • Evaluative change • Motivational change 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Epistemological change • Rationalistic change • Comprehensive change • Analytical change

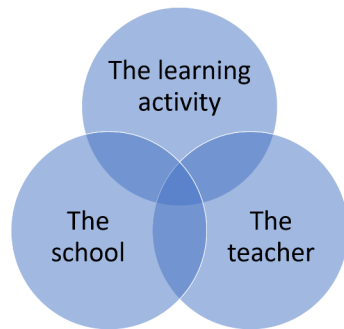
Teachers' recognition of something as a "better way" plays an important role in teacher professional development. Although teacher professional development is multi-dimensional, a single professional development course cannot create change in all 11 dimensions. In addition, Evans (2014) argued that, although the recognition of something as a "better way" is required for the professional development of an individual, it is not a requirement for professional development imposed on individuals. In other words, a

professional development provider can ask teachers to apply some new teaching practices even when the teachers do not regard those practices as better. In this way, professional development creates change only in the behavioural components of teaching professionalism, but attitudinal development and intellectual development require the recognition of something being better. Therefore, Evans (2014) suggested that professional development programs should stimulate teachers' recognition of something being better, from which attitudinal and intellectual development can follow. Consequently, the teacher professional development that is achieved would be long-lasting.

The strength of Evans' (2014) model is an intention to explain why teachers change, something that the previously described models do not consider. In addition, by categorising change into three groups of dimensions, Evans' (2014) model provides suggestions for designing teacher professional development. Evans' (2014) model indicates that enduring improvement in teachers' profession can be achieved when teacher professional development programs stimulate teachers' recognition of better approaches in comparison with what they are using. The model also emphasises the importance of attitudinal and intellectual dimensions in teacher professional development. Only when teacher professional development creates changes or improvement in those dimensions, or, in other words, increases teachers' motivation and changes teachers' worldviews, will teachers' profession be improved.

The limitation of Evans' model lies in its failure to acknowledge contextual influences. Despite teachers' recognition of something being better, whether they can change or not also depends on the enablers and constraints of their professional context (Fischer et al., 2018; Grundy & Robison, 2004).

Answering the question of why professional development affects teachers differently, Opfer and Pedder's (2011) model of nested systems approaches teacher change from the process of teacher learning. In their model, teacher learning systems consist of three subsystems, namely the teacher, the school, and the learning activity. Each of these subsystems includes its own subsystems; for example, teachers' beliefs and knowledge in the teacher system, collective beliefs in the school system, or goals in the learning activity system. Opfer and Pedder's (2011) model is represented in Figure 2.6.

Figure 2.6*Opfer and Pedder's (2011) Model of Nested Systems*

Opfer and Pedder's (2011) model of nested systems is characterised by the interaction between the teacher, the school, and the learning activity. The interaction between these systems determines the disparity in learning of different teachers. Specifically, teachers engage in a learning activity and bring with them an orientation to learning influenced by their beliefs, knowledge, experiences, and practices. To achieve teacher learning and change, a learning activity needs to cause dissonance between some aspects of the teachers' orientation to learning, and the different levels of dissonance lead to different types of teacher learning. For example, when a teacher professional development program can make teachers doubt their practices, there is dissonance between their beliefs and practices. The level of self-doubt will determine how teachers learn and change.

In addition, the interactions between teachers and learning activities are constrained and enabled in the context of the school. The school has its own orientation to learning and improvement, which includes its collective beliefs, norms, and practices. Moreover, the school's orientation to learning has two types: an internal and external orientation. The internal orientation to learning refers to the school's preference for reflection on its own resources whereas the external orientation refers to the school's preference for using innovative approaches to improve school quality.

In order to achieve teacher learning and organisational learning, the school has to balance its external and internal orientation to learning. This means that the school needs to both reflect on its practices and implement new ideas to improve those practices. If the school cares only about maintaining its resources, but not learning new things from outside, school quality cannot be improved. If the school pays too much attention to learning new things, but does not reflect on its current situation, the new things may not

be implemented suitably at the school level. The learning activity also has to trigger dissonance in the school's orientation by creating misalignment between and among its collective practices and beliefs. For example, teacher professional development about student-centred approaches may show teachers at a school the benefits of student-centred teaching approaches. These benefits, on the one hand, help individual teachers to reflect on their own practices. On the other hand, because individual teachers contribute to forming collective beliefs, the benefits the teachers witness from the course may affect collective beliefs. There may be dissonance or conflict between individual teachers' beliefs, and, when more teachers believe in the student-centred approaches, collective beliefs are changed, and reforms at a school level may occur.

Similar to Evans' (2014) model, Opfer and Pedder's (2011) model of nested systems can explicate the origin of the diversity in teacher learning and change. Whereas in Evans' (2014) model, it is the recognition of something being a better way, in Opfer and Pedder's (2011) model, the teacher's orientation to learning acts as the mediator linking the three systems. Moreover, by situating these three systems in a larger system such as the system of teacher professional learning, and by acknowledging the existence of subsystems, Opfer and Pedder's (2011) model shows the complexity of teacher professional development.

2.3.2 Summary

In summary, the six aforementioned models of teacher learning and change share similarities and differences. In terms of similarities, these models recognise teacher professional development to be a vital source for educational change. Also, they all attempt to explain the mechanism of teacher change and learning despite dealing with it in different directions. In addition to differences in modelling teacher learning and change, each model has its own value in contributing to teacher professional development research. Causal models such as those of Fullan (2007b), Desimone (2009), and Guskey (2002) provide background for constructing components of teacher learning and change and introduce features of effective professional development. These components are teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and practices, and students' learning outcomes. Only teacher professional development programs that are designed to be content-focused, to facilitate active learning, and be consistent with school practices can create change in

each component. Clarke and Hollingsworth's (2002) Interconnected Model of Teacher Growth, Evans' (2014) recognition of something as being better, and Opfer and Pedder's (2011) nested systems manage to explicate the complexity and diversity in teacher change and learning.

More importantly, these models all recognise the potential influence of teacher professional development in creating long-lasting improvements in teachers' practices. This recognition not only suggests the important role of teacher professional development in improving teacher and school quality but also suggests different ways to approach teacher change. Finally, exploring these six models of teacher change and learning shows that studying teacher professional development programs should not be limited to the programs themselves. To understand teacher professional development, it is necessary to investigate it in its context with related factors.

2.4 Types of teacher professional development

The literature of teacher professional development shows that there are two ways of categorising teacher professional development programs. One is based on their characteristics like time, place, and teacher participation. The other is based on the mode of delivery.

Based on their characteristics, teacher professional development programs are divided into traditional and reform or innovative types (Garet et al., 2001; Van Veen et al., 2012). Traditional types are defined as activities organised out of school time with the participation of teacher educators and teachers in the role of learners. Examples of these types include workshops, institutes, courses, and conferences. Reform types or innovative types are often organised regularly during the school year and can be incorporated in teachers' lessons by such means as mentoring or coaching (Lofthouse & Hall (2014).

Regarding the effects of teacher professional development types in teacher professional development, it appears that reform or innovative types are more favourable than traditional types (Harwell, 2003). This is because, in most countries, innovative teacher professional development programs increase teachers' sense of efficacy more than do traditional programs (Avalos, 2011; Harwell, 2003). Moreover, teachers become more active when participating in innovative professional development programs (Van

Veen et al., 2012). More importantly, in comparison with innovative programs, although traditional professional development programs are suitable for providing information, they are limited in transferring what teachers learn from teacher professional development programs to the teachers' practice (Darasawang, 2006).

Based on mode of delivery, teacher professional development programs consist of online, face-to-face, and blended types. Although these programs are delivered differently, there is a consensus that delivery mode does not exert a significant influence on teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and classroom practices, or on students' learning outcomes (Fishman et al., 2013; Harwell, 2003). However, blended professional development types appear to be in favour because of their strengths in exploiting the value of each single type in improving teachers' performance and students' learning (Henderson, 2007; Owston et al., 2008).

2.5 Impacts of teacher professional development programs on teachers

Models of teacher change and learning indicate that teacher professional development programs are capable of creating changes in teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and practices (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002; Desimone, 2009; Guskey, 2002; Opfer & Pedder, 2011). Many studies have been conducted on teacher professional development approaches and programs to explore the fundamentals of these models (Brady et al., 2009; Gore et al., 2017; Kiemer et al., 2018; Öztürk, 2019; Walker et al., 2012; Xie et al., 2017; Yoshikawa et al., 2015). Brady et al. (2009) conducted a study on the effectiveness of an intensive professional development program in improving Year 1 teachers' knowledge of phonological awareness and phonics. This professional development program consisted of 2-day summer session, frequent in-class support from highly knowledgeable mentors for a year, and monthly workshops. Before the professional development program, the participating teachers demonstrated weak phonological awareness and phonics concepts. However, after the program, there was a significant increase in the teachers' knowledge. This increase was attributed to two possible causes. First, the year-long professional development program focused only on phonological awareness and phonics concepts, so the teachers had a large amount of time for these topics. Second, the weekly support of knowledgeable mentors for each individual teacher during the year may also have influenced the outcome of the study.

Another example is the implementation of Quality Teaching Rounds in a study by Gore et al. (2017). These researchers constructed a professional development program in which four teachers worked in a professional learning community to conduct teaching rounds consisting of reading discussion, observation, coding, and discussion. At the end of the first year of this program, the quality of teaching improved significantly. More importantly, changes in the teachers' teaching could be detected after only one set of teaching rounds. The outcomes are then explained as coming from the use of the quality teaching framework as the knowledge base for participating teachers. Teacher collaboration in which there are no dominant members is another reason for the positive impact of Quality Teaching Rounds on the teachers' teaching quality. Finally, professional learning communities among teachers of different subjects created by Quality Teaching Rounds led to the construction of a learning culture at school; consequently, the teaching quality at the school was improved. These positive outcomes from teacher professional development programs confirmed Supovitz and Turner's (2000) findings about the positive correlation between the quantity of professional development with teachers' teaching practices and classroom culture.

It is noteworthy that these studies were not carried out in a laboratory where all variables can be controlled. Instead, they were conducted in sociocultural contexts that may affect their findings. Kutaka et al. (2017) evaluated the effectiveness of a mathematics specialist program named Primarily Math for inservice elementary teachers in Nesbraka over 4 years. They found that the treatment group of teachers gained an increase in their content knowledge and possessed more positive attitudes towards teacher learning. However, during the time this experimental study was conducted, the school district had programs focusing on students' mathematics achievement and curriculum reform. Therefore, it may be difficult to assert that the changes in teachers in this study are due to Primarily Math alone. Gupta and Lee (2020) conducted a mixed methods study on the impact of a professional development program on the elementary literacy of 12 teachers in Year 4 and 5. The effectiveness of the program, which consisted of training workshops and courses on reading and mathematics, was evaluated through teacher questionnaires, teacher grades in the course, classroom observations, and student achievement scores related to reading. The teachers reported they mastered the content and skills after the program. However, related to the application of skills and strategies, the classroom observations showed a mixed result. Some skills and strategies were

applied while others were not. In addition, some strategies and skills had been implemented before the program. Similar to Kutaka et al. (2017), the results of Gupta and Lee's (2020) study may also be attributed to other contextual factors like the teacher professional development courses that teachers in this study received during the time its interventions were provided to the teachers.

The acknowledgement of contextual factors in the above studies as well as in models of teacher change indicates that teacher change is not guaranteed. Not all teacher professional development programs produce changes in teachers and teaching (Hill, 2009). O. Lee et al. (2004) evaluated the effectiveness of a teacher professional development on teachers' beliefs and practices of inquiry-based science at primary school. This teacher professional development program was constituted by workshops and instructional units. Although the teachers in their study reported an increase in their knowledge of science contents and beliefs about science instruction with diverse student groups, observation revealed that their teaching practices did not change. Lu et al. (2019) also found that a professional development program, the National Teaching Training Program in China, increased teachers' mathematics teaching knowledge, but these teachers did not transfer the gains in their knowledge to their teaching practices.

The transfer of teachers' knowledge into practices is related to the sustainability of professional development programs. It is true that teachers improve their knowledge, but it does not mean that they can retain all the ideas. Goldschmidt and Phelps (2010) confirmed that teacher professional development improved teachers' knowledge, but they discovered that only half of the knowledge gained by teachers from these programs was sustained 6 months after the programs. Wolf and Peele (2019) also pointed out that, although professional programs can improve teachers' classroom practices, the effect of these programs gradually decreases during the year, and only a small amount of what teachers learned from professional development programs was maintained in the process of implementation.

Professional development can bring about sustained and effective outcomes for teachers if certain conditions are met (Van den Bergh et al., 2014). Different results related to the impacts of teacher professional development on teachers' practices demonstrate a need for research to identify the conditions that teacher professional

development programs should have in order to create and sustain teacher change. Features of effective teacher professional development programs, which are discussed in the next section, can provide information about those conditions.

2.6 Features in the design of effective teacher professional development

Numerous studies have been conducted to examine the features of effective teacher professional development courses (see, e.g., Garet et al., 2001; Hunzicker, 2011; Soine & Lumpe, 2014). From those studies, features in the design of effective teacher professional development include:

- Teacher focus (Bound, 2011; Jennifer & Lock, 2006)
- High-quality teacher educators (Huang & Bao, 2006; Starkey et al., 2009)
- Content focus (Harwell, 2003; American Educational Research Association, 2005)
- Coherence (Hill, 2007; Yamagata-Lynch & Haudenschild, 2009)
- Active learning (Archibald et al., 2011; Soine & Lumpe, 2014)
- Collaboration (Akiba & Liang, 2016; Hunzicker, 2011)
- Duration (Kanaya et al., 2005; Lumpe et al., 2012).

2.6.1 *Teacher focus*

As both the subjects and objects of teacher professional development programs (Avalos, 2011), teachers play a critical role in determining the effectiveness of these programs. The literature of teacher professional development revealed that teachers affect the effectiveness of teacher professional development programs through a range of personal factors like their motivations, their beliefs, their backgrounds, and their emotions.

Teacher motivation plays an important role in teacher professional development (Rukan Uddin, 2020; State, 2019). According to Scribner (1999), there are two types of teacher motivation in teacher professional development: intrinsic motivating factors and extrinsic motivating factors. Intrinsic motivating factors consist of content knowledge needs, pedagogical skill deficits, challenges to classroom management, gaps in student-centred knowledge, moral obligation, and personal interests. Teachers' extrinsic factors include remuneration and licensure requirements. As such, each teacher may have their own motivation to participate in a teacher professional development program. These

motivational factors also determine teachers' willingness to search for opportunities to improve their practices, a factor critical to the quality of teacher learning (Randi & Zeichner, 2005) and how teachers engage in a teacher professional development program (Postholm, 2012). In addition, as teachers are the critical factors determining the educational change thanks to their direct involvement in implementation process (Baker et al., 2009; Wong, 2013), when teachers' goals and motivation for participating in professional development are not satisfied by the learning activities, teachers may be challenged in their implementation. As a result, the teacher professional development programs cannot always achieve their expected outcomes.

In addition to teacher motivation, teachers' beliefs and sense of efficacy affect their participation in teacher professional development programs (Aydin et al., 2010; Geijsel et al., 2009; Çelik et al., 2013). For example, Hur and Hara's (2007) study on factors influencing the sustainability of online professional learning communities revealed that when teachers believe in the capacity of programs to improve their students' learning outcomes, they participate in those programs more actively. In addition, teachers use the knowledge acquired from professional development activities depending on their sense of efficacy (Scribner, 1999). This is because their sense of efficacy is one of motivational factors mediating the contextual effects on their teaching practices (Thoonen et al., 2011).

Teachers' backgrounds also matter. Van Driel et al. (2001) pointed out that previous teacher professional development programs were unsuccessful because teachers' existing knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes were not paid sufficient attention. In addition, teachers' backgrounds mediate the influences of context on the effectiveness of teacher professional development programs (Kwakman, 2003). In detail, in the role of practitioners in their teaching practices, teachers bring with them prior beliefs and experience to their classroom. Therefore, in a case where the teachers were educated and trained in an old educational system in which teachers' autonomy was not respected, the values of that old educational system will affect teachers' beliefs. For example, when having to decide to implement new teaching approaches learned from teacher professional development courses, these teachers may either continue their teaching with the old teaching approaches or wait for the orders from their leaders. As such, teachers' prior beliefs and experiences affect what teachers do in the present (Krečič & Ivanuš Grmek, 2008; Slonimsky, 2016).

Teachers' capacity to take pedagogical risks and change their practice is affected by their emotions (Reio, 2005). Saunders (2013) found that the teachers in her study experienced a variety of emotions when they applied knowledge from a teacher professional development program to their classrooms. These emotions can range from worry, anxiety, uncertainty, disappointment, and anger to happiness, enjoyment, confidence, and enthusiasm. Moreover, negative emotions like worry, anxiety, and uncertainty prevented teachers from the application of instructional strategies. For example, many teachers in Saunders' study reported that they felt anxious about the views of their colleagues when they implemented what they learned from the course to their class. Also, the disappointment teachers had when facing challenges from their teaching contexts contributed to their decision about whether to use the teaching strategies of the course.

In the centre of teacher professional development is teachers with their direct influence on the effectiveness of teacher professional development through their motivation, beliefs, background, and emotions. With such effects, teacher professional development programs need to place teachers into focus, from which teacher professional development programs can be customised with respect to individual teachers and their professional needs and expectations (Bound, 2011; Jennifer & Lock, 2006; Luft & Taylor, 2014).

2.6.2 High-quality teacher educators

Teacher educators play a major role in professional development programs (Nur & Short, 2019) and educational reforms (Cochran-Smith et al., 2018). There are three groups participating in facilitating teachers in these programs, namely, university-based, school-based, and community-based teacher educators (White, 2019). Supporting inservice teachers in their professional development activities is considered a necessary task for these teacher educators (Koster et al., 2005). They perform this task by using a variety of teaching strategies (Zhang et al., 2011) and knowledge (Wasik & Hindman, 2011). It is their expertise that contributes to the success of teacher professional development programs (Hill & Ball, 2004; Huang & Bao, 2006). Teacher educators' expertise in these programs includes their competence, their experiences, and their credibility (Ayvaz-Tuncel & Çobanoğlu, 2018; Bayar, 2014; Finn et al., 2009).

Teacher educators' competence can affect teachers' impressions about professional development programs. Ayvaz-Tuncel and Çobanoğlu (2018) surveyed 494 novice teachers about an induction program. Responses to an open-ended questionnaire about their views of the program indicated that the program did not make any contribution to the personal development for nearly 300 of the participants. The cause of this failure came partly from the teacher educators who were regarded by the participating teachers as unqualified and relying too much on a transmissionist approach that the teachers felt was unsuitable for their needs. Hill and Ball (2004) also identified characteristics of teacher educators as being important in their study on mathematics professional development institutes in California. They found that the success of these workshops in improving teachers' mathematics content knowledge was due to having mathematically knowledgeable teacher educators lead the workshops.

The characteristics of teacher educators were also evident in a study of professional development courses for primary English teachers in Indonesia (Zein, 2016). The teacher educators in these courses were evaluated by teacher participants as not having sufficient knowledge about teaching English to primary students. Also, the teachers reported that they did not believe that all of their teacher educators could teach English at primary school. A similar situation is found in Sutrisno and Carter's (2016) study when the teacher educators in this study did not have knowledge of the teachers' context before they taught them. Because teachers consider teacher educators to be subject specialists giving them ideas about supporting student learning (Guskey & Yoon, 2008; Halai, 2006), teacher educators' lack of practical knowledge may affect teachers' evaluation of teacher educators' competence. With competence being one important dimension of credibility (Myers & Bryant, 2004; Semlak & Pearson, 2008), the credibility of the teacher educators is challenged. Because credibility is positively correlated with outcomes of learners (Finn et al., 2009), challenging the credibility of teacher educators can lead to the failure of teacher professional development programs.

2.6.3 Content focus

A content focus means that effective professional development programs should give due attention to teachers' subject matter knowledge as the means of improving teachers' practice (Garet et al., 2001). In their study about the relationship between features of

effective professional development programs and teachers' learning, Garet et al. (2001) found a positive correlation between content focus and teachers' knowledge and skills. The more the programs emphasised content knowledge, the more teachers' knowledge and skills were improved, leading to enhanced professional practice. This finding is supported in a study by Jeanpierre et al. (2005) and Lofthouse and Hall (2014) with a belief that a content focus may create common languages among teachers, which determines the success of teacher professional development programs.

Teacher knowledge encompasses more than content knowledge. L. Shulman (1987) recommended a knowledge base for teachers that included content knowledge, but also incorporated general pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, knowledge of learners and their characteristics, knowledge of educational contexts, and knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical foundations. Among these types of knowledge, L. Shulman (1987) emphasised the importance of pedagogical content knowledge, or PCK, which he described as the combination of content knowledge and pedagogy for the purpose of teaching. It is PCK that distinguishes teachers from scholars or content experts, and a well-developed PCK is a common characteristic of experienced teachers compared with their novice counterparts (Gudmundsdottir & Shulman, 1987; J. Shulman, 1987). Therefore, high-quality teacher professional development programs should deepen teachers' capability by providing both content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge (Harwell, 2003), from which teachers and students' performance can be enhanced (Van Driel et al., 1998; American Educational Research Association, 2005).

2.6.4 Coherence

Professional development programs should be implemented in ways that can foster coherence. Coherence in teacher professional development is regarded as the alignment of the program with teachers' goals (Hill, 2007) and with other professional development programs in which teachers participate to avoid repetition and create a logical learning sequence for participants (Villegas-Reimers, 2003). Also, coherence is attained when the professional development program is consistent with the aims of national, district, and school curricula and assessment systems (Archibald et al., 2011; Van Veen et al., 2012).

Penuel et al. (2007) conducted a study to explore the effects of different characteristics of professional development on teachers' knowledge and their ability to implement the program. Survey responses from 454 teachers indicated that teachers' perceptions of the coherence between the professional program, their school district's goal of student learning, and their personal goals for professional development were strongly related to teachers' implementation.

Instead of investigating the coherence of teacher professional development programs, I. Lee (2011) described inconsistencies between teacher professional development and the educational programs of schools. He examined the benefits and challenges of an in-service teacher professional development course about teaching writing in Hong Kong from the perspectives of the participating teachers. The teachers reported some conflicts between the teaching approaches used in the program and the approaches implemented in their schools. Although their schools focused on traditional approaches such as grammar-based practice, the professional development program offered innovative methods such as genre-focused practice. However, when teachers completed the program, they reverted to their usual school approaches and the ideas from the program were not implemented. Hence any misalignment between professional development programs and school practices can become an obstacle for teachers (Yamagata-Lynch & Haudenschild, 2009).

2.6.5 Collaboration

Professional development needs to encourage collaboration among participating teachers (Archibald et al., 2011; Hunzicker, 2011). The value of collaboration lies in the feedback it can provide to teachers (Aubusson et al., 2009) and the issues in teaching that teachers can share with one another (Admiraal et al., 2016; Sjoer & Meirink, 2016). In addition, the language of collaboration contributes to the development of teachers in a community from which teachers' identity is constructed (Crafton & Kaiser, 2011). Professional development activities encouraging collaboration are more likely to improve students' learning than do activities without collaboration (Akiba & Liang, 2016). However, designing programs that incorporate teacher collaboration is not easy (Butler & Schnellert, 2012) as it is related to the balance of power between individual teachers. The

more balanced power between teachers is, the stronger their collaboration becomes (Ning et al., 2015).

Although collaboration creates a shared environment for goals and practice, it can also trigger tensions between participants (e.g., Halai, 2006; Hashimoto, 2018b). For example, some teachers may favour the use of new teaching techniques while others want to stay with the traditional ones. These tensions can challenge teachers' current beliefs and practices, allowing teachers to reflect and change (Opfer & Pedder, 2011). Based on this mechanism, many approaches of teacher professional development have been constructed focusing on teachers' collaboration, such as mentoring (Hudson, 2013), coaching (Lofthouse & Hall, 2014), instructional rounds (Marzano, 2011), Quality Teaching Rounds (Gore et al., 2017), and teacher professional learning communities (Vescio et al., 2008). These programs were effective in improving teachers' teaching practices, and one of the reasons for their success is claimed to be the collaboration between teachers and teacher educators, mentors and mentees, or between teachers themselves. Successes of those approaches in improving teachers' teaching practices show the importance of collaboration in teacher professional development course design.

2.6.6 Duration

The duration of teacher professional development programs consists of two notions: span time and contact hours (Garet et al., 2001). Span time can be calculated from the beginning of the program to the end, whereas contact hours refer to the total time that teachers receive in professional development. For example, a 2-week training course has a span time of 2 weeks but if teachers come together for only 3 hours each week the actual amount of contact would be only 6 hours.

There is a consensus that teacher professional development needs to be of sufficient duration to influence teachers' teaching and students' learning (Harwell, 2003; Hill & Ball, 2004). Long-term teacher professional development programs but not one-off workshops are believed to be able to improve teachers' professional development (Diaz-Maggioli, 2003; Posnanski, 2002). Boyle et al. (2005) found that most of the teachers in longer-term professional development programs such as mentoring, coaching, and study groups changed one or more aspects of their professional practice such as teaching styles or assessment practices.

Another study on the effect of professional development duration was conducted by Koh (2011), who compared two groups of teachers who were learning about designing authentic classroom assessment. One group participated in an ongoing and sustained professional development course, the other in short-term professional development workshops. The findings showed that the teachers of ongoing and sustained professional development increased their knowledge of authentic assessment.

The above studies confirm that teacher professional development needs to be organised over an extended period of time. However, the number of hours of professional development teachers need has not been definitively ascertained. Reviews of contact time in professional development for teachers revealed different numbers ranging from 49 hours to over 100 hours annually (Blank & de las Alas, 2009; Lumpe et al., 2012; Yoon et al., 2007). There is a risk that, if the professional development programs last too long, for example, low-intensity courses lasting more than 3 months, teachers may lose interest or concentration and therefore reduce program effectiveness (Kanaya et al., 2005).

2.6.7 Active learning

Teacher professional development programs need to include opportunities for active learning by participants. These opportunities may be observations of students like in Lesson Study (Lewis & Perry, 2014), provision of authentic inquiry experiences in inquiry teacher professional program (Capps et al., 2012), professional dialogic interactions and modeling of pedagogic strategies in Indian Quality Education Program (Saigal, 2012), or practice teaching (Hynes & Dos Santos, 2007).

In Bayar's (2014) survey of components of effective professional development, 18 teachers who participated in at least three professional development programs in the previous 12 months reported that programs should be designed to promote active learning among teachers rather than have teachers passively sit and listen to teacher educators. From the teachers' perspectives, participation in passive programs was a waste of time.

Active learning can be recognised in the operation of Quality Teaching Rounds (Gore et al., 2017) in which teachers work in small groups of four or five teachers, take turns to deliver lessons, observe each other's teaching sessions, then collectively analyse and discuss their observations. Through an experimental study exploring the effects of Quality

Teaching Rounds, Gore et al. (2017) showed this method's effectiveness in improving teaching quality. Explaining this result, the researchers argued that organising teaching rounds under the format of active learning through observations, discussions, and analysis of teaching contributed to the positive impacts the rounds. In other words, experiencing activities such as observations, discussions, and reflections gave teachers ownership and control of their professional development, which can result in the transformation of teachers (Fraser et al., 2007).

2.7 Contextual influences

The context in which teacher professional development programs are organised influences their effectiveness as represented in models of teacher change (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002; Desimone, 2009). However, the notion "context" includes a variety of factors. It may refer to socioeconomic status, educational policies, or simply school environment. This section will summarise main contextual factors affecting teacher professional development and describe how they affect teacher professional development.

2.7.1 The educational environment

Context can be understood in a broad sense as the social and educational environment in which the teacher professional development activities take place. This includes educational policies (T. N. T. Bui & Nguyen, 2016), the socioeconomic status of the location where the professional development is held (Komba & Nkumbi, 2008), traditions, cultural norms (Avalos, 2011), professional standards for teachers (Sachs, 2003), and assessment systems (Boardman & Woodruff, 2004).

The effectiveness of teacher professional development programs can be affected by policymakers and their educational approaches (Bechtel & O'Sullivan, 2007; Yamagata-Lynch & Haudenschild, 2009). For example, in Gravani and John's (2004) study, the Greek Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs was responsible for setting the philosophy, general aims, and principles that universities, teacher educators, and teachers were to follow for teacher professional development programs. According to Gravani and John (2004), this situation led to a misalignment between teachers' expectations and the programs' curriculum. Consequently, only a small number of teachers reported a gain in knowledge from participating in the programs.

In addition, the social and educational environment may influence whether professional development receives attention and funding, and it can play an important role in planning professional development programs. For example, Akiba and Wilkinson (2016) found that although Lesson Study (Yoshida, 1999), a method of teacher professional development that originated in Japan, received attention from state and district schools, it did not receive enough funding for its implementation from school districts. It can therefore be a challenge for teachers to engage in this type of professional development.

2.7.2 The school setting

Context can also be understood as factors in the school setting where teachers' practice takes place. Teachers working in supportive schools tend to improve their effectiveness over time more than those in less supportive schools (Kraft and Papay, 2014). Variables within the school setting contribute to teachers' effectiveness through shaping teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and practice (Akbar et al., 2013; Wagner & French, 2010; Yuan, 2017).

After induction into the school, teachers' professional development is affected by school factors that include relationships, mentoring and expectations of colleagues and leaders (Amin & Saukah, 2015). These relationships at school can shape beginning teachers' instruction (Hopkins & Spillane, 2014) and teachers' teaching approaches generally (I. Lee, 2011), from which teachers' practical knowledge is constructed and developed (Van Driel et al., 2001). Moreover, the positive relationship between teachers and their colleagues can help teachers understand their role in teaching (Rodgers, 2002); as a result, teachers can gain innovative achievements in their teaching (Goza et al., 2008).

School structures and priorities also determine the kinds of professional development activities in which teachers can participate (Duncombe & Armour, 2004). The school can either enable or constrain the professional development of teachers (Muofhe, 2007). This is particularly so because the effectiveness of teacher professional development programs is predominantly seen through teachers' implementation of knowledge in their classrooms. For example, support from colleagues can facilitate change in teachers' practices (Girvan et al., 2016) whereas the collective mindset of colleagues at a school and colleagues' indifference toward innovative teaching strategies can demotivate

teachers (Kubanyiova, 2006). As a result, teachers may be afraid to apply what they gain from professional development programs to their classes (Saunders, 2013).

2.7.3 School leaders

School leaders and their leadership practices are a critical factor in the effectiveness of teacher professional development (Hairon & Dimmock, 2012; Li et al., 2016) and these practices should be treated as an “integral part” in teacher professional development (Whitworth & Chiu, 2015, p. 121). School leaders are responsible for leading and guiding innovative instructions, creating a conducive learning environment, participating in designing and delivering professional development, and assessing the outcomes of professional development (Bredeson, 2000).

In a study about how high school principals and vice-principals enacted national educational policies in Vietnam, C. Nguyen (2020) discovered that these school leaders tended to customise and interpret the goals of national educational reforms based on their knowledge, experiences, values, and beliefs (C. Nguyen, 2020). Therefore, when the Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training changed the format of the general examination for high school students from open-ended questions to multiple-choice questions, the principals from low-ranking schools claimed that the change could discourage their students if the students thought that they could pass the examination by guessing the correct answers. As a result, rather than focusing on changing the teaching and learning practices at their school, these school leaders introduced tutoring focused on strategies for answering multiple choice questions because they believed this would best help their students pass the examination.

School leaders can also influence teacher professional development programs at their schools through their practices. Thoonen et al. (2011) conducted a survey on the effect of school capacity on teacher engagement in professional development. Responses from 502 teachers in 32 elementary schools in the Netherlands revealed that the transformational practices of school leaders, which consisted of initiating and identifying a vision, individual support or consideration, and intellectual stimulation, influenced the teacher professional development programs. For example, initiating and identifying a vision and intellectual stimulation provided teachers with updated educational information. On the other hand, individual support or consideration, which easily transferred into leadership

control (Sandholtz & Scribner, 2006), negatively affected teachers' reflection and experimenting, from which teacher professional development can be hindered.

2.8 Evaluation of professional development programs

Most of the published studies on teacher professional development are an evaluation of a professional development activity or program. Guskey (2000) defined evaluation in professional development as "the systematic investigation of merit or worth" (p. 41). In other words, evaluation of professional development can be understood as assessing the value of a program. Based on this process, strengths and weaknesses of a professional development program can be identified and decisions can be made about whether a professional development program should be adopted or continue.

2.8.1 Types of evaluation

There are three types of evaluation proposed by Guskey (2000): planning evaluation, formative evaluation, and summative evaluation. Planning evaluation is related to program design and is conducted to gain insights into participants' learning needs before a professional development program is organised. Based on this assessment, a specific professional development program can be constructed. Planning evaluation can be found in H. Lee's (2005) study where a survey was organised prior to the program to understand teachers' needs. After that, the program was designed based on the results of the survey.

Formative evaluation is the assessment that occurs during the professional development program. It is conducted to assess how the program is being implemented and whether the expected outcomes are being achieved. Formative evaluation is important in the implementation of a professional development program. It can help the organisers monitor the effectiveness of the program and adjust the way they organise the program while it is in use.

Summative evaluation is conducted at the end of a professional development program to compare the achieved outcomes with the expected outcomes. This form of evaluation can guide decision making about whether to continue with a particular format of professional development or how to improve the effectiveness of a professional development program in the future (Guskey, 2000). Most evaluations of professional development programs are summative in nature (King, 2014; Muijs & Lindsay, 2008),

which tends to delay the value of evaluation until subsequent professional development programs. To minimise this delay, a combination of these three types of evaluation is encouraged in order to improve the quality of professional development at the time it is being organised as well as into the future (Guskey, 2000).

There are two stances of evaluating teacher professional development: from the inside undertaken by professional development providers themselves, and from outside undertaken by researchers and external bodies. Whatever the stance of evaluation, models of evaluation are needed to conduct a rigorous evaluation of teacher professional development.

2.8.2 Evaluation approaches

Most studies that evaluate the effectiveness of teacher professional development programs are based on models of teacher change such as those of Guskey (2002), Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002), and Desimone (2009). In that way, evaluation of the effectiveness of teacher professional development programs tends to fall into three groups: evaluating the effectiveness of teacher professional development through teachers' change in knowledge, skills, beliefs, and practices (e.g., Darling-Hammond, 2010); evaluating the effectiveness of teacher professional development through changes in students' learning outcomes (e.g., Pehmer et al., 2015); and evaluating the effectiveness of teacher professional development on both teachers and students (e.g., Diamond et al., 2014). The trends of studying teacher professional development through evaluating teachers' or students' performance can be found in Avalos' (2011) review of articles in *Teacher and Teaching Education* from 2000 to 2010. Among 17 articles evaluating the effectiveness of professional development, 10 focused on the impact of professional development on teachers' cognitions, beliefs, and practices; the other seven were about student learning and teacher satisfaction.

To ensure a thorough evaluation of the effectiveness of a professional development program, Guskey (2000) suggested five levels of professional development evaluation: participants' reactions, participants' learning, organisation support and change, participants' use of new knowledge and skills, and student learning outcomes. However, many studies evaluating the effectiveness of professional development either neglect organisation support and change or pay scant attention to it. Thus, to be evaluated

comprehensively, the broader organisational context of professional development programs needs to be considered.

Studies focusing on evaluating the impact of teacher professional development on teachers' beliefs, knowledge, and practice and students' learning outcomes have been designed using qualitative methods (González, 2003), quantitative methods such as randomised controlled trials and quasi-experimental methods (McIntyre et al., 2010), and mixed-method approaches (Jeanpierre et al., 2005). Among published studies, there is a tendency to conduct quantitative and mix-method studies to investigate the impact of teacher professional development on teachers and students (see, e.g., Grammatikopoulos et al., 2008; Wayne et al., 2008). However, in order to identify the impact of teacher professional development on teachers and students based on quantitative and mixed-method design, all variables in the environment where professional development programs are organised need to be controlled. However, as has been shown above, there is a variety of contextual factors which can affect the operation of professional development programs and properly controlling for these factors is therefore exceedingly difficult. Qualitative designs are able to bring both an in-depth understanding of teachers' learning and yield information about the contexts of professional development programs.

2.9 Professional development for English as a foreign language teachers

Professional development for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers is similar to other subject areas in terms of how it is influenced by the aforementioned factors. For instance, Meng and Tajaroensuk (2013) investigated an inservice professional development program for 55 tertiary EFL teachers. Their study revealed a number of components that influenced participants' professional development, including a shortage of good and practical programs, lack of the continuity for tertiary EFL teachers' in-service professional development, a contradiction between tertiary EFL teachers' heavy workload and their desire to have inservice professional development, and a mismatch between the university's financial support and the costs associated with the programs.

Acknowledging the influences of different factors on teacher professional development, different frameworks have been constructed to improve EFL teacher professional development. Based on Vygotsky's sociocultural theory, Johnson and Golombek (2016) paid attention to the process teachers use to interact with the world.

During this process, teachers construct their own cognition of the world according to their experiences of the world and their formal schooling. The process in which teachers interact with the world is called mediation. To facilitate teachers' cognitive construction of the world, Johnson and Golombek (2016) proposed 'responsive mediation' as a psychological tool that teacher educators can use during their interaction with teachers. Responsive mediation means that teacher educators facilitate teachers' learning according to teachers' evolving professional needs and changes. As such, teacher educators can maximise teachers' potentials. Another framework is Kubanyiova's (2012) integrated model of language teacher conceptual change. Also focusing on change of teachers' cognitions, this model built possible pathways in which the world, that is, teacher education input, professional coursework, contextual factors, schooling, individual differences and personal history interact with teachers' inner lives, including their beliefs, motivation, and knowledge. With these pathways, this model can explain conditions for how teachers' conceptual change can be created. The common feature of these above frameworks lies in their focus on teachers' cognitive development and the acknowledgement of the world. In fact, these frameworks separate the world and humans when considering the world as the stimulus of human change. This requires a more holistic theory which can capture the interrelated relationship between human and the world as well as give balance treatment for both factors.

In addition to the challenges shared with professional development for teachers of other subjects, professional development for EFL teachers has distinctive characteristics that need particular consideration when designing such programs. These distinctive characteristics derive from 11 themes that distinguish EFL teachers from teachers of other subjects (Borg, 2006), foremost among which are the nature of the subject, the content of teaching, teaching methods, teacher–learner relationships, and issues related to using English as non-native speakers.

In terms of the nature of the subject, English is more dynamic and attached to real life than are other subjects because it is acquired through conversations and for everyday communicative purposes. In terms of the content, teaching English is not solely about teaching the skills of reading, listening, speaking, and writing, along with grammar and vocabulary. It includes a variety of issues such as teaching culture, politics, and social communication. Regarding methodology, examination of teaching English has employed

a range of heterogeneous methods—more so than teaching other subjects—to enhance students’ engagement and communication. This goal leads to difference in the relationship between teachers and students in EFL classes in which the communication between teachers and students is particularly encouraged (Wichadee, 2011). Last, but not least, non-native issues refer to the fact that English is not only the target language that students need to master but also the medium of instruction (Bock, 2000). This leads to the comparison between non-native-English teachers and English native teachers in terms of their English competence. In addition, the use of a mother tongue in English classrooms when teachers are non-native-English teachers hinders learners’ acquisition of English.

EFL teacher professional development programs must confront problems that do not exist in professional development for teachers of other subjects. For example, EFL teachers are likely to be the only EFL teacher at their school, which hinders their participation in a community of practice (C. D. Nguyen, 2016). In addition, when English is used as the medium of instruction in the classroom, teachers whose English proficiency is limited have many difficulties in developing their students’ content knowledge, which constrains their implementation of teacher professional development activities (Baker, 2016; Y. G. Butler, 2004; T. T. L. Nguyen, 2016). EFL teachers’ limited English proficiency can also affect their participation in professional development programs when it involves difficulties in assessing communicative competence (Baker, 2016). Thus, improving teachers’ English competence is one of the critical issues in EFL teacher professional development.

Communication is encouraged in the EFL classroom (Wichadee, 2011). González et al. (2002) conducted a qualitative study on EFL teachers’ needs in their professional work. The researchers pointed out that the number of students in most EFL classrooms was higher than expected. As a result, it was difficult for teachers to apply the communicative teaching techniques they learned about in the professional development programs—techniques that focused on listening and speaking. This finding is similar to the case of EFL teachers in Vietnam (Bock, 2000) who faced a variety of challenges from students as well as the Vietnamese educational system. Some of these challenges were students’ lack of motivation for communicative competence, students’ resistance to class participation, and a lack of conducive facilities such as projectors or round tables necessary for communication among students. Moreover, the necessity of an English-

speaking environment in English language teaching is also a challenge to EFL teachers (T. N. Nguyen & Ho, 2012). With such challenges in teachers' application, professional development for EFL teachers should not be just about providing teachers with a good command of English and a variety of innovative teaching techniques. It should also take into consideration issues related to teachers' application of innovative teaching techniques at their workplace.

Related to non-native, English-speaking issues in teaching EFL, English native teachers are always evaluated more stringently than are non-native English-speaking teachers, not only by students but also by non-native English-speaking teachers as well (Baker, 2016). Therefore, the requirements for teacher educators in professional development for EFL teachers are more demanding. In turn, recruitment of teacher educators, as well as professional development provided for them, should be carefully considered.

2.10 Professional development for EFL teachers in Vietnam

In order to understand professional development of EFL teachers, it is necessary to review the teaching and learning English in Vietnam first.

English has gradually become a dominant foreign language in Vietnam since 1986 when the Vietnamese government decided to implement the "open-door" policies. The core idea of these policies was to welcome foreign investments in Vietnam. English, in the role of international language, replaced Russian to become the foreign language supporting Vietnam's economic development.

Concerning the teaching and learning English in Vietnam at that time, it is necessary to note that teaching English in Vietnam followed traditional grammar translation approaches (Hoang, 2011). It means that the language used in class was a mixture between English and Vietnamese. In addition, grammar, reading, and writing skills were paid more attention whereas speaking and listening skills were not tested in formal examinations (Denham, 1992). More importantly, the grammar translation approaches produced learning environments in which teachers were at the centre.

Second, it is noted that Vietnamese education or, more specifically, English language teaching in Vietnam, is affected heavily by Confucianism (M. T. Vu & Pham, 2021). The

effects of Confucianism are first presented through the view of teachers' identity. Despite the subjects that the teachers teach, Vietnamese teachers not only deliver new knowledge to students but are teachers of moral lessons as well (L. H. Phan et al., 2011). Confucianism is also represented in Vietnamese students' learning styles. Dat (2001) revealed that Vietnamese students' English-speaking performances are affected by values which are often referred to as "face-saving" and "conflict-avoidance" and these are important characteristics in Confucianism. These cultural values resulted in the dependence of Vietnamese EFL teachers' self-efficacy development on verbal and non-verbal feedback of their school leaders (Phan & Locke, 2016). In the meantime, collectivism and power distance in the culture affect school leaders' practices (Trinh et al., 2019; Truong et al., 2017). In addition, Confucianist values of learning have resulted in Vietnamese people's view of examinations as highly important and one of the best ways for students to demonstrate and achieve success (T. T. H. Nguyen & Pham, 2016)

The grammar-translation approaches and Confucianism as well as other cultural factors in Vietnam have contributed to creating a number of challenges in teaching and learning English in Vietnam. First, Vietnamese students are claimed to have limited English competence (Bock, 2000), lack critical thinking skills (T. H. Nguyen, 2002), and demonstrate passiveness in learning English, especially in speaking skills (H. T. Vo, 2018). In the meantime, teachers' English competence does not match the requirements of the government (T. M. H. Nguyen & Nguyen, 2007). These realities, on the one hand, raise the importance of professional development for EFL teachers; on the other hand, they can also be the constraints in professional development for EFL teachers in Vietnam.

Studies on teacher professional development in Vietnam are scarce. Some of the works are P. H. H. Le and Yeo (2016), Ho et al. (2013), P. V. Nguyen and Pham (2020), C. D. Nguyen (2017), and V. C. Le (2018). These studies look into different aspects of EFL teacher professional development, such as exploring new approaches (V. C. Le, 2018; T. M. H. Nguyen, 2008; T. L. Nguyen, 2016; P. V. Nguyen & Pham, 2020) and teachers' identity and practices (C. D. Nguyen, 2017). Among these studies, only two explored current teacher professional development courses provided by the NFL2020. For example, P. H. H. Le and Yeo (2016) evaluated a 3-week course consisting of lecturing, microteaching, and field trips at a primary school. The researchers found that discussions and lesson plans among teachers were challenged because of the irrelevant contents of

the course, an inequality in teacher opportunities for participation, and contexts of different textbooks. Given the importance of textbooks in educational reforms (To, 2018; Vo, 2017), P. H. H. Le and Yeo (2016) contributed a voice to the process of changing textbooks in Vietnam, especially at the time when teachers are permitted to participate in deciding which textbooks they can use at their school (Vietnam Ministry of Education and Training, 2020). Ho et al. (2013) studied one-off teacher professional development courses in Vietnam and demonstrated that issues were related to teacher educators' lack of knowledge of secondary education, limitations in course facilities, and inconvenient locations for these courses.

Previous studies on EFL teacher professional development in Vietnam, especially the works of P. H. H. Le and Yeo (2016) and Ho et al. (2013), show two distinctive features of teacher professional development in Vietnam. First, course providers tend to favour use of a “cascade model” in which one teacher from each school participates in the course so they can train other teachers at their school (V. T. Nguyen & Mai, 2018; Ngeze et al., 2018). Second, one-off workshops or courses are common in teacher professional development and there is a limited use of innovative types such as mentoring (T. M. H. Nguyen, 2008). These features together with challenges found in these studies emphasise the need to raise voices for the improvement of teacher professional development in Vietnam.

2.11 Research gap

Exploring the literature of teacher professional development has highlighted major issues in the field of teacher professional development program research that the present study is designed to address.

Studies of teacher professional development courses often focus on teachers with the aim of improving teacher professional development quality from which participants' teaching is enhanced. However, relatively little attention has been paid to the experiences and concerns of teacher educators (Lipowsky & Rzejak, 2015). Even in studies where data are collected from teacher educators, teachers' professional development issues are mainly featured, neglecting teacher educators' challenges (Bayar, 2014; Jan Bent et al., 2016; Peeters & Robinson, 2015; Uztosun, 2018). Therefore, in the present study I examine a professional development course from the perspectives of *both* teachers and

teacher educators in order to create a more complete picture about teacher professional development (Ping et al., 2018).

The notion of teacher professional development has been described as “teacher professional learning”, “staff development”, and “inservice training”. Interchangeable use of these terms may cause confusion, and some types of teacher professional development are likely to be missed. Therefore, in the present study I have focused on actual formats of teacher professional development in teachers’ real lives, and I have distinguished professional development from other terms to avoid the confusion in conceptualising teacher professional development.

In many previous studies, the teacher professional development course being studied was also designed by the researchers themselves (Borko, 2004), potentially creating a conflict of interest. The present study explores one of professional development courses constructed by educational stakeholders such as teacher educators and educational management institutions rather than by me as a researcher to minimise researcher bias in evaluating the effectiveness of the program.

Factors impacting the effectiveness of teacher professional development as well as models of teacher change in professional development highlight the complexity of the field. Most professional development studies focus on specific subject areas (Borko, 2004). For example, in a meta-analysis of 1,343 articles of professional development reviewed in Yoon et al. (2007), the number of articles about professional development in reading/English literacy/arts, maths, and science was 487, 345, and 511 respectively. However, there were few published studies of teacher professional development in other subjects, especially in teaching and learning English as a foreign language. EFL teaching has distinctive features from other subjects. Thus, contributing voices to EFL teacher professional development is necessary.

There are only a few studies on EFL teacher professional development in Vietnam and among those studies, the number of studies evaluating teacher professional development courses provided by NFL2020 is scarce. The literature of EFL teacher professional development internationally, and especially in Vietnam, has tended to focus on experimenting with different models of professional development rather than exploring its current situation of professional development (T. M. H. Nguyen, 2008; T. L. Vo &

Nguyen, 2009). Among the studies evaluating teacher professional development for EFL teachers in Vietnam, there is also a lack of placing it under the light of a holistic theory. The present study addresses this gap by investigating one professional development course for EFL teachers in depth and by considering the context of the course using practice architecture theory.

Although there have been a large number of studies evaluating the effectiveness of teacher professional development programs, most studies focus on the effects on teachers and students (Blank & de las Alas, 2009; Vescio et al., 2008; Yoon et al., 2007). They pay little attention to the context and organisational support and change, despite these being critical factors in teacher learning and change (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002; Opfer & Pedder, 2011). Hence, the present study explores the impact of professional development through reciprocal relationships between professional development, teachers' knowledge, skills, beliefs, and practice, and its salient outcomes according to teachers' perspectives in a change environment.

More importantly, in education reforms, policies are often modified to become suitable for school settings and contexts (Borko, 2004; C. Nguyen, 2020). This raises questions in professional development evaluation: whether the professional development program being evaluated is the same program approved by educational authorities, and, if not, what is the adaptation of the model. The present study addresses these questions by examining a professional development course organised nationwide.

In terms of methods of professional development evaluation, although there has been a tendency to conduct quantitative or mix-methods studies to evaluate the impact of professional development (Wayne et al., 2008; Williams, 2007), there are also advantages in using qualitative methods such as the method used in the present study, in providing an in-depth understanding of professional development (Mohammadi & Moradi, 2017; Saunders, 2013).

Most previously published studies that investigate teacher professional development programs are based on participants' self-reports (van Veen et al., 2012), and the use of observations is rare (Kedzior & Fifield, 2004). More importantly, where observation has been used, the results from observations were different from self-report data (Ebert-May et al., 2011; Pham & Hamid, 2013; Phan, 2018). Therefore, the present study employs

qualitative methods using observations both in the professional development course itself and in the context of teachers' application of its agenda in their classrooms to investigate more thoroughly the outcomes of the professional development.

2.12 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have discussed important issues in the literature of teacher professional development such as models of teacher learning, change and features in design of effective professional development, and, in particular, professional development in EFL. Based on this discussion, research gaps were pointed out, which this study is intended to fill. The issues reviewed in this chapter provide the background for choosing theoretical framework for the study. Discussion more about it is provided in chapter 3: theoretical framework.

Theoretical Framework

3.1 Introduction

Theoretical frameworks provide guidelines for conducting a study (Eisenhart, 1991) as well as a lens through which to interpret its findings (Osanloo & Grant, 2016). More importantly, in qualitative research a theoretical framework can minimise researcher bias by placing the processes of data collection, data analysis, and interpretation under the light of a theory (Anfara & Mertz, 2014). The use of a theoretical framework therefore allows findings of a study to be compared and contrasted in relation to a relevant body of literature (Sarter, 2006).

In this study, I adopt the theory of practice architectures (Kemmis, Edwards-Groves, et al., 2012; Kemmis & Grootenboer, 2008) as the theoretical framework. The chapter commences with a review of practice theories in general. After that, the central concepts of practice architecture theory are introduced. Some applications of this theory in education and teacher professional development are then discussed. At the end of the chapter, the rationale for adopting practice architectures as the theoretical framework of the study is explained.

3.2 Practice theories

Practice theories consist of various theoretical approaches that share similarities in their constructs. Examples of practice theories are Giddens' (1984) structuration theory, Bourdieu's (1990) theory of social practices, MacIntyre's (1985) virtues, Lave and Wenger's (1991) situated learning, Schatzki's (2002) site ontologies, Gherardi's (2009) knowing in practice, Hager's (2012) different accounts of practices, and B. Green and Hopwood's (2015) body in practice. These theories explore the relationships between humans and society. Practice theories share a number of features.

- Practice theories consider social practices as the object of analysis (Feldman & Orlikowski, 2011; Hargreaves, 2011). This treatment can be seen in Giddens' (1984) structuration theory where the reciprocal

relationship between social structures and human activity is looked at through social practices. Another example is Bourdieu's (1990) theory of social practices in which habitus, or individuals' ways of behaving, acting, and thinking, is analysed through the participation of practices in the formation of habitus.

- Practice theories recognise the role of agents in society (Rouse, 2007). They are "the body/minds who carry or carry out social practices" (Reckwitz, 2002, p. 256). They are a component in creating communities of practice wherein their interests, goals, and objectives orient the conduct of practices (Lave & Wenger, 1991).
- Practice theories emphasise the role of human and material things in society (Nicolini, 2012). Significantly, practices or bodily activities are shaped and prefigured by material arrangements or things (Reckwitz, 2002; Schatzki, 2002). For example, the practices of teaching are enabled by the interaction between teachers in the role of agents and teaching facilities such as whiteboards, projectors, the curriculum, textbooks, and classrooms.
- Practice theories show their interest in all matters of human life (Nicolini, 2012), ranging from habitus of class to habitus of individuals (Bourdieu, 1990) or from the micro level, such as human agency, to the macro level, such as social structures (Giddens, 1984; Hager, 2012).

Despite sharing common features in theorising practices, "a unified practice approach" does not exist (Schatzki, 2001, p. 2) because of the diversity attached to the meanings of practices (Hager et al., 2012). For example, Wenger (1998) considered practices as "doing in historical and social context that gives structure and meaning to what people do" (p. 47), whereas Schatzki (1996, 2012) defined practices as social activities organised and performed by multiple people. More importantly, practices are tied with arrangements in a two-way relationship; that is, practices are inseparable from the arrangements that prefigure, enable, and constrain them (Schatzki, 1996, 2012).

3.3 Practice architecture theory

The diversity of practice theories creates the background for the theory of practice architectures. For example, Giddens' (1984) three domains of social structure, namely the cultural, economic, and political domains, can be traced in three types of arrangements in the theory of practice architectures: cultural-discursive, material-economic, and social-political arrangements. Bourdieu's (1990) habitus is also similar to dispositions in the theory of practice architectures (Mahon et al., 2017).

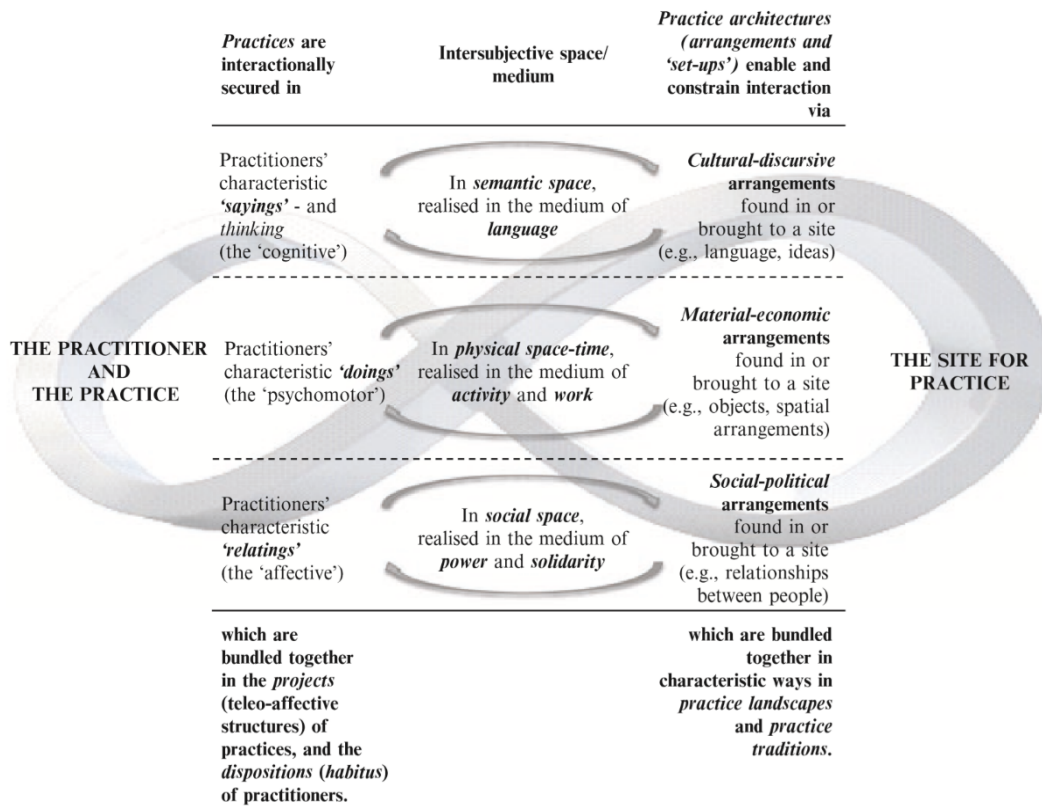
The theory of practice architectures draws on Schatzki's (2002) site ontologies. First and foremost, Schatzki (2002) considered practices to be comprised of "open-ended sets of doings and sayings linked by practical understandings, rules, teleo-affective structure, and general understandings" (p. 87). That is, practices consist of bodily activities that are enacted according to the knowledge of the surrounding worlds towards a project (or teleo-affective structure). In addition, Schatzki (2002) distinguished four types of entities contributing to the creation of material arrangements for practices. These are human beings as carriers of practices, artefacts as objects formed by human activity, organisms, and nonliving elements of nature. These entities form material arrangements that "hang together" with practices, creating "practice-order bundles" (Schatzki, 2002, p. 265) or "practice-arrangement bundles" (Schatzki, 2005, p. 473). These bundles indicate the close relationship between practices and material arrangements. Significantly, the practice-arrangement bundles create the context for practices or, in other words, sites of practices.

Advocating and developing Schatzki's (1996, 2002, 2012) argument of practices, the theory of practice architectures (Kemmis et al., 2014; Kemmis et al., 2012; Kemmis & Grootenboer, 2008) focuses on the relationship between practitioners, practices, and sites of practices, as illustrated in Figure 3.1.

The key features of the practice architectures theory are arranged into three parts, corresponding with the three columns in Figure 3.1: practices, practice architectures, and intersubjective space/medium. These features are described in the following three subsections.

Figure 3.1

The theory of practice architectures (Kemmis et al., 2014, p. 38)



3.3.1 Practices

Similar to the way in which Schatzki (2002) defined site ontologies, Kemmis et al. (2012) defined practices as social human activities constituted by sayings and doings. However, Kemmis and his colleagues added relatings as one of the components of practices rather than implicitly recognising them as Schatzki (2002) did in his definition of practices. Sayings refer to forms of communication and understanding such as teacher educators' oral instructions to teachers in a professional development course. Doings refer to human actions in performing practices. For example, in the practice of mentoring and giving feedback, a mentor can perform a microteaching session using some new teaching techniques so that the mentee can observe and take notes about important features in the

mentor's teaching. In this case, the doings are teaching the microteaching lesson¹, observing, and note taking. Relatings refer to the relationships among people and between people and the surrounding world. For instance, in the mentoring practice, relatings can be seen in the way the mentee listens to the mentor's feedback as well as the way in which the mentor models new teaching techniques.

Sayings, doings, and relatings are tied together in projects of practices. Projects can be understood as the stimulus motivating the conduct of practices. Projects are constituted by three components: the aims, actions, and ends or results. In fact, projects are expected ends of the practices and they encompass the individual or collective intentions and aims of those participating in practices (Kemmis et al., 2014; Mahon et al, 2017). For example, the project of peer mentoring involves engaging in peer mentoring to improve teaching practices. The aim of this project is to improve teachers' classroom practices; the actions include mentors' and mentees' sayings, doings, and relatings; and the result of the project is an improvement in the mentees' teaching. Sometimes the end and the aim of a project can be different. For example, a professional development course intended to enhance teachers' teaching practices may fail in achieving its aim.

Practitioners' dispositions or their knowledge, skills, and values (Kemmis et al, 2014) also have a close relationship with sayings, doings, and relatings. For example, EFL teachers who favour teacher-centred teaching methods may use a variety of strategies when giving instructions to their students in the classroom. Other EFL teachers who pursue student-centred teaching methods might try to motivate students by using suggestions.

3.3.2 Practice architectures

As presented in the previous subsection, practitioners' dispositions affect the elements of their practices; however, their sayings, doings, and relatings do not necessarily determine

¹ Microteaching is defined as a teacher-training technique in which a teaching situation is constructed with some reduced factors such as reducing the number of students so that teachers can teach and obtain immediate feedback from other teachers or teacher educators (Allen et al., 1972; Remesh, 2013).

an agreement between the ends or results of projects with their aims (Kemmis et al., 2014). Three kinds of arrangements are identified in a site of practice:

1. Cultural-discursive arrangements are resources that prefigure and make possible the sayings of a practice. These resources include language and discourses of practitioners when they conduct practices (Mahon et al, 2017). For example, in an EFL professional development course, cultural-discursive arrangements could be the language shared by teachers and teacher educators (English, as well as their mother tongue), as well as special terms used in education.
2. Material-economic arrangements are resources that shape the doings of a practice through determining the content, time, place, manners, and participants of a practice such as human resources, infrastructure, or economic issues (Mahon et al, 2017). For example, funding for a professional development course is regarded to be a material-economic arrangement because it affects the number of participants as well as the teaching facilities in the course.
3. Social-political arrangements are the resources that enable and constrain the relatings of a practice, such as educational policies, regulations, and norms. These arrangements affect the relationships between the practitioners, other people, and objects in a practice (Mahon et al, 2017). For example, a new government policy for teacher professional development can be regarded as a social-political arrangement when it affects the relationship between teachers and teacher educators in a professional development course.

Cultural-discursive, material-economic, and social-political arrangements have an inseparable relationship with sayings, doings, and relatings respectively, as in Schatzki's (2002) "practice-arrangement bundles" which is represented by the infinity symbol in Figure 3.1. It means that these arrangements affect, and also are affected by, practices (Kemmis & Edwards-Groves, 2018). For example, the structure of a professional development course can encourage teachers to evaluate activities in the course and their feedback can help to improve the course.

3.3.3 The mechanism of practice architectures

The relationship between sayings, doings, relating, and their arrangements takes place in intersubjective space (Kemmis, 2019). Intersubjective space refers to three spaces where sayings, doings, and relating of practitioners interact with their arrangements. These spaces are the semantic space of cultural-discursive arrangements, recognised through language; the physical space-time of material-economic arrangements, recognised through activity or work; and the social space of social-political arrangements, recognised through solidarity and power. These three spaces are interrelated so that change in one space can lead to change in the others (Kemmis et al., 2014). For example, a change in physical space-time, such as rearranging the tables and chairs in a classroom, can create change in the social space in the way that students have an opportunity to work with new partners.

The relationship between practice and practice architectures is also presented in practice traditions, which are the residue of prior sayings, doings, and relating of practices (Mahon et al., 2017). The idea of residue can be understood as what is left behind in a practice such as a whiteboard filled with notes after a lecture. In intersubjective space, the two-way relationship between practices and practice architectures is presented. On the one hand, practice architectures make the practices possible; on the other hand, practices can contribute to forming practice architectures through practice traditions. For instance, teacher-centred pedagogy can be regarded as a practice tradition for teaching English in Vietnam. This practice tradition can affect the current practice of teaching English by discouraging the development of a more communicative approach that is student-centred and focused on improving students' English listening and speaking skills (T. M. H. Nguyen & Hall, 2017). Students in teacher-centred English classes can become accustomed to listening passively to their teachers and they may engage similarly in English communicative classes, even when the teacher would prefer them to speak more and become active participants in their learning. In this way, the practice tradition (teacher-centred pedagogy) operates as a practice architecture constraining the current practice (communicative English teaching).

Another notion in the theory of practice architectures is practice landscape. This notion was introduced in Schatzki (2010) and Kemmis et al. (2014) defined it as the setting of practices, practice architectures, and practice traditions. In a practice landscape, there may

be a diversity of practices as well as sites of practices (Kemmis & Edwards-Groves, 2018). For example, schools are a practice landscape. In schools, there are various practices, such as the practice of teacher professional development, student learning practice, and teacher learning practice. Furthermore, in the school setting, there are various sites of practice such as practice in English classes, practice in social science classes, and so on.

Another important term mentioned in the theory of practice architectures is praxis. The meaning of praxis in the theory of practice architectures draws on two traditions. First, in Aristotle's view, praxis is regarded as action "morally-committed, and oriented and informed by traditions in a field" (Kemmis & Smith, 2008, p. 4). This view means that praxis concerns actions conducted with the aim of benefiting those involved. In the second tradition, from Hegel and Marx, praxis is "history making action" (Kemmis, 2010, p. 9), which means that praxis refers to actions that carry consequences for those involved. For example, a teacher may become aware of the limitations of her current teaching methods and decide to apply new teaching techniques for the benefit of her students. In this example, praxis is not only the practice of applying new teaching techniques, but also the ethical dimension of practice—the teacher's awareness of the teaching issues as well as her aim of implementing new teaching techniques (Mahon et al., 2020).

It is noteworthy that practices have an interdependent relationship with each other, and this relationship is represented by the notion "ecologies of practices" (Kemmis et al., 2012). The interdependence of practices means that practices are "ecologically related to each other" (Kemmis & Mahon, 2017, p. 229). For example, the practices of teaching are dependent on the practices of leadership.

In order to understand more about the various aspects of practice architectures theory shown in Figure 3.1, it is helpful to consider the example of the activities of a teacher professional development session at a secondary school for inservice EFL teachers who are learning about the teaching of English pronunciation. This teacher professional development session is one part of a professional development course about the application of curriculum reforms for teaching EFL. Participants include a teacher educator and 30 inservice EFL teachers. In this session, the teacher educator prepares a demonstration lesson plan and a poster showing some consonants prepared by a group of teacher participants to illustrate a method of teaching English pronunciation.

According to the theory of practice architectures, the sayings in this example consist of the dialogues between the teacher educator and the teachers; for example, the teacher educator's introduction of how demonstration can be used to teach pronunciation. The doings are identified as the activities that the teacher educator and teachers perform, including pronouncing the consonants displayed on the poster or working in groups to discuss the features of the lesson plan. The relatings include the teacher educator directing the activities of the teachers in the class or the teachers observing the teacher educator as she models her pedagogy. All of these three components—sayings, doings, and relatings—contribute to form the practice of an inservice teacher professional development session in the project of curriculum reforms for teaching English pronunciation.

In the practice of the EFL inservice teacher professional development example, the sayings—the communications between the teacher educator and the teachers—are shaped by the cultural-discursive arrangements. These include the language used in professional development and the teaching of pronunciation such as “consonants”, “techniques”, “pronounce”, “human sound organs”, and “demonstration”. The economic-material arrangements of this practice include funding for the session, which could determine the number of teacher participants, the teaching facilities, and location. The social-political arrangements might include the educational policy related to the use of a new curriculum for teaching English pronunciation as well as the role of the teachers and the teacher educator in the professional-development course.

The relationship between the practice of the teacher professional development session and its practice architectures takes place in three spaces: the semantic space, the physical space-time, and the social space.

- The semantic space in the example is represented by the common language that the teacher educator and teachers use in the class, namely, English, the language for teaching pronunciation, as well as their common understanding of teaching pronunciation and professional development.
- The physical space-time is the classroom at the time of the session, in which the activities related to teaching pronunciation are performed.

- The social space is the common space where the teachers and the teacher educator interact with one another. This space might be realised in discussions between the teachers and the teacher educator in which the teacher educator exercises her leading role whereas the teachers work under her direction.

As mentioned above, these three spaces present an intersubjective relationship such that change in one space may lead to change in the other spaces. In fact, these three spaces are overlapping with each other (Kemmis, 2019). For instance, if the teacher educator requires the teachers to work in groups, a new physical space–time and a new social space between the teachers in each group are established at the same time.

The practice of teacher professional development in the EFL example can also be affected by practice traditions. For instance, the teacher educator might adopt a traditional, teacher-centred approach and take charge of the activities in the class, and the teachers might assume a largely passive stance. The traditional arrangement of the teaching facilities, with the board and the teacher educator’s desk at the front of the class, is also considered a practice tradition.

The practice landscape in the example is the secondary school where the professional development course is held. In this school setting, there will simultaneously exist a variety of practices within the practice of the pronunciation professional development course, such as the practice of teacher learning and the practice of organising professional development. The practice landscape also consists of many sites of practice, including practices in English pronunciation, practices of experienced and novice teachers, and practices of urban and rural teachers.

From the above example, the relationship between practitioners (namely teacher educators and teachers) and sites of practices (practices in English pronunciation teaching) is also realised. Although their practices are prefigured by practice architectures (namely, language in teaching pronunciation, funding for the course, and the new policy of professional development), their practices are not predetermined by these arrangements. This is due to practitioners’ dispositions, which are practitioners’ knowledge, skills, and values. Therefore, to change a practice requires change in both practitioners and practice architectures (Kemmis et al., 2014)

3.4 The application of the theory of practice architectures

As noted by Mahon et al. (2017), the theory of practice architectures can serve as a theoretical, analytical, and transformational foundation for studies on practices. In detail as a theory, practice architecture theory provides a language to describe and understand the two-way relationship between practices and practice architectures. In addition, the theory helps researchers identify sayings, doings, and relatings of practices from which the three arrangements shaping them are revealed. When these arrangements of practices are identified, practitioners can identify ways to transform practices in coping with their conditions.

These uses of practice architecture theory can be found in numerous studies in education and teacher professional development. The following sections review some relevant studies that have employed the theory.

3.4.1 Practice architectures in education

In general, practice architectures theory has been used in a variety of disciplines in education, such as instructional leadership (Salo et al., 2015), educational leadership (Wilkinson, Olin, et al., 2010), research collaboration (Pennanen et al., 2017), university and school partnership (Manton et al., 2020), inclusive education (Hemmings et al., 2013), English education (Edwards Groves & Grootenboer, 2015), student engagement (Taylor & Robinson, 2012), physical education (Petrie, 2016), teacher education (Sjølie & Østern, 2020), academic conditions (Hardy, 2010), medical education (Cleland & Durning, 2019), engineering education (Goldsmith et al., 2019), environmental education (Kemmis & Mutton, 2012), tertiary education (Rönnerman & Kemmis, 2016), early childhood education (Salamon et al., 2016) and special education (Hanssen, 2020). Some examples about the way the theory of practice architectures has been applied in research studies are now illustrated.

In early childhood education, the notion of praxis in the theory of practice architectures was used to explore practice architectures enabling and constraining the appropriate conduct of early childhood educators' practices in research by Salamon et al. (2016). In their study, Salamon and his colleagues applied the theory of practice architectures as a tool for discovering the complexity of early childhood education practices.

First, the language and concepts of the theory allowed the researchers to identify the elements of early childhood education practices including their sayings, doings, and relating and the conditions in which those elements are recognised such as their discourses, the current regulations and standards in early childhood education, and the interactions between early childhood educators with their students, families, and colleagues.

Second, the interactions between practices and their arrangements in the theory of practice architectures helped explain the relationships between early childhood educators, their practices, and their working contexts. Practices being prefigured and shaped by practice architectures suggested that the practices of early childhood educators were influenced by variables in their working context such as their centrality of discourses of motherhood, the regulations and standards at their school, and low salaries.

Third, the theory of practice architectures emphasised the particularity of practitioners and their sites of practice, which allowed for an in-depth analysis of early childhood education practice rather than a broad, shallow analysis. By examining sayings, doings, and relating constituting the early childhood educators' practices, the researchers revealed some of the practice arrangements and praxis constraints. These included discourses of motherhood, discourses framing the vulnerable and innocent image of the child, regulations and standards in early childhood education, low salaries, and hostile working contexts, as well as power relationships between early childhood educators and others in their working context such as children, families, and colleagues.

At the university level, to identify why the practices of writing were hindered in engineering education, Goldsmith et al. (2019) examined the landscapes and sites of two writing subject coordinators' teaching practices. The researchers used practice architectures theory to explore the practice arrangements in the engineering curriculum. The researchers identified two constraining practices: the engineering curriculum itself, which did not support the sustainability of writing practices, and the learning practice, which focused on the product rather than process of writing. These two practices constrained students' awareness of the role of writing in their profession, resulting in students focusing on writing merely to satisfy assessment requirements rather than to develop their writing for their future careers. More importantly, by comparing two sites

of practices, one of which contained practice architectures that enabled the sustainability of writing, the researchers highlighted how the writing practices could be improved.

To present the utility of practice architectures theory in research, Rönnerman and Kemmis (2016) explored experiences of doctoral candidates in a research methods course. In their study, the researchers argued that practice architectures theory assisted them to understand how new academic practices of the course were constrained and enabled by its design. The researchers regarded the course to be constituted by the three dimensions of semantic, physical space–time, and social spaces. In each space, the researchers examined different practices, such as seminars, with reference to their practice architectures to highlight how the academic practices of doctoral students were affected. Applying the theory of practice architectures provided the researchers with an in-depth evaluation of the course. They found that the course helped doctoral candidates to develop research practices such as presenting their research and chairing a seminar. However, previous experiences of the doctoral candidates prevented them from actively adjusting the structure of the course to their desires despite being encouraged to do so. For example, their experiences in the role of students in previous courses led to their expectations of more lectures and guidance from the researchers despite journal articles provided to help the candidates understand issues in the courses.

In summary, the theory of practice architectures has been used in education settings to analyse constituents of practices, namely sayings, doings, and relating, from which the conditions enabling and constraining practices are identified (e.g., Cooke & Francisco, 2020; Sjølie & Østern, 2021). Therefore, change in education is not limited at changing practitioners' practices; rather, it requires a change in the conditions of those practices as well (Mahon et al., 2017). Moreover, the theory facilitates exploration of implicit arrangements that exist at a site of practices or at a practice landscape such as cultural-discursive and social-political conditions that shape lecturers' work in university contexts (Hemmings et al., 2013). Thanks to this exploration, arrangements enabling practices can be created and flourish (Kemmis, 2008). Finally, practice architecture theory allows researchers to identify the main architects of practice architectures such as educational leaders in school contexts (Wilkinson et al., 2010); consequently, reforms in education can be more focused.

3.4.2 Practice architectures in teacher professional development

The theory of practice architectures has also been adopted in the field of teacher professional development.

Pennanen et al. (2016) conducted a comparative study about mentoring practices in Finland and in New South Wales, Australia. Their aim was to identify aspects of successful mentoring by exploring mentoring practices in the two countries. Mentoring practices were viewed as a social practice, and, as the theory of practice architectures suggests, the particular sites of practice have particular practice architectures. Because of this, the researchers were able to use practice architecture theory to understand how and why each country produced differing mentoring practices. The participant teachers wrote two descriptions of a successful and unsuccessful mentoring meeting that they had experienced. In these stories, the participants were asked to identify the preconditions and arrangements that enabled and constrained the mentoring they received. The themes that emerged from these stories, and from interviews, observations, and focus groups, were analysed in light of practice architectures. The findings revealed that the operation of mentoring was affected by the relationship between the existing practice architectures and practice traditions embedded in the sites of practice. In New South Wales, mentoring was found to be centralised and hierarchical, whereas in Finland, the researchers found a political tradition of social democracy, and these differences led to the differences in mentoring practices in each site. The theory of practice architectures therefore contributed to the theoretical orientation of the study and served as the analytic foundation for the research activities, including data collection, data analysis, and interpretation.

In relation to teachers' implementation of pedagogical innovations within their classroom practice, Goodyear et al. (2017) considered an issue related to teachers' application of new teaching methods: that teachers implement new teaching methods for only a short amount of time. In order to investigate why this might occur, the researchers conducted a study on the application of cooperative learning by six secondary teachers of physical education. The structure of this study was suggested by the theory of practice architectures. Based on this theory, the researchers acknowledged that failure in the implementation of innovative practices was not due solely to the teachers. Rather, it was affected by the teachers and the practice architectures in their sites of practices. Therefore, new practice architectures needed to be created so that innovation and longer-term change

could be nourished. With these new perspectives, the researchers constructed new working conditions to support the teachers' implementation of cooperative learning, such as creating a new shared expectation of students' achievement in the department and dividing the class into small groups of students to create a new social space which could support cooperative learning. After 6 months of applying these changes, the researchers found that a change in practice architectures improved the sustainability of curriculum renewal through creating supportive arrangements for teachers' practices. However, the researchers acknowledged that, because practice architectures of a practice do not remain constant, teachers' knowledge and the complexity of the innovations implemented are important determinants of the sustainability of any curriculum renewal. The study highlighted that success of any change in education can be dependent on a combination of change in practitioners and the practice architectures in their sites of practice.

In summary, the application of practice architectures theory in previous research sheds light on the complexity of professional development for teachers. First, teacher professional development should be understood as a continuing process that starts from teachers' initial training and extends to their retirement (Tynjälä & Heikkinen, 2011). Second, teacher professional development is not only prefigured by its context (Hardy, 2016; Langelotz, 2017; Olin & Ingerman, 2016; Wilkinson et al., 2013) but is also shaped by its practitioners and their dispositions. The practitioners include teachers (W. Green et al., 2013), facilitators (Heikkinen et al., 2018; Lange & Meaney, 2013), and researchers (Aspfors et al., 2015). Third, the relationships between teacher professional development and other practices such as teaching and learning (Edwards-Groves & Rönnerman, 2013) and its different projects (Kemmis, Heikkinen et al., 2014) also contribute to the effectiveness of teacher professional development. More importantly, the studies discussed above suggest the potential of this theory as a lens through which to evaluate participants' perceptions of a teacher professional development course. Rönnerman and Kemmis's (2016) study suggests how a teacher professional development course can be viewed in terms of intersubjective space with the conduct of different practices such as the practices of teacher educators and the practices of teachers. Exploration of mentoring (Pennanen et al., 2016) and cooperative learning (Goodyear et al., 2017) results in recommendations for examining workplaces of different teachers to understand different implementations of the teacher professional development course.

3.5 Rationale for practice architectures as the theoretical framework in the study

In order to adopt a suitable theoretical framework, alignment with theory needs to be demonstrated between the research problem, research questions, aims, and significance of a study (Osanloo & Grant, 2016).

In this study, I explore teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of the effectiveness of an EFL teacher professional development course and the factors enabling and constraining teachers' application of the course content in their classrooms. In this sense, I investigate EFL course from the time it is conducted through to its implementation. The theory of practice architectures, with its arguments extending from micro factors such as practitioners' sayings, doings, and relatings to macro factors such as projects of practices or intersubjective spaces (Hager, 2012), can facilitate analyses of the practice of teacher professional development in this course by identifying elements of the practice and examining the arrangements related to these elements.

Teachers and teacher educators are important actors in teacher professional development (Borko, 2004; Cochran-Smith et al., 2018; De Vries et al., 2014). In addition, contextual factors such as leadership (C. Nguyen, 2020) and school settings (Gravani & John, 2004; I. Lee, 2011) have been found to affect the outcomes of teacher professional development programs. These factors are aligned with the focus of the theory of practice architectures—the relationship between practitioners, practices, and sites of practices as well as their roles in reformation (Kemmis et al., 2014). Therefore, the theory of practice architectures can support an examination of the factors affecting the effectiveness of the EFL teacher professional development course in Vietnam through an exploration of the relationships between teachers, teacher educators, and the professional development course.

One of the important features of practice architectures is the recognition of practice landscapes, which cover practices, their arrangements, practice traditions, and sites of practices or practice contexts. This recognition enables a simultaneous examination of multiple practices and multiple sites of practice. At a school, in addition to teacher professional development, there exists a range of other practices, namely student learning, teaching, leading, and researching which constitute the education complex (Kemmis et al., 2014). The notion of practice landscapes can be employed in exploring teacher

professional development and other practices, their relationships, and the arrangement systems underlying them.

3.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have outlined the theory of practice architectures as the theoretical framework of the study. In so doing, I discussed the origin of practice architectures theory and its main arguments. In addition, I analysed some applications of the theory in education and teacher professional development and described the rationale for the adoption of practice architectures theory in the current study. With these considerations, the theory of practice architectures is highlighted as suitable for this study and orients the methodology used in this study, which I discuss in the next chapter.

Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This study has three aims: to explore the practice architectures that shape the activities of EFL Course, to examine the practice architectures shaping teachers' teaching, and to investigate teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of the effectiveness of EFL Course. These aims are guided by three research questions:

1. What are the practice architectures of EFL Course and how do these practice architectures shape the activities of the course?
2. What are the practice architectures of teachers' teaching practices in their school setting, and how do these practice architectures shape their teaching practices after the course?
3. How do the teachers and teacher educators perceive the effectiveness of EFL Course?

In this chapter, I describe the methodology adopted to achieve the above aims. First, there is a discussion of methodological issues of this study. Second, information about the research focus—the national course and its participants—is provided. After that, data collection instruments and procedures and the methods of data analysis are described. Finally, reliability, validity, and ethical considerations of the study are discussed.

4.2 Methodological issues

4.2.1 Research paradigm

Models of teacher professional development have a common characteristic. They all acknowledge the importance of contextual factors when teachers engage in teacher professional development programs (Boylan et al., 2018). When teachers engage in a professional development program, they may achieve changes in their beliefs and practices (Guskey, 2002). However, not all teacher professional development programs can create such effects. To change teachers' beliefs and practices, teacher professional

development programs need to be content-focused, facilitate active learning, and demonstrate coherence with districts' or schools' educational policies and practices (Desimone, 2009). Also, teacher change cannot be achieved if teachers do not engage in reflection and enaction processes (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002). In addition, teachers' participation in teacher professional development programs does not take place in a vacuum. Their participation occurs within nested structures constituted by systems and subsystems (Opfer & Pedder, 2011); therefore, teacher change depends on contextual factors such as the educational environment (Avalos, 2011; Boardman & Woodruff, 2004), the school setting (Sargent & Hannum, 2009; Wagner & French, 2010), and school leadership (Li et al., 2016; Whitworth & Chiu, 2015).

As agents of change in education, teachers influence the effectiveness of teacher professional development through their beliefs (Geijsel et al., 2009) and emotions (Reio, 2005). These, and various characteristics such as teachers' prior knowledge and experience (Çobanoğlu & Genç, 2020; Özer & Beycioglu, 2010; Ulla & Winitkun, 2018), all of which contribute to teachers' orientation to learning activities in professional development (Moore, 2008; Opfer et al., 2011). For example, in a study by Gianina-Ana (2013), teachers with more than 10 years of experience thought that teacher professional development programs needed to cover issues such as classroom management, teaching design, instruction methodology, parent education, and conflict management. Novice teachers in the same study expected teacher professional development programs to contain development of communication abilities, family-involvement strategies, management, use of computer programs and educational platforms, and development of educational projects. Because there is no 'one size fits all' approach to teacher professional development due to the differences in teachers' professional needs (Petrie & McGee, 2012), different teachers may have different conceptions about teacher professional development. This means that teacher professional development programs can help teachers acting as subject group leaders to recognise how they can influence other teachers through collaborating with them. Teacher professional development programs can also provide a part-time teacher with confidence and knowledge to try new things (Burchell et al., 2002).

The influence of context and teachers' interpretations of professional development leads to the choice of constructivism as the research paradigm for this study.

Constructivism has core features that parallel the literature concerning teacher professional development. In terms of ontology, constructivists believe that realities exist in a variety of forms due to individuals' interpretations (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; C. J. G. Lee, 2012). Therefore, learning is regarded to be socially constructed, and context is an important variable in shaping realities (Morgan, 2007). From that viewpoint, to gain a better understanding of realities or in terms of epistemology, researchers need to cooperate with research participants as well as take context into account (Coll & Chapman, 2000; Cousins, 2002; Guba, 1990).

The constructivist worldview plays a leading role in my study. In order to construct a complete picture of a professional development course for EFL teachers in Vietnam, this study focuses on teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of the course. The teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions, in combination with my knowledge of teacher professional development and observations of the course, allow for the realities of the teacher professional development course to be analysed. In addition, all the different aspects of EFL Course were able to be explored. This allowed for the consideration of contextual factors when investigating the course. Also, the adoption of practice architectures theory (see Section 3.5), which emphasises the relationships between practices and their contexts (Kemmis et al., 2014) as the theoretical framework of the study, represents the constructivist focus on context.

4.2.2 Research approach

From the perspective of constructivism, this study was conducted with a qualitative approach. Simply put, qualitative research can be understood as studies based on descriptive data rather than statistical data (Mackey & Gass, 2015). In a more complex sense, qualitative researchers study human activities at the time they happen to understand the meaning of those activities (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Qualitative research accepts the uniqueness of phenomena and events. This means that the activity that happens at a particular moment may or may not happen again because events and phenomena in the world never stay still (Roller & Lavrakas, 2015).

In qualitative research, human activities are understood through the interpretations of people who participate in those activities (Bryman, 2016). For example, a professional development course can be understood by examining what teachers, teacher educators, or

any other participants in that course think about it. The notion that qualitative research emphasises studying human activities through its participants' interpretations comes from the belief that meaning is constructed in the process of human beings interacting with their surrounding world (Merriam, 2009). Therefore, reality is created through its participants' interpretation, rather than an event or phenomenon existing separately from human beings (Bryman, 2016).

In comparison with a quantitative approach, a qualitative approach is more capable of exploring human activities. For example, in the literature about teacher professional development, studies using a qualitative approach outnumber the ones using quantitative approach. A qualitative approach can provide explanations to the questions of why and how people have specific behaviours, opinions, or experience (Guest et al., 2017), all of which are difficult to be investigated and measured in quantitative research (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Merriam, 2009). In addition, deriving from the idea that realities are made of participants' interpretations, including researchers' interpretations, in order to study human activities, qualitative researchers have to get closer to those activities than quantitative counterparts (Aspers & Corte, 2019). As a result, qualitative research is capable of providing in-depth data (Lodico, 2010) that allow researchers' inductive analysis and interpretation (Creswell & Creswell, 2017).

A qualitative approach is an appropriate choice for this study for three main reasons. First, the study is intended to answer three "hows", namely how practice architectures shape the activities of EFL Course, how practice architectures shape teachers' teaching, and how teachers and teacher educators perceive the effectiveness of EFL Course. These three aims resonate with the capability of a qualitative approach's capability in explaining how and why a phenomenon occurs (Guest et al., 2017). Second, this study is conducted based on the constructivism ontology that reality is composed of its participants' interpretations. In the case of studying teacher professional development, the reality of this development is created by the interpretations of teachers, teacher educators, and the researchers who conduct the study. This worldview is similar to the key idea of the qualitative research approach. Finally, the adoption of practice architecture theory as the theoretical framework for the study supports the idea that teacher professional development differs in relation to time and space. This idea is also reflected in the qualitative approach's acceptance of the ever-changing quality of human reality.

The qualitative approach is represented in this study through the use of questionnaires, semistructured interviews, and researcher observations.

4.2.3 Research design

This study was designed as a case study. The case study is an appropriate research design when “a how or why question is being asked about a contemporary set of events over which the investigator has little or no control” (Yin, 2014, p. 9). In addition, a case study is effective when a phenomenon, its real context, and the interaction between the phenomenon and its context are examined (Tetnowski, 2015). More importantly, a case study can preserve different interpretations of the realities when both researchers’ and research participants’ voices are considered (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006; Stake, 1995). The case in this study is the course with its sixty teachers and six teacher educators who have their own stories set in their specific teaching and learning context.

The suitability of a case study can be demonstrated in three ways. First, the research questions of the study are how practice architectures shape activities of EFL Course and teachers’ teaching as well as how teachers and teacher educators perceive the effectiveness of EFL Course. Second, as the researcher, I participated in the course as an observer, performing no other roles in the course. Instead, I used my interpretations, teachers’ and teacher educators’ voices to construct a report about the course from the participants’ perspectives. This guaranteed a reality from multiple perspectives. Third, the influence of contextual factors pointed out in the literature review about teacher professional development emphasises the importance of exploring teacher professional development courses in their context.

4.3 The professional development course for EFL teachers in Vietnam

Because the aim of the study is to investigate practice architectures that shape activities of a national professional development course, teachers’ teaching after this course, and participants’ perceptions about the effectiveness of the course, choosing an appropriate course was a critical issue. EFL Course was chosen based on the following criteria:

- The course should provide formal teacher professional learning activities organised systematically by school districts, universities, or other educational stakeholders over an extended period of time to improve

teachers' professional knowledge, skills, and attitudes, from which teachers' practices and students' learning can be enhanced. These factors ensure that the course meets the criteria for teacher professional development (see Section 2.2).

- The literature review indicated that EFL teacher professional development has distinctive features such as an emphasis on communication, culture, and non-native-English issues in comparison with teacher professional development in other educational fields (see Section 2.8); therefore, the course should be for teachers of English as a foreign language.
- The course must be funded and approved by the Vietnam Ministry of Education and Training (MoET) and currently organised nationwide to guarantee that it is a national course.
- The course should be focused on either pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) or content knowledge, or both, to ensure that it is a professional development course.

EFL Course was a professional development course focusing on supporting EFL lower-secondary teachers in using new textbooks. EFL Course was provided by a university of foreign language teacher education (hereafter called Capital University) and sponsored by the MOET. As stated in the coursebook (H. H. Vu, 2017), this course has two goals: a primary goal and a secondary goal. The primary goal is to “assist the trainees (teachers) in using the new set of textbooks more effectively, efficiently and comfortably”. The secondary goal is to “improve the trainees’ (teachers) methods and techniques in English language teaching” (H. H. Vu, 2017, p. 26).

EFL Course took place in the centre of a coastal city in 2018. The city belongs to a province (hereafter called Coastal Province) covering an area of more than 6,000 km², and the course was for 60 EFL teachers working in lower-secondary schools in that province. Similar to many teacher professional development courses in Vietnam, the course lasted 400 hours. The course was divided into three phases: face-to-face sessions, online independent learning, and classroom teaching/observation and field trips (in short, field trips). The allocation of these phases is represented in the timetable of the course in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1*Timetable of the Course*

Date	Learning phase
July 2–6	Face-to-face sessions (Module 1 – Module 10)
July 9–14	Online independent learning (Module 1 – Module 6)
July 16–20	Face-to-face sessions (Module 11 – Module 20)
July 22–28	Online independent learning (Module 7 – Module 13)
July 30 – August 3	Face-to-face sessions (Microteaching)
August 5–11	Online independent learning (Module 14 – Module 20)
October 1–5	Classroom teaching /observation and field trips

Face-to-face sessions and online independent learning were organised in the teachers' summer holiday. Field trips took place during school time, and the teachers' usual classes were covered by other teachers at their school.

4.3.1 The coursebook

EFL Course used a coursebook as a guide for both teacher educators and teachers. This coursebook was written, in English, by experienced teacher educators of Capital University. Two of the teacher educators in this course contributed to writing the coursebook. It contains 20 modules, as shown in Table 4.2. Apart from Modules 1, 2, 11, and 20 which are introductory and revision modules, all modules consist of two main sections named *Theoretical Backgrounds* and *Practice*. In the theoretical background sections, theories related to the content of that module are introduced, whereas the practice sessions consist of tasks extracted from the new textbooks for teachers to microteach. Details contents of each module are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2*Modules in the Coursebook of EFL Course*

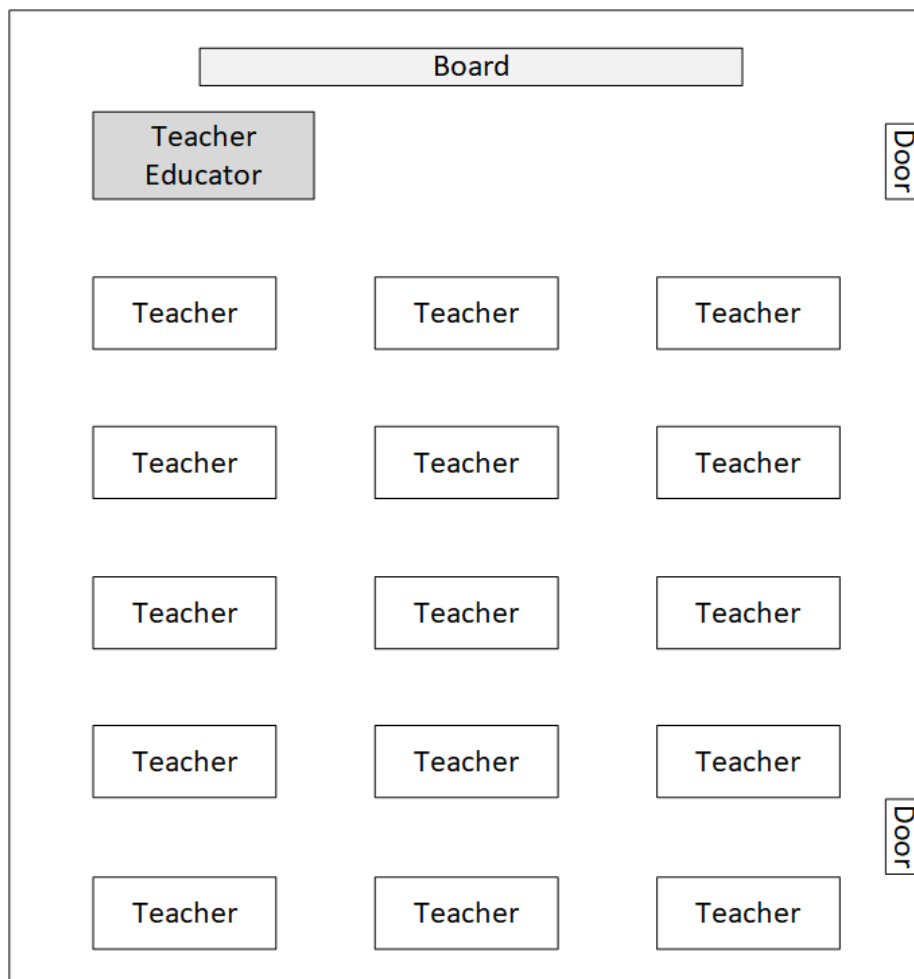
Module	Module contents
1	Registration and course-opening ceremony
2	Course and textbook overview
3	Approaches and methods in the new textbooks
4	“Getting started”: Opening a new unit in the new textbook
5	“A closer look/ Language”: Teaching vocabulary and pronunciation with the new textbooks
6	“A closer look/ Language”: Teaching grammar with the new textbooks
7	“Skill”: Developing reading skills with the new textbooks
8	“Skill”: Developing listening and writing skills with the new textbooks
9	“Skill”: Developing speaking skills with the new textbooks
10	Communication & Project in the new textbooks
11	Review & Consolidation
12	Testing and assessment with the new textbooks: An overview
13	Testing and assessment with the new textbooks: Vocabulary, Grammar, and Pronunciation
14	Testing and assessment with the new textbooks: Reading
15	Testing and assessment with the new textbooks: Listening
16	Testing and assessment with the new textbooks: Speaking & Writing
17	Adapting the new textbooks to different learners and learning environments
18	Using supplementary materials with the new textbooks
19	Independent learning and professional development with the new textbooks
20	Review & Consolidation

4.3.2 Face-to-face sessions

EFL Course includes 100 hours of face-to-face sessions, divided into lecturing and microteaching sessions. These sessions took place at a higher-secondary school in the city centre of Coastal Province from 7.30 to 11.30 in the morning and 1.30 to 5.00 in the afternoon, including a break time of 5 to 10 minutes between sessions. In the morning there are five sessions. In the afternoon, there are four sessions. Two groups of 30 teachers worked in two typical classrooms at this school. Each group was taught by one teacher educator at a time. The teacher educator's desk was at the front of the room and the teachers sat in pairs at desks that were arranged in rows as illustrated in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1

The Layout of the Classroom



4.3.2.1 Lecturing sessions

As stated in the course book, lecturing sessions include two main types of tasks performed by teachers and teacher educators: theoretical backgrounds and practice. With regard to theoretical backgrounds, teacher educators instructed teachers to complete theoretical-backgrounds tasks in the coursebook so that teachers could understand the theories and apply them to their teaching. Figure 4.2 is a copy of an example of a theoretical-backgrounds task.

Figure 4.2

Example of a Theoretical-Backgrounds Task

Activity 3: Types of practice in CLT

Study the following examples of mechanical, meaningful and communicative practice, then match each type of practice with its features:

1. Mechanical practice:
Practise saying the sentences, adding "If you don't mind".
Example: Let's go to the Village Fair.
Let's go to the Village Fair if you don't mind.

- We'll ride together in a bumper car.
- Let's cross the street to the bookshop.
- I'll keep the door closed.

2. Meaningful practice:
Describe the two rooms in the pictures. What is there...

- On Mary's desk? On John's desk?
- Next to Mary's bed? Next to John's bed?
- Under Mary's table? Under Jon's table?

3. Communicative practice:
In pairs, one student is given picture A, one picture B. Without looking at each other's picture they have to find the differences by asking and answering the questions about the pictures.

1. Mechanical practice	A. refers to an activity where language control is still provided but where students are required to make meaningful choices when carrying out practice. For example, in order to practise the use of prepositions to describe locations of places, students might be given a street map with various buildings identified in different locations. They are also given a list of prepositions such as across, from, on the corner of, near, on, etc.. They then have to answer questions such as "Where is the book shop? Where is the cafe?" etc. The practice is now meaningful because they have to respond according to the location of places on the map.
2. Meaningful	B. refers to activities where the focus is practice in using language within a real communicative context, where real information is exchanged, and where the language used is not totally predictable. For example, students might have to

In such tasks, to help teachers better understand the theoretical backgrounds of the new textbooks, discussions between teachers and teacher educators, as well as among teachers, were encouraged. Teachers' reflections on their teaching were also stimulated through teacher educators' questions linking the teaching problems in the coursebook with the realities of the teachers' teaching.

After gaining an understanding of theoretical backgrounds of the new textbooks, teachers were required to work with each other to practise what they had learned in mini-microteaching tasks. Teacher educators played the role of a facilitator, giving support and feedback in relation to groups' mini-microteaching. Figure 4.3 is an example of mini-microteaching tasks.

Figure 4.3

Example of a Mini-Microteaching Task

5.1.5. DIFFERENT WAYS OF HELPING STUDENTS RECYCLE NEW VOCABULARY

SELF REFLECTION: Work in groups of three, discuss different ways you have employed to check new vocabulary or have your students recycle new vocabulary.

STUDY FURTHER TECHNIQUES AND MINI MICRO- TEACHING

- Put your practical suggestions aside for a moment; study the following techniques of having students recycle new vocabulary.
- After that, work in groups of three, pick up 1-2 techniques and prepare for your mini demo teaching.

5.1.5.1. Naming

a. Beanbag toss (10 mins)

- Students call out vocabulary item while tossing a beanbag to each other.
- Sample Activity: Ex. 2, Unit 2, Tiếng Anh 6:

- Step 1: have students toss a beanbag back and forth.
- Step 2: The student to whom the beanbag is tossed must name an object in the living room/bed room.

b. Chain Game (15 mins)

- Students extend a sentence by adding more and more vocabulary items.
- Sample activity: Ex. 1, Unit 2, Tiếng Anh 6:

- Step 1: Begin by saying, "In my house, there is a kitchen."
- Step 2: Student 1 repeats what teacher has said and adds another item. For example, "In my house, there is a kitchen and a living room."

4.3.2.2 *Microteaching sessions*

In microteaching sessions, all the teachers presented a microteaching session in their group of 30. In the morning, there were three or four microteaching sessions. Each session was taught by a teacher. In each microteaching session, one teacher chose any lesson from the new textbooks to teach in 45 minutes while the other teachers played the role of students. The teacher educators observed the microteaching sessions. At the end of each microteaching session, teachers and teacher educators discussed the strengths and weaknesses of each session. During the day, there were about seven to eight teachers performing their microteaching.

4.3.3 *Online independent learning*

The course includes 200 hours of online independent learning that the teachers completed every fortnight in the alternate weeks following the face-to-face sessions (see Table 4.1).

In the online independent learning, teachers were provided with a password-protected username to access the online contents of the course. Teachers worked individually from home in the online independent learning sessions.

The online contents of the course consist of 20 modules which are similar to the modules in the coursebook. Apart from Modules 1, 11, and 20, which comprise of introductory and revision activities, the modules have three sections named *Overview*, *Learning Tasks*, and *Extra Resources*.

The overview section states that the teachers are required to participate in face-to-face sessions before they undertake the online contents.

The learning tasks section includes a comprehension check, video tasks, and “Let’s discuss with each other”. The comprehension check is a test reviewing the contents of the modules in the coursebook. Figure 4.4. illustrates a typical comprehension check task; it is for Module 7 – Developing reading skills with new textbooks.

Figure 4.4*Example of a Task in Comprehension Check***Task 1: Read and decide whether the following statements are true or false.**

1. Reading has only one purpose, i.e. to get information.
2. Reading with a purpose will be most effective.
3. Getting students to read aloud is a useful way of making them understand what they are reading.
4. When we read, our eyes are constantly moving from letter to letter, word to word.
5. Students don't learn much from reading things like timetables, recipes, directories.
6. It is important to pre-teach all new vocabulary before students read the text.
7. It is helpful to use a dictionary to find the meaning of all new words.
8. If I get my students to think about the topic before they start reading, and try to predict what the text is about, they find the text easier to understand.
9. Students don't need to be aware of the reading sub-skills like "skimming" and "scanning".
10. When reading in a foreign language, we mentally translate everything in order to understand.
11. The lack of cultural knowledge may affect the rate of reading comprehension.
12. Reading is an individual activity.

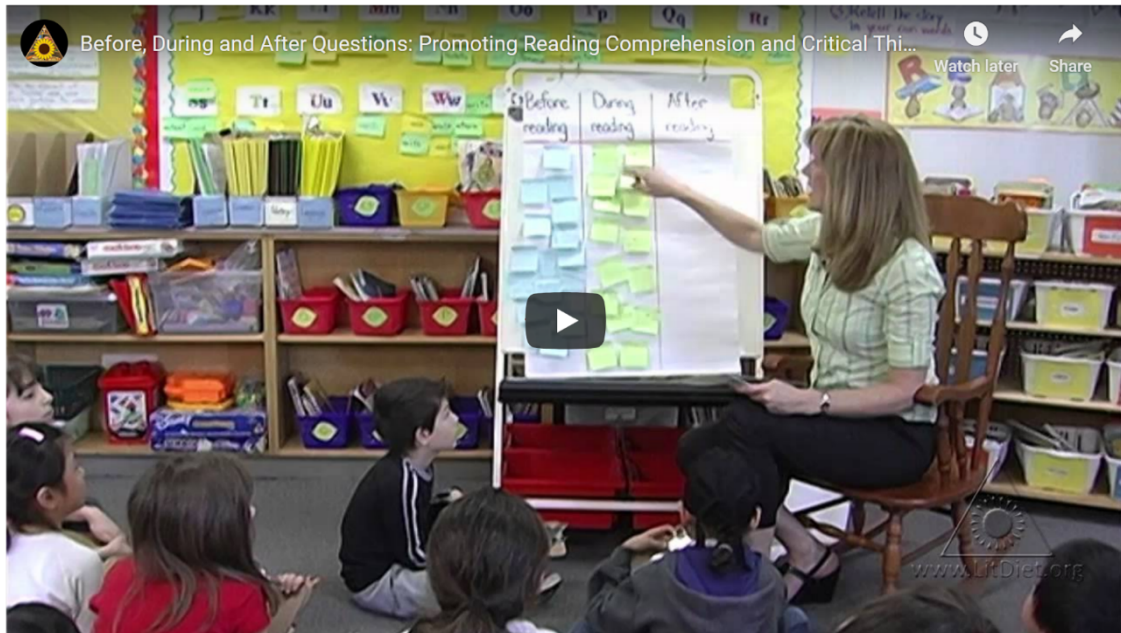
In video tasks, teachers are required to watch videos related to the content of the modules, then do the related tasks like the questions in Figure 4.5.

Figure 4.5. is an example of a video task in Module 7 – Developing reading skills with new textbooks.

“Let’s discuss with each other” is an online page allowing teachers to upload their questions and comments to engage in discussion with other teachers in the course.

In the extra resources section, additional online links or supplementary tasks are provided so that teachers can broaden their knowledge of the module contents.

After teachers completed their tasks, they were required to submit their work online, and the IT system saved and automatically scored their answers. The teacher educator also had access to the system to see how the teachers conducted their independent learning and to provide support or feedback when necessary.

Figure 4.5*Example of a Video Task***Video Task # 7.1.**

Watch the video on asking questions before, during and after reading and answer the questions follow:

- a. *Why do students need to ask questions before, during and after reading?*
- b. *In what stages can asking question strategies be applied?*

4.3.4 Classroom teaching/ Observation and field trips

The course includes 200 hours of field trips which took place in six lower-secondary schools in the city centre of Coastal Province.

For the field trips, the 60 participant teachers were divided into six groups of 10. The teacher educators divided the teachers into groups based on the school district they belonged to. As a result, teachers whose school districts were near each other were placed in the same group. Each group was guided by one of the teacher educators who taught the course. Each group of 10 teachers and one teacher educator went to a lower-secondary school in the city centre of Coastal Province. The schools were the workplace of one teacher in each group.

Before the field trips commenced, teachers received the curriculum of the school and the topic for the lesson that they would teach. Based on this information, teachers individually designed a 45-minute lesson plan implementing new pedagogical content knowledge gained from face-to-face sessions and online independent learning in the

course. The 10 teachers in each group took turns to teach their lesson in a classroom with real students from that school under the observation of one teacher educator and the other teachers in the group. Each day, three or four teachers taught their lessons.

At the end of the day, the teacher educators and the teachers discussed the strengths and weaknesses of each lesson they observed. The teacher educators asked the teachers to provide feedback and comments on the other teachers' microteaching first. Then the teacher educators summarised the main ideas of the feedback and comments. The teacher educators also added their own views about the teachers' microteaching.

4.4 Participants

4.4.1 Teachers

There is a provincial educational department in Coastal Province. This department governs 13 district educational offices. Each district educational office governs all schools in their district. In this course, a teacher in each lower-secondary school received an offer from his/her district educational office to participate in the course. These teachers were selected by the district educational offices based on their control of teachers in those schools. In some schools, the teachers are the only teacher, so they were required to attend. In other schools, the best teacher from the perspective of the district educational department staff would attend. Sixty in-service teachers from different lower-secondary schools in Coastal Province participated in the course. They could refuse the invitation if they had a valid reason such as health issues or participation in other courses. Because of that, some teachers did not participate in my study when I delivered the second questionnaire. These teachers were divided into two groups of 30 teachers each. Teachers in the same school districts are grouped together. Fifty-six teachers participated in the study; 48 of them participated in Questionnaire 1, and 45 in Questionnaire 2. Of the 48 teachers, 90% answered the demographic questions in Questionnaire 1, indicating they were aged over 35 years and female. Most of the 48 teachers held a bachelor's degree in teaching English and had between 11 and 20 years of teaching experience in lower-secondary schools. The demographics of the 48 teachers participating in Questionnaire 1 are shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3*Demographics for Teachers*

Gender		Highest qualification of EFL teaching		Age		Teaching experience of EFL teaching at lower-secondary school	
Male	3 (6%)	Bachelor	44 (92%)	21–25	1 (2%)	0–5 years	2 (4%)
Female	45 (94%)	Master	4 (8%)	26–30	1 (2%)	6–10 years	4 (8%)
				31–35	3 (6%)	11–15 years	14 (29%)
				36–40	32 (67%)	16–20 years	26 (55%)
				41–45	11 (2 %)	21–25 years	2 (4%)

4.4.2 Teacher educators

Six teacher educators from Capital University taught the course and all six gave consent to participate in the present study. They were invited to teach the course by the staff of Capital University in charge of organising EFL teacher professional development courses. Teaching in such courses is a compulsory activity of all teacher educators in Capital University. The six teacher educators worked in three faculties related to EFL teaching in the university. These faculties include one faculty of teacher education, one faculty of teaching English to non-English majors, and one faculty of teacher professional development. The teacher educators in EFL Course had from two to eight years of experience in teaching professional development courses, but no experience in secondary-school teaching. Table 4.4. shows the demographics of the teacher educators. (*Note that pseudonyms are used to guarantee the privacy of participants).

Table 4.4*Allocation of Teacher Educators in the Course*

Date	Group 1	Group 2
July 2–6 (Lecturing sessions)	May	Tan
July 16–20 (Lecturing sessions)	Linh	Nam
July 30–August 3 (Microteaching)	Thy	Anh

Corresponding to the 3 weeks of face-to-face sessions in the course, these six teacher educators were divided into three pairs based on their availability by the Capital University staff who organised the course. Each teacher educator taught a group of 30

teachers in one week. Table 4.4 represented this allocation. Table 4.5 contains demographic information relating to these teacher educators.

Table 4.5

Demographics for Teacher Educators

Teacher educator	Gender	Highest qualification	Age range	Teaching experience in EFL PD courses
Nam	Male	Master of Linguistics	26–30	6–10 years
Linh	Female	Master of Linguistics	26–30	6–10 years
May	Female	Master of Education	31–35	6–10 years
Anh	Female	Master of Applied Linguistics	31–35	6–10 years
Thy	Female	Master of Teaching English as a Foreign Language	31–35	6–10 years
Tan	Male	Bachelor of English Language Teacher Education	21–25	0–5 years

4.4.3 Participant recruitment

Before the course, I contacted the Vietnam National Foreign Languages 2020 Project to identify which universities were offering teacher professional development courses as part of the NFL2020. After that, I contacted the staff of Capital University in charge of teacher professional development courses for approval to conduct the study. One month before EFL Course took place, a list of all courses was provided, and I chose EFL Course for the present research study based on the criteria set out in Section 4.3 and on my availability to visit Vietnam and observe the course. After ethics approval (Appendix A) to conduct the study was obtained from my university, I sent the teacher educator information and consent forms (Appendix 2) to a staff member in Capital University who was organising the course. Prior to the start of the course, that staff member returned those information and consent forms.

On the first day of the course, after introducing the course, the same staff member organising the course introduced me to all of the teachers. After introducing my study to the teachers, I circulated the teacher information and consent forms (Appendix 3) and Questionnaire 1 to all 60 teachers in the course. As mentioned above, 48 teachers returned

the consent forms and Questionnaire 1. At the end of the course, I distributed information and consent forms for teachers (Appendix 3) and Questionnaire 2 to all teachers in the course. I distributed consent forms at the beginning and end of the course to guarantee that all of the teachers were informed about my study despite the time they entered the course. In the second distribution, 45 teachers returned the consent forms and Questionnaire 2. In total, 55 teachers gave consent to participate in my study, and 38 answered both questionnaires.

At the end of Questionnaire 2, there was a question asking whether teachers wanted to participate in interviews. Among the 45 teachers answering Questionnaire 2, 32 teachers agreed to participate in a follow-up interview. Among those 32 teachers, 28 teachers participated in both questionnaires: six from Group 1 and 22 from Group 2.

To gain a better understanding of the course, four teachers in each group were chosen for interviews. These teachers were chosen to represent different age groups and a rural school, a city school, and an island school. They also participated in interviews following the field trips. Six months after the field trips, I contacted these eight teachers to explore how they had applied what they had learned during the course at their school. One teacher withdrew from the study because of personal issues at that time, so seven teachers participated in the final phase of the study.

Table 4.6

Summary of Number of Teachers Participating in Data Collection Process

Activity	Number of participants
Questionnaire 1	48 teachers
Questionnaire 2	44 teachers
Questionnaire 3	7 teachers
Interview 1	8 teachers
Interview 2	8 teachers
Interview 3	7 teachers

4.5 Data collection instruments

In this study, I used questionnaires, interviews, and researcher observations to collect data from the participants.

4.5.1 Questionnaires

Questionnaires are suitable to collect data related to facts, behaviours, and attitudes (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2009). Thus, questionnaires were used to collect data related to features of EFL Course as well as teachers and teacher educators' perceptions of the course. In addition to the benefit in accessing facts and attitudes, questionnaires help researchers save time, effort, and money (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2009). Moreover, the popular adoption of questionnaires in studying professional development (Borko, 2004; Wayne et al., 2008) made questionnaires a suitable choice to collect data from the 60 teachers in the course.

Three sets of written questionnaires were used in this study, labelled Questionnaires 1, 2, and 3 (see Appendix C).

Questionnaire 1 explored teachers' background and expectations before the course. This questionnaire consisted of 18 questions. Questions 1 to 8 were about teachers' demographic background. Questions 9 to 15 were about teachers' perceptions of their English language skills and their EFL teaching ability. These questions were adapted from the questionnaire used by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007) and were concerned with teaching context, teacher demographics, and teachers' judgements about their teaching success. Questions 9 to 15 had 9-point response options, as in the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001) with anchors at 1 – Non-existent, 3 – Poor, 5 – Adequate, 7 – Good, and 9 – Excellent. The final three questions in Questionnaire 1 were open-ended and sought information about teachers' previous experience of teacher professional development, their reasons for participating in the course, and their expectations of the course. These questions were adapted from the study by Borg (2011) about the impact of teacher professional development on language teachers' beliefs and were about the teachers' prior experience in professional learning courses for teaching English, their reasons for joining the course, and what they hoped to learn from participating in the course.

Questionnaire 2 was used to identify the teachers' evaluation of EFL Course. This questionnaire consisted of 15 closed questions based on the questionnaire for evaluating the satisfaction of teachers and teacher educators in professional development courses that had been used by Ho et al. (2013). The questions had 5-point response options of 1 – Strongly agree, 2 – Agree, 3 – Neutral, 4 – Disagree, and 5 – Strongly disagree.

Questionnaire 3 was used to investigate the impact of the course on the teachers. This questionnaire consisted of 14 Likert-type questions with response options of 1 – Strongly agree, 2 – Agree, 3 – Neutral, 4 – Disagree, and 5 – Strongly disagree. These questions were based on the questionnaire measuring the impact of professional development programs on teachers' practice and students' learning outcomes used in the study by Ingvarson et al. (2005).

In all three questionnaires, there was a space for teachers to write their names to help me track the participation of teachers in each phase of data collection, from which participants for interviews could be chosen.

4.5.2 Interviews

I also used semistructured interviews to gain insights into teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of the course. Fraenkel and Wallen (2003) asserted that interviews are used to discover participants' views and feelings. In relation to this course, this study explores teachers' and teacher educators' views and feelings (or their perceptions) about their own practices in the course, activities during the course, factors affecting the course, as well as the effects of the course on their teaching and learning practices. Based on teachers' and teacher educators' views and feelings of the practices in the course they participated, this study expects to restructure their practices and the arrangements prefiguring and making them possible. Interviews with the teachers occurred after the face-to-face sessions, after the field trips, and 6 months after the field trips. These interviews were numbered as Teacher Interview 1, Teacher Interview 2, and Teacher Interview 3.

Regarding face-to-face individual teachers' interviews, Teacher Interview Protocols 1, 2, and 3 (Appendix D) were used in Teacher Interview 1, 2, and 3 respectively. Questions in Teacher Interview Protocol 1 were adapted based on Klassen and Chiu (2010); questions in Teacher Interview Protocol 2 were adapted from Guskey (2000) and Ho,

Nakamori, and Ho (2014); questions in Teacher Interview Protocol 3 were adapted from Guskey (2000) and Hipp et al. (2008).

The aim of Teacher Interview 1 was to clarify some answers in each teacher's responses to Questionnaires 1 and 2 and to discuss their perceptions of the course. The interview was conducted at the course classroom after school hours. The average time for each interview was about 20 minutes, ranging from 15 to 30 minutes. Interview 2 was intended to identify teachers' perceptions of the field trips. It was conducted at the school where the teachers undertook their field trips after school hours. The main focus of this interview was teachers' perceptions of the field trips. Because each teacher conducted only one microteaching session in the field trips, the average time for Teacher Interview 2 was short, ranging from 4 to 8 minutes. Teacher Interview 3 was intended to clarify teachers' answers in Questionnaire 3 and their teaching context. It was held at the teachers' school after school hours. Duration for that interview ranged from 15 to 20 minutes.

Teacher educators were interviewed individually before and after the face-to-face sessions, numbered as Teacher Educator Interview 1 and Teacher Educator Interview 2 respectively. The questions in Teacher Educator Interview Protocol 1 and 2 (Appendix E) were constructed based on Bayar (2014) and Guskey (2000). The aim of Teacher Educator Interview 1 was to examine teacher educators' experiences in teacher professional development as well as their expectations of the course. Teacher Educator Interview 2 explored the teacher educators' practices in the course as well as their evaluation of the course. These interviews were all conducted at the hotel where the teacher educators stayed and out of office hours. The average time of these interviews was 20 minutes, ranging from 15 to 45 minutes. All of the interviews are semi-structured, so the contents of each interview depend on what the interviewees say and how the interviewer asks follow-up questions to gain more information from the interviewees (Roulston, 2010). As a result, some interviews are short while some are long.

All interviews were conducted in Vietnamese, the mother tongue of me as researcher and the participants, to minimise any misunderstanding due to language. All the interviews were audio-recorded, and I transcribed them subsequently. After that, the transcripts were sent to teachers and teacher educators for checking to guarantee that the

transcripts had accurately represented their responses. By allowing participants this editorial right to review what they have stated, aligns to best practice in guidelines on research integrity.

4.5.3 Observations

Observation, the method suitable for data related to social interactions and a supplementary tool for interviews and questionnaires (Simpson & Tuson, 2003), was used in this study. When reviewing previous studies about professional development, Kedzior and Fifield (2004) pointed out the limitations in the methods used in those studies. Most of the studies used teachers' self-reports to investigate the impact of professional development courses. Observation of teachers' classrooms and professional development courses was seldom used. In addition, observations in previous studies in teacher professional development revealed a mismatch between what teachers reported and what they actually did (Ebert-May et al., 2011; Pham & Hamid, 2013; Phan, 2018). For example, the teachers in the study by Ebert-May et al. (2011) reported that they changed to learner-centred teaching after the teacher professional development courses, but the observational data indicated that the teachers' teaching practices were still teacher-centred.

In this study, three types of observations were conducted: face-to-face session observations, field-trip observations, and classroom lesson observations. These observations were made according to three practice landscapes (Kemmis & Grootenboer, 2008) to cross-check and supplement the data collected from interviews and questionnaires. These three practice landscapes include the school where the face-to-face sessions took place, the school where the field trip took place, and the school where the teachers worked. Because of ethical issues, voice and images of participants who do not give consent to participate should not be recorded, so neither video nor audio recordings were used in making course and classroom observations. In each practice landscape, I focused on the primary practices. For example, in the face-to-face sessions, teacher educators' teaching practices and teachers' learning were the focus. All these observations were conducted using observation guides. Observation guides set out the outline of the most important observational components that remind researchers about the

main factors in observation as well as helping the researchers to reflect on their observation practices at all times (Guest et al., 2017).

The face-to-face session observation guide (Appendix F) consisted of 13 items related to teachers' and teacher educators' activities in the face-to-face sessions. These items were suggested by questions assessing participants' reactions regarding content, process, and context of teacher professional development (Guskey, 2000) and core features and structural features of high-quality teacher professional development programs (Desimone, 2011).

In the field trips, teachers delivered their lessons in a classroom setting; therefore, the field-trip observation guide (Appendix F) consisted of items regarding teachers' and students' activities in their classroom. This guide, comprising 13 items, was based on the questionnaire used by Ingvarson et al. (2005). In addition, because there were discussions between teachers and their teacher educators about the lessons in the field trips, the field-trip observation guide contained additional questions related to the contents of the discussions.

Classroom lesson observation took place at the teachers' classrooms at their school. In these observations, I focused on teachers' teaching and students' learning. Similar to the field-trip observation guide, the classroom lesson observation guide (Appendix F) consisted of 10 items regarding teachers' and students' activities in their classroom, but it did not have questions about teachers' and teacher educators' discussions.

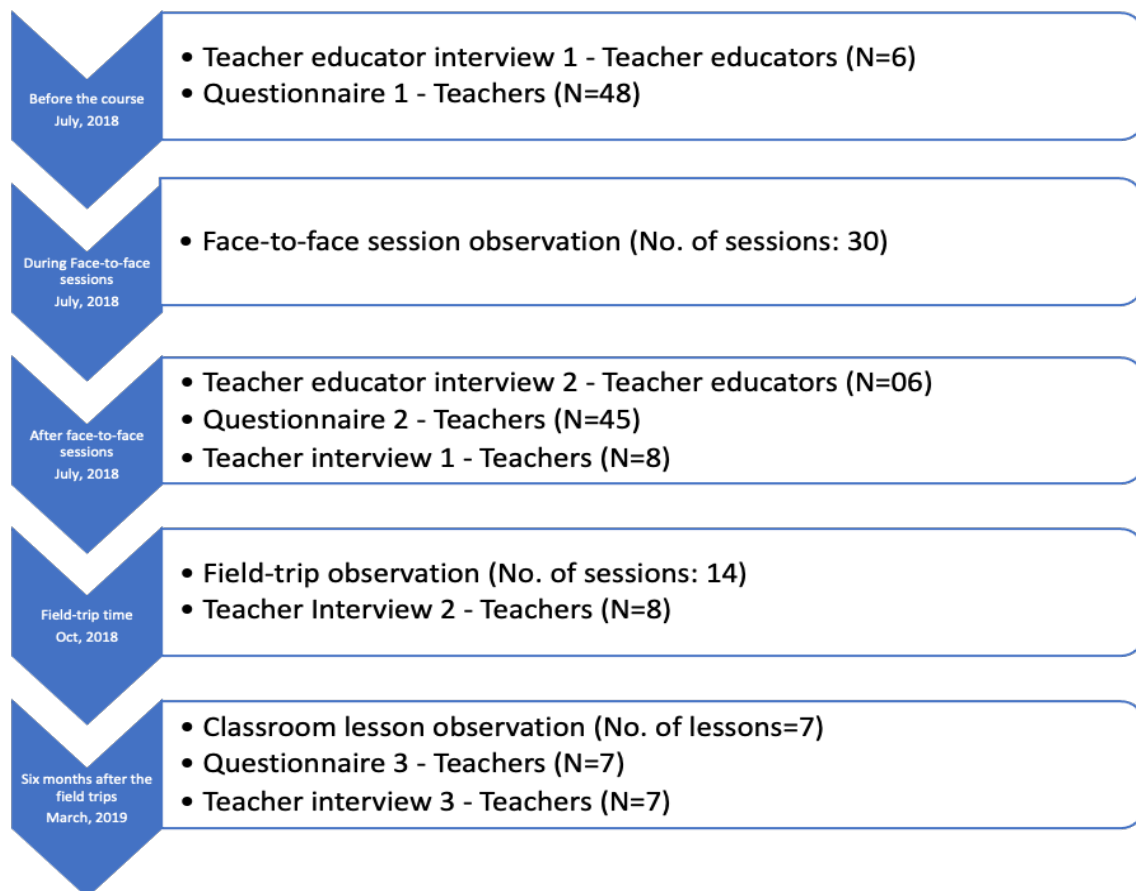
In all of these observations, I sat at the rear of the classroom and did not participate in any activity in the face-to-face sessions, field trips, and classroom lessons. Details of observations are provided in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7*Details of observations*

Type of observation	Number of observations	Duration of each observation
Face-to-face session observation	30 sessions	180 minutes
Field-trip observation	14 sessions	45 minutes
Classroom lesson observation	7 lessons	45 minutes

4.6 Data collection procedures

Data collection was divided into five phases: Phase 1 before the course, Phase 2 during the face-to-face sessions, Phase 3 immediately after the face-to-face sessions, Phase 4 during the field trips, and Phase 5 six months after the field trips (see Figure 4.6).

Figure 4.6. Data Collection Procedures

4.6.1 Phase 1 – Before the course

One day before the course commenced, interviews using Teacher Educator Interview Protocol 1 were conducted individually with each of the six teacher educators to obtain information about their experiences in teacher professional development and their expectations and goals for the course. In this phase, I joined the opening ceremony of the course with the consent of the course providers. In this ceremony, I introduced my study to the teachers and administered Questionnaire 1 to all 60 of them with the consent form so that they could complete it before the classes for the course commenced. The teachers handed their questionnaires to the leading teacher in each of two teacher groups. These two leading teachers had been voted by the teachers in each group to be the representatives of the groups in contact with the teacher educators and course providers when necessary. In the afternoon of the first day of the course, the leading teachers collected and returned all the questionnaires to me. This mode of handling the questionnaires was intended to avoid any sense of coercion so that teachers felt comfortable in deciding whether or not to participate in the study. As indicated above, Questionnaire 1 was completed by 48 teachers.

4.6.2 Phase 2 – During the face-to-face sessions

During the face-to-face sessions, I conducted observations to investigate the course activities, interactions among the participants, and the content of the sessions. I observed the sessions every day, alternating between the two groups of teachers, using the face-to-face session observation guide to record important activities that the teachers and teacher educators performed, for example teacher educators' lecturing activities, teachers' microteaching activities, or the contents of their discussions. Each observation lasted about 4 hours.

4.6.3 Phase 3 – Immediately after the face-to-face sessions

After the face-to-face sessions, I interviewed the six teacher educators individually about their evaluation of the course using Teacher Educator Interview Protocol 5. Questionnaire 2 and information and consent forms for teachers were delivered to all 60 teachers. Completed questionnaires were returned to the leaders of the two teacher groups, and I contacted them to collect the questionnaires. These questionnaires were completed by 45

teachers. I conducted follow-up interviews using Teacher Interview Protocol 1 with the eight teachers who gave consent and whom I had chosen based on their responses in Questionnaires 1 and 2.

4.6.4 Phase 4 – During the field trips

One month after the face-to-face sessions, teachers participated in the field trips to practise what they learned from the course under the guidance of the teacher educators.

In this phase, as a single researcher, I could not observe the activities of all groups. Therefore, I decided to focus on the groups that included the eight interview participants. The field-trip observation guide was used to record observations of these interview participants and their groups. Semistructured interviews using Teacher Interview Protocol 2 were also conducted with these teachers to identify their experiences in these field trips.

4.6.5 Phase 5 – Six months after the field trips

Six months after the field trips, I visited seven teachers who had given consent for classroom observations. In this phase, I conducted one classroom observation for each of the seven teachers in their seven different schools using the classroom lesson observation guide to discover how these teachers applied what they learned from the course to their classroom. After that, I delivered Questionnaire 3, which focuses on the impact of the course on teachers' practices, to the seven teachers. The teachers returned the questionnaire by contacting me to arrange a time and place to submit it. A follow-up interview using Teacher Interview Protocol 3 was conducted face-to-face after the questionnaires were analysed to understand more about these seven teachers' responses.

4.7 Data analysis

Collected data were divided into three categories based on the data collection instruments: data from questionnaires, data from interviews, and data from observations.

4.7.1 Data from the questionnaires

Data from Questionnaires 1, 2, and 3 were entered into SPSS version 24. Frequencies were then calculated to identify the demographics of the teachers, their evaluation of the course, and their implementation of the course.

4.7.2 Data from the interviews

After I had transcribed the interviews, they were imported into NVivo version 12. I then analysed the transcripts by thematic coding, a process to identify topics from gathered data, especially when the data comprises text (Ryan & Bernard, 1999). In detail, transcripts from the interviews were analysed through six phases: becoming familiar with the data, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and producing the report (Braun & Clarke, 2006). First, teachers' and teacher educators' answers in the interviews were read sentence by sentence so that I could understand their meaning. After that, topic nodes or main ideas of each sentence or paragraph such as "poor student competence", "lack of teaching resources", and "heavy workload" were identified from the transcripts. These nodes were then grouped into themes such as "Difficulties from teachers' workplace", "Social issues", and "Course organisation". In reviewing the themes, I compared the themes with themes identified in the literature review. These included teacher professional needs (Bayar, 2014; H. Lee, 2005; Nir & Bogler, 2008; Yilmaz & Esen, 2015), teacher educators' quality (Ayvaz-Tuncel & Çobanoğlu, 2018; Hill & Ball, 2004; Zein, 2016), educational approaches (Bechtel & O'Sullivan, 2007; Yamagata-Lynch & Haudenschild, 2009), and colleagues' support (Girvan et al., 2016). This comparison provided suggestions for me in naming the themes as well as identifying new themes. After defining and naming themes, I exported a report of themes and nodes from NVivo and reviewed that report. As suggested by Mackey and Gass (2015), I conducted intercoder reliability to guarantee the reliability of the coding process. In order to accomplish this, I invited a Ph.D. student who also conducted a study about teacher education to become the intercoder in my study. I sent two recordings (one of teacher educator, one of teacher) to her so that she could code. I also advised her about the process I had used when coding to guarantee that she would follow it to achieve minimal differences in the way we coded. After the intercoder coded, we compared our themes. The intercoder reliability was 89%.

Themes from the interviews were then grouped into teachers' learning practices; teacher educators' lecturing practices; teachers' teaching practices in the field trip; teachers' implementing practices; and their cultural-discursive, material-economic, and social-political arrangements. These themes were also placed in different practice landscapes, namely the school where face-to-face sessions were conducted, field-trip

schools, and teachers' schools (Kemmis & Grootenboer, 2008). This categorising of themes in relation to practice architectures theory allowed me to reconstruct the participants' practices in their real contexts, from which the relationship between course context and the professional development course could be analysed systematically.

4.7.3 Data from observations

Similar to data from the interviews, I read texts in the observation guides collected in the face-to-face session observations, field-trip observations, and classroom session observations carefully. This was to identify the main ideas of each sentence or paragraph describing the activities and recording what teachers and teacher educators said and did in the course. The main ideas are subthemes and are called nodes in Nvivo. Subthemes or nodes were then categorised and grouped into themes such as "unpractical contents", "large class size", and "disagreements between teachers and teacher educators". These themes were then cross-checked with the themes from the interviews and integrated into a complete set of nodes and themes developed in the study (see Appendix I).

In addition, doings, sayings, and relatings were identified from these observations to attain a full description of teachers and teacher educators' practices (Kemmis & Grootenboer, 2008). After sayings, doings, and relatings were identified, themes from the observations and interviews were also categorised and placed in the same groups with respective sayings, doings, and relatings. This categorisation allowed me to see what enabled and constrained practices in EFL Course. For example, what the teacher educators mentioned about the language used in the course was placed in the group of sayings.

4.8 Validity and reliability

Reliability refers to the consistency of research outcomes with regard to the research context (Kirk & Miller, 1986), whereas validity is the plausibility, credibility, trustworthiness, and defensibility of a study (Johnson, 1997). In qualitative research, reliability and validity are viewed as trustworthiness, rigour and quality of the study (Golafshani, 2003). A variety of strategies were employed to increase reliability and validity of this research. First, to ensure the reliability of the study, in the data collection process, instruments were adapted based on similar studies related to the issues emerging

in the literature review. However, it is noteworthy that in qualitative research, each case provides a unique situation, so that the findings of this study should not be generalised. Rather, it should be treated as a case that may help us understand more about teacher professional development. In terms of validity, triangulation and reflexivity are employed to guarantee the validity of the study. Triangulation and reflexivity are discussed below.

4.8.1 Triangulation

Triangulation is defined as “the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon” (Denzin, 2017, p. 291). Used in many periods of a research process, triangulation can be divided into data triangulation, methods triangulation, investigator triangulation, and theory triangulation (Johnson, 1997). Data triangulation and investigator triangulation were applied in this study. Data triangulation included the multiple sources of questionnaires using Likert scales, observations, and interviews for teachers and teacher educators. Investigator triangulation involved themes and nodes being reviewed and discussed between me and my supervisors.

4.8.2 Researcher’s reflexivity

Reflexivity is one way to minimise researcher bias, especially when observation might be influenced by the researchers’ own perceptions as a means of data collection. Guillemin and Gillam (2004) explained that: “Reflexivity involves critical reflection of how the researcher constructs knowledge from the research process—what sorts of factors influence the researcher’s construction of knowledge and how these influences are revealed in the planning, conduct, and writing up of the research” (Guillemin & Gillam, 2004, p. 275). Reflexivity concerns the effect of researcher positionality in research process (Bourke, 2014; Malthouse et al., 2014). Berger (2015) distinguished three positions of researchers in relation to the research objects: studying the familiar, studying while becoming, and studying the unfamiliar. According to Berger, studying the familiar refers to the researchers and the research participants sharing the same experiences in the study. For example, researchers conduct a study about teachers’ teaching practices while they are also teachers. Studying while becoming means that during the process of doing research, the researcher’s position changes from not sharing to sharing experiences with research participants. For instance, a researcher might conduct a study about teachers’ teaching practices while she was applying for a teaching position. Studying the unfamiliar

refers to the fact that the researcher does not share the same experiences with the research participants. For example, a researcher might conduct a study about school leaders without ever having been a school leader. With each position, there are different techniques of reflexivity.

Regarding my relationship with EFL Course, at the time I was conducting the study I was in the position of both studying the familiar and studying the unfamiliar. First, I was once a teacher in similar courses. Therefore, I was studying the familiar. However, I had never taught in a lower-secondary school, as had the teachers in the course, or in a professional development course, as had the teacher educators in the course. Therefore, I was studying teachers and teacher educators in EFL Course from the position of studying the unfamiliar. With these two positions, techniques for reflexivity in this study are the combination between studying the familiar and studying the unfamiliar.

To reduce the research bias, reflexivity strategies were used in this situation. These comprised continuous reviews and peer consultation (Berger, 2015). First, I continuously reviewed themes in the literature review, which helped me to name themes and identify new themes. In addition, regarding a reflective journal, I took notes about all of the activities related to the study from participant coding to new findings in the field of teacher professional development. This note-taking strategy helped me track my project as well as identify potential issues. Finally, in terms of peer consultation, translated transcripts of interviews were sent back to teachers and teacher educators for their reviews to guarantee the quality of translation. Also, I sought the support from a fellow researcher by sending two transcripts to her for coding and calculating intercoder reliability.

4.9 Ethical considerations

This study focuses on participants' perceptions of an existing professional development course for EFL teachers. This means that the study required the approval of the Ethics Committee from my university (Appendix A). As the basic requirement when applying for the approval of the ethics committee, I needed permission from the management boards of Capital University and the seven schools of the teachers who participated in Phase 5 of the study. This study was approved by all of these educational institutions. To guarantee the privacy of the Vietnamese educational institutions, no written approvals from them is provided in this thesis. In addition, to guarantee teachers' and teacher

educators' rights in participating in the study, all the teachers and teacher educators were provided with information and consent forms (Appendix B) before commencement of the study. To avoid any sense of coercion, I did not distribute the information and consent forms. More importantly, at the end of each questionnaire, teachers were also asked whether they wanted to continue in subsequent phases of the study and were informed that they could withdraw at any time without negative consequences. The identity of the university and the name of the course were also not revealed. All the information gathered in the study was clarified to be used only for research purposes, and it was stored securely.

4.10 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have described the methodology for the study, including details about the professional development course, the teachers, and the teacher educators. In addition, the data collection instruments and the processes for collecting and analysing the data were described. Consideration of ways to improve validity and reliability of the study and ethical considerations were also described. The next chapter contains the findings of the study.

Results

5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the processes of data collection and analysis were described. In this chapter, I report the results from that process. This chapter has six main parts, comprising introduction, participants' aims and expectations of EFL Course, activities during EFL Course, participants' perceptions of EFL Course, teachers' implementation of new textbooks, and conclusion. First, the aims and expectations of teachers and teacher educators in EFL Course are discussed. After that, issues during the course operation are described. Third, there is a report of EFL Course in terms of its delivery mode, coursebook, duration and scheduling, location, and its participants—both teachers and teacher educators. The impacts of EFL Course on teachers and teacher educators are then reported from the perspectives of teachers and teacher educators. Teachers' implementation of EFL Course teaching approaches is the last topic in this chapter. The teachers' implementation section focuses on what teachers implemented from EFL Course, the outcomes of their implementation, and, most importantly, factors affecting teachers' implementation.

Due to the variety of components in the course, the headings used in this chapter are based on the timeline of the course – before the course, during the course, after the course – rather than constructed based on the theoretical framework. This is done to guarantee that all the important events/phenomena are reported at the time they happened. In addition, the themes and subthemes which emerged from data analysis are placed into groups, which are the subheadings of the chapter.

5.2 Participants' aims and expectations of the course

Aims and expectations represent what an individual intends to do, why he/she does it, what he/she thinks is necessary to achieve his/her goals, and how important an action/event/object is from his/her perspective. As such, aims and expectations partly show one's perceptions. For this reason, this section reports teacher educators' and teachers' aims and expectations of the course.

5.2.1 Teacher educators

Responses in Teacher Educator (TE) Interview 1 exposed three aims of the teacher educators. These aims were to motivate teachers in their profession, instruct teachers to use the new textbooks, and provide teachers with practical teaching techniques and tools.

Nam, May, and Thy regarded increasing teachers' motivation to be their primary goal because they believed that changes in teachers' motivation could lead to changes in teachers' beliefs and teaching practices. In addition, because the official time for the introduction of the new textbooks nationwide was unknown at the time of the course, motivating teachers was claimed to be the most suitable goal.

My aim is to motivate teachers more and more ... It is because of the period from the time they learn to the time they themselves implement, which depends much on when they use the new textbooks. This year, next year, or in the next few years? My primary aim is to motivate teachers so that they understand that they should learn and implement, maybe not with the new textbooks, but with the textbooks they are using. (Thy, teacher educator, TE Interview 1)

Anh and Linh focused on instructing teachers to use the new textbooks. This was also the primary aim of EFL Course as indicated by its name – Professional Development of New Textbooks for EFL Lower-Secondary Teachers.

The youngest teacher educator, Tan, intended to provide teachers with practical teaching techniques and tools. This aim derived from his belief that teachers' implementation of communicative teaching approaches (the approaches of EFL Course) depended on teachers' beliefs and contextual factors such as the Vietnamese testing and assessment system. Thus, instead of emphasising teachers' implementation of the approaches of EFL Course, Tan was determined to provide teachers with practical teaching techniques and tools so that teachers could gradually improve their current teaching practices. This aim was also the secondary aim of the other teacher educators because they also wanted to enhance the practicality of the course.

The next aim is to make them know that after learning, they have something to bring home. Some specific things. Knowledge is too broad.
(May, teacher educator, TE Interview 1)

The “specific things” that these teacher educators mentioned were then listed as games, software, and e-books that teachers could use to design their lessons in the future.

With these three aims, all the teacher educators expected cooperation from the teachers during the course. The cooperation can be represented in their attention during course sessions.

First, teachers need to pay attention. Once they pay attention, we can engage or interest them. If they don’t pay attention, we couldn’t do [the] next steps. (Tan, teacher educator, TE Interview 1)

Only if teachers concentrate on activities in the course can the teacher educators engage those teachers in their lessons and motivate them to consider changes in their teaching practices. May, a teacher educator with 6 years of teaching experience in professional development courses, stated how she recognised when teachers were actively participating in the course.

Such teachers are very attentive in the classroom. When we [teacher educators] lecture, they listen very attentively and take notes. And then when we assign activities, they are eager to do. Then in microteaching sessions, they are willing to perform ... They always ask. They raise questions. (May, teacher educator, TE Interview 1)

In addition to teachers’ active participation in the classroom shown in the above quote, the cooperation of the teachers was expected to be seen through teachers’ responses to the teacher educators’ feedback. Not only would the teachers need to understand teacher educators’ comments, but they should also apply teacher educators’ suggestions to their teaching.

To be honest, when I teach, I expect teachers to acquire what I think is good, which other teachers haven’t performed well. I hope they apply what I observed and found out that other teachers haven’t done well. I expect

them to correct themselves based on my corrections. (Linh, teacher educator, TE Interview 1).

Finally, the teacher educators expected to encounter teachers' diligence in the course.

In this course, in order to learn well, the teachers themselves need to invest time for self-study as much as time for face-to-face sessions. (Anh, teacher educator, TE Interview 1)

In other words, the teachers should focus on their face-to-face sessions, spend time doing the assigned homework tasks, and complete all of the online learning activities on their own.

5.2.2 Teachers

The data from Questionnaire 1 revealed teachers' expectations about EFL Course. Among 49 teachers returning Questionnaire 1, 22 expected to learn about English teaching methods and techniques. Knowledge of new textbooks and lessons learned from observing other teachers' microteaching were the reasons to participate in the course given by 10 and nine teachers, respectively. Seven teachers in EFL Course expressed their desire to improve their English competence to teach.

Teacher Interview 1, with eight teachers, provided an indication about the underlying reasons for those expectations. For example, Thu and Yen explained that, because their schools were among a few schools already using these textbooks before their nationwide implementation, they were teaching the new textbooks without having received any professional development on them. Thus, this course was their opportunity to learn ways to make better use of the textbooks in their teaching. Ngoc and Hang expected to see the teacher educators' modelling of teaching with new textbooks so that they could gain a clear insight of how to teach with the new textbooks.

It is noteworthy that neither Thu nor Hang reported any expectations before the course because they did not know what the course was about.

In fact, at the beginning we didn't know we would learn about the new textbooks. At the beginning, as stated in the offer the district educational department sent us, it was a course of pedagogical content knowledge, so

they offered us. In each school district, some teachers were invited, and I was one of them, so I participated. To be honest, I participated but I did not know what it was about and what I was going to learn, so I did not prepare anything. (Hang, teacher, Teacher Interview 1)

These teachers had participated in various professional development courses before EFL Course. Therefore, the offer of a professional development course focusing on pedagogical content knowledge did not provide them with enough information to distinguish this course from other previous courses. As a result, these teachers did not have any specific expectations before the course commenced.

In addition, Yen, an EFL teacher who had not previously participated in any professional development courses for the new textbooks, hoped to have collective participation in EFL Course. Collective participation, in this case, refers to the participation of all the teachers in the same school.

I expect all EFL teachers can participate so that they can gain experience for themselves. When just some teachers participate, after the course ends we will have to instruct each other but I am sure that our instructions are not as sufficient as teacher educators' in the course. What we gained sometimes deteriorates. We cannot transfer all the knowledge we are taught, so just the participation of three or four teachers in each school district is not enough. (Yen, teacher, Interview 1)

This hope of collective participation derived from the reality that only one teacher from each school was sent to professional development courses. The participant teacher was either the leader of the English group or the only EFL teacher at his/her school. After professional development courses ended, these teachers were expected to share with their colleagues what they had learned from the courses. In Yen's case, she had not been invited to participate in a similar course about the new textbooks which were provided for a few schools. Therefore, when teaching with the new textbooks, she was confused despite her colleague's instructions.

5.3 Activities during EFL Course

Data from course and field-trip observations show specific features of the course related to teacher educators' teaching styles, teachers' engagement, teacher educators' course management, teachers' time management and preparation for the field trip, teachers' teaching style in microteaching sessions and the field trip, and class discussions.

5.3.1 Teacher educators' teaching styles

As outlined in Chapter 4, the face-to-face sessions consisted of microteaching sessions and lectures. In the microteaching sessions, the teacher educators observed and provided feedback on the teachers' microteaching, so the teacher educators' teaching styles were seen more obviously in their lecturing sessions. Observations of face-to-face lecturing sessions in EFL Course highlighted two teaching styles of the teacher educators: demonstration-based and discussion-based styles.

A demonstration-based teaching style refers to the teacher educators' modelling and presenting as the main strategies in delivering the contents of the coursebook to the teachers. For example, in one of May's sessions, when instructing the teachers how to begin a lesson, she considered the teachers as lower-secondary students and required them to participate in a crossword of TV shows. Through this activity, she introduced the content of the lesson: television. After that, May summarised what she did and pointed out important issues when getting a lesson started. This teaching style was seen throughout May's teaching sessions. In this teaching style, to supplement the demonstrations a teacher educator would use a variety of teaching materials such as models of lesson plans, videos of English classes, and pictures.

The discussion-based teaching style refers to teacher educators' use of speech in dealing with the contents of the coursebook to the teachers. For instance, Tan used to start his lessons by asking teachers about their experiences in teaching English skills. Through these questions, the main contents of the lessons, such as principles in teaching English skills, were introduced. During his sessions, Tan mainly told the teachers what they should or should not do rather than demonstrated teaching strategies through his actions. The coursebook was the only material used in these face-to-face lecturing sessions.

5.3.2 Teachers' engagement

First, teachers' punctuality was an issue that teacher educators had to deal with each day in the face-to-face morning sessions. Although the sessions were scheduled to start at half past seven in the morning, only half of the teacher groups were present at that time, and, when the weather was rainy, the teachers came to class much later. The excuse for teachers' lateness that the teacher educators were given was the limitation in travelling because of the distances between teachers' houses and the place where the course was delivered.

Second, the teachers' participation in course activities exhibited three general approaches. These approaches can be seen through Thy's categorisation of teachers in professional development courses.

I observed the teachers and categorised them into groups ... the group of active teachers, the group of average teachers, and the group of stubborn teachers ... Among stubborn teachers, some of them always argue with the teacher educators whereas the others do not care about anything ... they do not care about what I do, they do not learn, they just show up and then go. (Thy, teacher educator, TE Interview 1)

Most of the teachers showed their cooperative learning attitudes by doing the homework, actively bringing their teaching problems to course discussions, and following the teacher educators' instructions. Other teachers were neither active nor undisciplined. They were present at the course and silently did what the teacher educators required rather than contributing actively to course activities. Apart from these two groups of teachers, about one sixth of the teachers expressed their reluctance in the course by not responding to the teacher educators' requirements or making noise in the sessions. For example, in one of Tan's classes, a group of male teachers did not respond to his request when he called them to the board. As a result, in TE Interview 2, Tan expressed his feeling that some teachers were forced to participate in the course.

5.3.3 Teacher educators' course management

Corresponding to teachers' levels of engagement in EFL Course, the teacher educators showed two styles of course management. These can be summarised in Thy's answer.

With the teachers who often argue with me, I try to show that I empathise with them and let them understand my situation. I also set limitations for them. If they continuously express their uncooperativeness, I will note down and send to the course organisers. (Thy, teacher educator, TE Interview 1)

It is noteworthy that the limitations that Thy established for the teachers included flexibility in course attendance as well as involvement of the teachers with her teaching.

With the uncooperative group of teachers who are undisciplined, I have to be tough with them. I set some specific rules like “the break is normally 10 minutes, but because your cafeteria you often go is far, or sometimes you smoke, I give you guys five more minutes, but after 15 or 20 minutes, you need to be present in the class. Anyone who is absent at the time I check the attendance needs to take their own responsibility.” (Thy, teacher educator, TE Interview 1)

Thy’s two ways of dealing with the teachers, including showing sympathy or reporting teachers’ negative behaviours to the course organisers, can be seen during EFL Course in all of the sessions. With teachers’ behaviours such as arriving late for the sessions or not completing the homework, the teacher educators showed their empathy with the teachers’ excuses. For example, the teacher educators used to wait until eight in the morning to start the lesson. In addition, they also gave the teachers some time to complete their homework before starting a new lesson.

With teachers’ negative behaviours such as not responding to the teacher educators’ requirements or absence, the teacher educators showed their authority through checking attendance every day, making notes on teachers’ participation, and sending feedback to their district educational department staff. For example, in one of Tan’s classes, when a group of teachers ignored his requirements despite his requests, he said that he would note that all of the teachers in that group were absent. In addition, he decided not to teach in those sessions. Instead, he required the class to review the lesson on their own and assigned them a test immediately after that.

5.3.4 Teachers' time management and preparation for the field trip

Teachers' time management was an issue observed in the teachers' field trip. Teachers managed time unevenly between sections in their lessons. As a result, they could not complete their microteaching in a session of 45 minutes. For example, one teacher spent 20 minutes on a crossword game to introduce the contents of a lesson. With 25 minutes left, she did not have time for students' speaking and other activities. Consequently, she required students to stay in the class in their break to complete the activities and she assigned the rest of the lesson as homework for the students. Among 13 sessions observed in the field trips, seven teachers could not complete their microteaching within the allocated time for the lesson.

The teachers' preparation for their field trip also exhibited some problems such as mistakes in the teaching materials. The mistakes were related to spelling, grammar, and pronunciation. This generated criticism from the teacher educators. The teachers claimed that the reason for these mistakes was the limited time they had for lesson preparation. They reported that they received the announcement of the lesson topic they would teach 3 days before the field trips took place, so they had insufficient time to prepare their lessons.

5.3.5 Teachers' teaching style in microteaching sessions and the field trip

A common feature of all the lessons given by the teachers in the microteaching sessions and the field trip was the use of games, pairwork, and groupwork activities. For example, the teachers used games such as crosswords, hangman, or bingo to teach new words or introduce the lessons to students. With other tasks in the textbooks such as fill-in-the-blank exercises or multiple-choice questions, students were required to work in pairs or in groups. The teacher educators sometimes criticised what they regarded as the overuse of pairwork and groupwork activities by the teachers. For example, when giving comments on Hang's grammar lesson in the field trip, Nam pointed out that her use of groupwork activities in tasks such as putting the verbs in the correct tense was unnecessary and a waste of time.

Another feature in teachers' microteaching sessions and the field trip was the use of information technology in their teaching. The teachers designed their lessons on PowerPoint slides with a variety of animations and sounds. In addition, they attempted to

use interactive whiteboards and e-books to attract students' attention. May advised the teachers to consider information technology for delivering the contents of their lesson rather than a tool to "show off" with the students lest students might be distracted from the main contents of the lesson.

The other feature in teachers' microteaching sessions and the field trip was their use of English as the main medium of instruction. All of the teachers in the course spoke English in their classes in the field trip. Vietnamese was used only when they could not explain something in English. The teacher educators raised some concerns about the teachers' speaking competence when they made mistakes such as "can you found" or "are you agree" in their instructions.

5.3.6 Class discussions

Discussions were the activities most frequently used in the course, from face-to-face sessions to the field trip. In these discussions, the teacher educator played the role of the facilitator in which he/she posed questions to the teachers, coordinated the speakers and summarised the main ideas of the discussion. The contents of the discussion consisted of problems in teaching, such as how to teach a mixed-ability class, how to deal with students' lack of interest, strengths and weaknesses in teachers' microteaching sessions, conflicts between teaching approaches of the course and the reality of teaching, and the need to use a variety of teaching strategies.

5.4 Teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of the effectiveness of EFL Course

The data from Questionnaire 2 revealed a positive evaluation of EFL Course from nearly three quarters of the teachers, with 68% of the 45 teachers who completed Questionnaire 2 responses indicating that they were satisfied with the course in general. They agreed or strongly agreed that the course expanded their repertoire of learning and teaching strategies (76%), improved their content knowledge (74%), and increased their motivation for teaching (62%).

EFL Course was considered to be useful preparation for teachers using both the old and new textbooks by all eight teachers who participated in Teacher Interview 1. This view was also shared by the teacher educators such as Anh and Thy. In detail, participants

reported that EFL Course provided teachers with knowledge of the new textbooks thanks to the information in the coursebook. Rather, the teaching techniques instructed by teacher educators could be used with any textbooks but not only the new textbooks.

In addition, EFL Course benefited the teacher educators. Nam and Thy, who participated in writing the coursebook and training the other teacher educators, evaluated the course as an opportunity for their own and their colleagues' professional development.

Teaching people like the teachers in this course lets us reflect on our teaching. Teacher professional development programs are good not only for them (teachers) but for us. (Thy, teacher educator, TE Interview 1).

Other details of teachers and teacher educators' evaluations of EFL Course can be placed into themes named mode of delivery, duration and scheduling, coursebook, location, teachers' and teacher educators' participation, and the impacts of EFL Course. Each of these is discussed below.

5.4.1 Mode of delivery

As stated in Chapter 4, EFL Course consisted of three modes: face-to-face sessions, online independent learning, and a field trip. The teachers and the teacher educators provided different evaluations regarding these modes.

Face-to-face sessions gave teachers opportunities to discuss directly with teacher educators about their teaching problems (Ha, teacher, Interview 1). In addition, the microteaching sessions provided teachers with practical teaching methods that they learned from observing the other teachers and the teacher educators (Yen and Ngoc, teachers, Interview 1). Also, feedback from other teachers and teacher educators directed at their own microteaching lessons helped the teachers to identify weaknesses and strengths in their teaching. As a result of their feedback, the teachers understood more about their teaching.

After my microteaching, I received the feedback from teachers and teacher educators, so I learn more. (Ngoc, teacher, Teacher Interview 1)

Online independent learning helped the teachers review what they learnt in the class (Lan, teacher, Teacher Interview 1) and the online independent learning activities motivated some teachers in their learning.

When I studied my online lessons, I found out many interesting things. I think that when I am free, I will spend time learning them more carefully.
(Hang, teacher, Teacher Interview 1)

Hang's awareness derived from her feeling that the contents of the course were condensed because of limited time. Therefore, she could not understand them thoroughly in class and the online independent learning was her chance to acquire in-depth knowledge of EFL Course.

The field trip was an opportunity to demonstrate what the teachers had learnt from the course (Ha, teacher, Teacher Interview 1). Under the supervision of the teacher educators, the teachers delivered a lesson using the teaching approaches of EFL Course. Moreover, as the field trip took place at different lower-secondary schools, the teachers experienced different teaching environments (Lan and Nhung, teachers, Teacher Interview 2) and had a chance to microteach in authentic teaching situations.

This week was different from the previous weeks in the way that I taught real students at school. There were emerging problems and lessons we gained when we used [the] new textbooks for our teaching. Through the feedback from our colleagues and the teacher educator, we gained lessons which we can apply to our subsequent teaching more effectively. I find it more beneficial than when we teach in face-to-face microteaching sessions with teachers, which is unreal. (Nhung, teacher, Teacher Interview 2)

In the face-to-face microteaching sessions, each teacher delivered a lesson to the other teachers and the teacher educator in their group. Although the other teachers played the role of students in these sessions, there was a lack of pedagogical situations such as mixed-ability student classes or students with learning difficulties. Thus, a field trip in which the teachers had an opportunity to practise with real students provided the teachers with more realistic practical lessons.

All of the teacher educators evaluated the field trip highly. They considered it to be an opportunity for them to understand teachers' strengths and weaknesses in their teaching practices, from which better feedback and suggestions would be offered.

I regard the field trip as the most significant part in this course. In the field trip, the teachers will teach real students, but not their current students at their school. They will teach students at different schools ... I will be able to assess how they use communicative language approaches and techniques, from which my direct feedback relating to their teaching will have more positive effect because it is more detailed. (Tan, teacher educator, TE Interview 2)

Interviews with the teachers and the teacher educators at the end of EFL Course also exposed its weaknesses in terms of mode of delivery. First, there were inconsistencies between the contents of the online independent learning and the coursebook. In Interview 1, Thu commented that some of the contents in the online independent learning activities did not appear in the coursebook used in the face-to-face sessions. Therefore, when she studied the online contents, she was confused. As a result, although the online learning was meant to be done independently, she decided to join with some other teachers in the course to solve some of the online exercises collaboratively.

In addition, the unfamiliar environment in the field trip challenged the teachers.

In the class that I taught yesterday, there were six autistic students, but I didn't know. During my microteaching session, one of them bent all the time while the others ... (sighed) ... In comparison with my schools, students here are not as good as ours. In my school, when there are observers in my class, my students are very well-behaved and quiet. They are not as noisy as students here. (Yen, teacher, Teacher Interview 2)

With the teachers like Yen, classroom observations were considered to be an assessment of their teaching competence. In order to have a successful lesson, these teachers required a thorough preparation from their students by, for example, looking up new words to be used in the lessons or reviewing the contents of previous lessons. Any unexpected behaviours of students such as "bending all the time" could be regarded as inattentive participation, and teachers' teaching could be rated "unsuccessful". Therefore,

delivering a lesson to the students they did not know was challenging for some teachers, particularly given that they regarded the field trip to be an examination rather than a practicum.

5.4.2 Duration and scheduling

In general, both the teachers and the teacher educators agreed that the face-to-face sessions of EFL Course were organised at a suitable time, during the summer school holiday period. More importantly, scheduling this course in 2018 was considered to be suitable because the new textbooks were increasingly being used.

EFL Course was criticised for issues related to the duration of the course components. First, the duration of microteaching was regarded as too short by both the teachers and the teacher educators. This derived from the teachers' expectation of more opportunities for them to microteach when each teacher had only one session in which to conduct microteaching. Second, the 3 weeks allocated for online independent learning was reported to be too long, particularly when it was the same duration as the 3 weeks allocated to the face-to-face sessions. As a result, the teachers had to spend 6 weeks learning in EFL Course and they did not have much time for their summer holiday before the new term began.

We can shorten online contents ... it is not necessary to spend one week alternately like now. Shortening the duration so that teachers can have time for summer holiday. We had little time for holiday when participating this course ... Of course, learning is beneficial, but we didn't have much time for holiday. We worked hard all year long, so when the summer came, we expected to have some time for holiday. (Yen, teacher, Teacher Interview 1)

Vietnamese lower-secondary students and teachers have one school holiday, from mid-June to August. Therefore, the EFL Course taking place from the beginning of July to mid-August left the teachers with much less holiday time.

Holding the field trip during the school term led to an interruption in teachers' schoolwork.

My difficulty is that when I participated in this 1-week field trip, our teaching at my school, which is about 20 lessons per week, was transferred to my colleagues. But my colleagues only supervised the classes and when I complete this field trip, I will have to rush teaching. It is very tiring. (Nhung, teacher, Teacher Interview 2)

This difficulty came from the fact that when the teachers participated in the field trip, their classes were covered by their colleagues who could be teachers of any subject. Consequently, these teachers were tasked with managing students so that they would not disturb the learning of other classes at school instead of teaching them English lessons. Thus, a teacher teaching about 20 sessions in a week would have 20 sessions to make up when returning to school. Participation in the field trip for 1 week during the school term created a burden of additional teaching afterwards for the teachers.

5.4.3 *The coursebook*

Half of the interviewed teachers considered the coursebook contents to be good and suitable for teachers. This view was shared by all of the teacher educators. They discussed the coursebook as a teaching resource (May and Linh) which was well matched with teachers' needs (Anh, Thy, and Tan) and contained practical contents (Nam).

In terms of its weaknesses, the coursebook was said to be difficult because its theoretical contents challenged some teachers.

The coursebook has many theoretical contents which teachers like us cannot acquire in such a short period of time. (Hien, teacher, Teacher Interview 1)

In this quote, theoretical contents of the coursebook referred to Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences, communicative language teaching approaches, and other principles in English language teaching. Understanding these contents, with their variety of terminology, required effort on the part of teachers. The limited time made teachers' acquisition of all the material difficult.

The teacher educators were also challenged by the theoretical contents of the coursebook that they considered impractical to teachers' teaching, for example, the lesson of professional development.

Regarding the contents, there was a section that I found it difficult to teach. It is the section about professional development. It was completely theoretical. For example, there are some domains of professional development or something like that which teachers were not interested much because they could not implement to their teaching. Instead, it is like an orientation so that teachers can know what they lack. Therefore, I find out that teachers do not care much. (Linh, teacher educator, TE Interview 2).

Nam, one of the teacher educators who wrote the coursebook, suggested that the 20 modules in the coursebook could be shortened. In addition, he also thought that some contents, for example, the testing and assessment sections, were unnecessary because teachers were not in charge of designing tests at their school.

It is noteworthy that when mentioning unnecessary items, some teachers questioned the use of observations sheets provided in the coursebook.

The coursebook is quite thick. I saw observation sheets in the coursebook, but I did not know what they were for. So thick. Many pages of observation. (Ha, teacher, Teacher Interview 1)

In addition, the coursebook had spelling mistakes (Linh, teacher educator, Interview 2) and there were inconsistencies in the coursebook layout and contents.

The layout of the coursebook is not really consistent. In some modules, the contents are so detailed, so detailed that they became lengthy. In the meantime, some modules were written very shallow. Therefore, it is very difficult for the teacher educators to follow. Most of the time, we need to adapt or something like that. (Tan, teacher educator, TE Interview 2)

Nam and Thy, two of the coursebook writers, explained why the coursebook attracted criticism despite having been written by many experienced and outstanding teacher

educators. According to them, the coursebook was a requirement from the Ministry of Education and Training. Therefore, the outline of the coursebook needed the approval of that ministry. During the process of writing the coursebook, teacher educators sometimes found some unnecessary contents in the outline, but they could not change it because all the changes in the outline required other approvals from the sponsor.

Once the sponsor approved the outline which points out clearly that the coursebook needs to have a specific amount of this content, and another specific amount of that content, it is time for us to write. During the process, we found out that we need to combine or separate this section or add more to that section. However, given the provided outline, we cannot have more modules, so it leads to the fact that there were modules combined together while in fact it should be two separate modules. (Thy, teacher educator, TE Interview 2)

In addition, despite being regarded as experienced teacher educators, the writers of the coursebook faced obstacles related to their knowledge of new textbooks.

My first difficulty is that I haven't had much contact with new textbooks. Therefore, first I had to search the new textbooks then read them and other related materials very carefully. Then I had to ask the writers of the new textbooks for help. (Nam, teacher educator, TE Interview 1)

The word "contact" in this quote can be understood as Nam, a lecturer at a university, not having taught new textbooks before he wrote the coursebook. His students were mainly preservice teachers rather than lower-secondary students. Thus, writing a coursebook instructing teachers about how to teach the textbooks that he did not use was a challenge to Nam.

5.4.4 Location

The location of EFL Course was an issue for the teachers participating in the course. Many of these teachers lived far away from the place where the course was conducted. Therefore, they needed a place to stay during the course. However, the course providers did not provide accommodation for them. Therefore, most of these teachers had to either rent a house or travel a long distance to participate in the course each day.

My biggest difficulty is travelling. It is because the course lasts long, and my house is far from here. (Hien, teacher, Teacher Interview 1)

Frequent travelling during the course led to teachers' health and financial problems. For example, Ngoc, a teacher working in an island, had to spend nearly three hours travelling by boat and by coach every day to the place where the course was conducted.

My house is not here, so I have to travel back and forwards. Travelling is very expensive and uncomfortable. I got carsick and seasick all the time. (Ngoc, teacher, Teacher Interview 1)

In addition, organising the course in a higher-secondary school affected the teacher educators' teaching. For example, once while the teacher educator, Tan, and the teachers were discussing how to design a speaking test, there was so much noise from outside the room that he could not hear what the teachers said. Despite the school holidays, many extracurricular activities took place at that school and there were many students around at that time. Therefore, Tan decided to ask the teachers to do the microteaching instead of designing the speaking test, despite the fact that many teachers said it was not the contents of the lesson on that day.

5.4.5 Teachers' participation in the EFL course

Four of the six teacher educators agreed that the teachers were more active and collaborative during the course than their counterparts in other regions. It meant that they were willing to share their teaching challenges with the teacher educators.

I found out that in those classes, teachers were very open about difficulties they faced. They did not complain or moan. Instead, they talked about their difficulties to find solutions to solve them. (Thy, teacher educator, TE Interview 2)

To the other teacher educators, however, the teachers were not as actively involved in the sessions.

In general, the teachers were not active to work with the new textbooks as I expected. Maybe it is because they haven't taught them. When they haven't taught them, they could not actively find the lessons to raise

questions to me, so they were just passive. I asked them to do this task, and they just did it. (May, teacher educator, TE Interview 2)

Instead, the teachers showed their negative attitudes towards the course.

The attitudes of the teachers in Group 1 are not good. It is not my own evaluation but the other teacher teaching that group also said to me that. In Group 1, the teachers showed their disrespectful attitudes when participating in the course. It's like they were forced. (Tan, teacher educator, Interview 2)

The participation of the teachers in EFL Course was under the supervision of their district educational departments. The teacher educators were in charge of checking teachers' attendance and reported to the district educational departments at the end of the course. Therefore, once teachers received the offer of EFL Course and participated in the course, they had little ability to withdraw from it. It was the reason why Tan had some sense of teachers' reluctance in his class.

5.4.6 Teacher educators' participation in EFL Course

All of the interviewed teachers agreed that high-quality teacher educators were the most beneficial part of EFL Course.

I am very impressed by the teacher educators. They are very enthusiastic and supportive. They solved all of the teachers' problems. They also shared the ways they would do when they taught some types of lessons. I really like the way they work. (Lan, teacher, Teacher Interview 1)

Despite the teachers' compliments, there still existed some weaknesses in teacher educators' performance in EFL Course from teachers' perspectives. First, contrary to teachers' expectations, the teacher educators did not perform any modelling of a proper lesson in the new textbooks.

I found out that the teacher educators lectured, introduced theoretical contents, asked us to microteach and corrected our microteaching. I think it is all right, but they must perform a model lesson because all of these contents are new to teachers like me. (Ngoc, teacher, Teacher Interview 1)

Second, the teachers complained that the teacher educators taught too quickly, so the teachers found it difficult to understand (Hang, teacher, Teacher Interview 1). This fast-teaching style also led to the teachers misunderstanding some of the requirements of the activities. For example, one day, when being asked to give comments on her own microteaching, a teacher said that her lesson was not good because she misunderstood the teacher educator's requirements concerning microteaching preparation. The other teachers in her group also acknowledged their misinterpretation of the teacher educator's requirement.

Teachers also reported being confused when the teacher educators introduced a different format of lesson plan in their teaching.

I found that the lesson plan which was introduced to us has four columns. Currently, at our schools, we use two-column format. We think it had better follow the old one which is easier for us. (Ngoc, teacher, Teacher Interview 1)

The two-column lesson-plan format required the teachers to write the contents of the lesson in one column and teachers' and students' activities in the other column. The four-column lesson plan format had one column for tasks to teach, one for mode and aim of that task, one for teachers' activity, and one for students' activity. Thus, the new lesson-plan format required teachers to be more detailed. More importantly, the difference between the two lesson plan formats led to a need for revisions before using the new lesson plan at the teachers' school.

Observations of the course sessions indicated similar confusion among the teachers when Linh gave comments on the way the teachers wrote the objectives in their lesson plans. In their lesson plans, the teachers wrote objectives related to students' attitudes which were difficult to assess, according to the teacher educators. Linh's comments were criticised by the teachers because they believed that their lesson objectives were written in the format approved by the teachers' district educational departments.

The way the teacher educators let the teachers register the lessons that they wanted to microteach was also criticised. Instead of letting teachers choose the lesson topic, the teachers expected the teacher educators to control teachers' choice of the lesson. The

teachers wanted all the contents in the new textbooks to be covered rather than a situation where many teachers would teach the same content and some parts would not be taught by anyone.

For example, if the teacher educators chose or assigned the lesson for us, each teacher a lesson, all of the lessons would be taught so that we could learn more. I found out that there were skills taught by many teachers whereas skills like communication are only covered by one teacher. (Ha, teacher, Teacher Interview 1)

5.4.7 Impacts of the course on teachers and teacher educators

5.4.7.1 Impacts on teachers

EFL Course created impacts on teachers' awareness of the importance of communicative language teaching—the teaching approach in the new textbooks.

The effect of EFL Course is that I think my lessons now need to be designed in communicative orientation. My lessons should be designed communicatively. (Ha, teacher, Teacher Interview 1)

In addition, the teachers' knowledge of the new textbooks improved.

I found out that now I understand the new textbooks and the ways to teach them more. (Ngoc, teacher, Teacher Interview 1)

From the change in the teachers' awareness and knowledge, the teachers' practices could be improved.

There were activities teachers had performed for years but failed. It means that those activities did not have much meaning. This time after our instructions and training, they performed better and more logically. They changed much in their teaching methods. (Linh, teacher educator, TE Interview 2)

Based on her observations of the teachers' microteaching, Linh acknowledged their progress in their delivery of lessons and noted that subsequent teachers' microteaching

lessons were better than the ones conducted at the beginning sessions. Moreover, the teachers did not repeat the mistakes that the teacher educator had previously corrected.

It is noteworthy that five out of the six teacher educators participating in the interviews believed that the course did not change teachers' teaching practices much due to contextual factors such as time, testing and assessment system, and leadership. Any change in teachers' teaching practices was considered to be superficial.

I think they [the teachers] just imitate. They imitate the teaching techniques. They use the teaching techniques we suggested without any adaptation ... It may take several years for them to start to adapt. Like the apprentice, once they are familiar with the teaching techniques, they can adapt. It is unimaginable to adapt now. (May, teacher educator, TE Interview 2)

The extent to which the teachers implemented the teaching techniques and tools provided by the teacher educators was dependent on the school context. Teachers could not simply adopt those teaching techniques into their lessons; they needed to choose or adapt teaching techniques to suit their specific situations. To be able to adapt appropriately, the teachers needed to base their decisions on their understanding of their students and the school as well as on their level of mastering the teaching techniques from the course. This is likely to be the reason why May did not believe that teachers could adapt her new teaching techniques only a short time after acquiring them.

These teachers' evaluations of the impact of EFL Course resonate with Hang and Yen's evaluation. These teachers noted that the effect of the course on their teaching practices was small because they already knew about its teaching approaches (communicative language teaching), having completed a different course on a new set of textbooks in 2002.

In addition to the possible changes in the teachers' teaching practices, teachers' confidence was boosted.

I had chance to know a variety of teaching methods from many teachers and teacher educators for many types of students; as a result, I feel more confident. (Hien, teacher, Teacher Interview 1)

Also, the teachers were motivated in their profession.

The course also motivated me to learn more about teaching methods which are suitable for my students' levels at my school. (Lan, teacher, Teacher Interview 1)

EFL Course created change in the teachers' knowledge, teaching practice, self-efficacy, and motivation. These impacts of EFL Course on teachers' practices and knowledge were supported by the observation data. Observation notes of field trips and teachers' classrooms at their schools revealed that seven interviewed teachers implemented the teaching techniques instructed in EFL Course, including word games, the use of groupwork activities in teaching grammar, and encouraging students to guess the meaning of new words based on their contexts in learning vocabulary.

5.4.7.2 Impacts on teacher educators

The teacher educators reported three effects of EFL Course on them including improved content knowledge, better teaching practice, and increased quality of professional development for teacher educators.

As a result of their discussions with the teachers during the course and lesson preparations, the teacher educators' knowledge improved.

Thanks to the teachers' ideas, I gained more ideas to contribute to my subsequent classes ... It is related to my knowledge. When I teach more and more, I have to read more to prepare, so I understand more. (Nam, teacher educator, TE Interview 2)

Also, from getting to know the teachers and their learning needs, the teacher educators' practices were enhanced.

The lesson I learned from this course is the better understanding of teachers. When I teach them more, I understand more what they like and dislike, so my teaching is more practical. (Nam, teacher educator, TE Interview 2)

This effect of the course on teacher educators' teaching practice was of significance to a novice teacher educator like Tan because the EFL Course made him realise that he needed to improve his teaching to make his lessons more interesting and effective.

This is the first time I taught the modules 11 to 20 ... I found out that teaching the contents of assessment and testing is quite dull and less practical. Therefore, of course I need to study the teaching materials more carefully and design more visual aids. (Tan, teacher educator, Interview 2)

When teacher educators were also trainers of teacher educators, what they gained from EFL Course could influence the training activities they would provide to teacher educators in the future. Thy, the trainer of the teacher educators who taught in this course, shared her lessons gained at the end of the course:

There need to be adjustments in ToT for subsequent courses. ToT means the training of teacher educators and training of teachers which need to be carried out more systematically and logically in order to guarantee the quality of the teacher educators. The teacher educators don't need to tell the same things, but they need to understand basic approaches of the courses to avoid the situation in which some teacher educators are in favour of this teaching approach while the others follow the other. This situation may confuse teachers. (Thy, teacher educator, Interview 2)

5.5 Teachers' implementation

5.5.1 EFL Course in teachers' implementation

Data from questionnaire 3 reported the effects of EFL Course on teachers' implementation. All seven teachers who participated in classroom observations reported that the course had a positive influence on the agreement between their teaching goals and classroom activities (Q1), classroom management (Q2), the use of teaching and learning strategies (Q3), addressing students' needs (Q6), and providing feedback (Q8). It is noteworthy that some teachers "did not agree or disagree" with some questions. Those questions related to the use of teaching strategies appropriate with the teaching context, the use of challenging and engaging strategies, and linking assessment with teaching and learning.

Teachers reported three changes in their teaching practice as a result of their participation in the course, including adapting to the students' level (Lan, Yen, and Nhung), new ways to motivate students (Nhung and Hang), and use of communicative language teaching techniques. For example, the teachers were able to omit or use substitute exercises appropriate to the students' level (Hang). Moreover, through word games and interactive textbooks, the teachers could attract and engage students in their lessons (Thu). The communicative teaching techniques were identified as pairwork and groupwork activities (Hien), teaching listening from small units such as words and sentences (Thu), and guessing new words from contexts (Ngoc). More importantly, EFL Course helped the teachers simplify their teaching:

In general, I understood strategies that the teacher educators provided us. In the past, when we taught the old textbooks, the district educational department asked us to follow many steps to introduce a lesson or a grammatical structure. Thanks to EFL Course, I understand that we should simplify them. It is not necessary to follow step by step. It is very complicated but useless. (Yen, teacher, Teacher Interview 3).

Communicative language teaching has been used for years, but actually not really implemented fully in Vietnam so this change was not necessarily a great deal to the teachers.

My teaching methods changed but not much because I had learnt them with the old textbooks already. (Yen, teacher, Teacher Interview 3)

Yen's reference to learning about communicative language teaching approaches from the old textbooks refers to the textbooks that were in use since 2002. Although, like the new textbooks, those old textbooks followed communicative language teaching approaches, the contents of the old textbooks were outdated because of the development of information technology and social media.

The classroom observations showed a mismatch between what the teachers said and what they actually did. For example, Ngoc reported that she managed to teach her students new words based on their context rather than simply provided meanings of new words. Classroom observations indicated that Ngoc pointed out new words when they were being

used in the reading texts; however, after that, she still told her students what those words meant rather than encourage her students to guess their meaning based on the reading texts.

5.5.2 Impacts of teachers' implementation on students

Questionnaire 3 reported impacts of teachers' implementation on students. Teachers reported that their students were more engaged and knew how to use materials and resources effectively (Q9, 11, 12, and 14). However, they chose "neutral" when answering questions about the decrease in difficulties students met in understanding the teaching contents as well as the increase in student learning outcomes (Q10, and 13).

The teachers reported that implementation of the knowledge they gained from EFL Course also had an impact on their students. All of the teachers reported students' better attitudes toward learning English in Interview 3. Consequently, their students showed better participation in classroom activities. For example, Ngoc reported that her students could understand what she was teaching and answer her questions. Moreover, because the teaching techniques the teachers acquired from EFL Course focused on communicative skills such as speaking and listening, their students' speaking and listening skills improved.

For example, my students now listen better. In the past, their listening was quite bad. Very bad, to be honest. Now I find that they can listen to short sentences. (Yen, teacher, Teacher Interview 3)

5.5.3 Factors affecting teachers' implementation

The factors that affected the teachers' implementation are based on teachers' responses in Teacher Interviews 1, 2, and 3, and Teacher Educator Interviews 1 and 2. Some of these factors were also mentioned in teachers' and teacher educators' discussions observed during the course.

Teachers' implementation of the knowledge they learned from EFL Course was reported to be affected by a variety of factors. These factors include teachers, students, school context, the educational system, and socioeconomic factors. It is noteworthy that, because these factors overlap with each other, this categorisation is not strict.

5.5.3.1 *Students*

All of the teachers identified a number of issues related to students concerning the effectiveness of their implementation. They included students' low English competence, students' lack of learning autonomy, students' lack of interest in learning English, students' lack of confidence, and students' lack of time.

Students' limited English competence, for example, their limited English vocabulary, could hinder them in speaking or listening activities.

There are some difficulties in the implementation of some new teaching methods. For example, the new teaching methods are more speaking oriented, more communicative, so it is difficult for the students who are not good at English. I feel ineffective in this situation. (Nhung, teacher, Teacher Interview 3)

Students' lack of learning autonomy was an obstacle to the teachers in their implementation of the new textbooks.

Although we have Internet access, very few students are aware of self-study. Very few of them self-study. (Hien, teacher, Teacher Interview 3)

Students' lack of interest in learning English demotivated teachers' implementation of new textbooks. For example, after completing her microteaching, a teacher shared with the teacher educator and other teachers that it was difficult for her to apply the new textbooks. In fact, she taught some lessons, but her students did not care about studying English, so she did not use the new textbooks.

Yen, Thu, and Ngoc reported that their students lacked time to study due to the pressure of family income.

Normally, students spend half of the day at the classroom, and the other half helping their parents. They do what most lower-secondary students do, so they just have some time in the evening for study. (Thu, teacher, Teacher Interview 3)

These teachers also pointed out what their students do outside school time. It included farming or working in the sea with their parents. As a result, students did not pay much attention to their study.

In fact, now students only work in the sea to catch mussels or something like that; they do not care much about their learning. (Ngoc, teacher, Teacher Interview 3)

5.5.3.2 *Teachers*

It is noteworthy that the teachers did not mention anything related to their own competence or methods when discussing challenges in their implementation of the knowledge gained in EFL Course. However, all of the teachers confirmed that teaching with the new textbooks required more preparation time because of the new difficult contents they contained.

For example, as teaching Year 9 textbooks is very difficult, I have to look up new words. I didn't know the meaning of many new words in those contexts to provide to my students, so I had to look them up. (Nhung, teacher, Teacher Interview 3)

Yen was the only teacher who considered her limited information technology skills to constrain her implementation of the knowledge from EFL Course. Her limited information technology skills hindered her lesson planning because she could not incorporate animations, sounds, or images when preparing slides for her lessons; consequently, she had to ask somebody to help her. This view of the importance of information technology could be understandable because many teachers were criticised during the course by the teacher educators for overusing animations in their microteaching. The teacher educators emphasised their view that information technology was used only to stimulate students' communication, but it was not an innovation in teaching.

In addition, the teacher educators raised concerns about teachers' beliefs. When the teachers still held their prior beliefs, it was difficult to achieve change.

Many teachers still think that teaching grammar is more important to students ... When the teachers are not aware of the importance of communicative language teaching and the implementation of this approach conflicts with their benefits, this course only affects them a little bit right at the time the course ends. (Tan, teacher educator, TE Interview 2)

This quote highlights the tension between teachers' implementation of new teaching approaches focusing on listening and speaking and their current teaching approaches aimed primarily to improve students' grammatical test scores. So, when teachers cannot see that the outcomes of the new teaching approaches lead to students' better test scores, they may return to their previous teaching approaches. Therefore, the effect of EFL Course on teachers may only be temporary.

5.5.3.3 School factors

Class size was the first factor that the teacher educators speculated may affect the teachers' implementation. This was due to the gap between the ideal number of students that the new textbooks were designed for and the reality in Vietnamese lower secondary classrooms.

In fact, you can see that with the new textbooks, the ideal number of students is from 20 to 25. But in fact, the number of students in a class in Vietnam ranges from 40 to 60. So the teachers more or less will have difficult problems to solve here ... Teachers have pressures from the number of students, so there are very interesting activities that fail in the Vietnamese context. For example, in speaking lessons, how can students present when there are 60 students in a class. It is impossible. (Anh, teacher educator, TE Interview 2)

Class size was not, however, a big issue for the teachers. Data from Questionnaire 1 revealed that 77% of the teachers had to teach more than 30 students. One third of these teachers taught between 40 and 50 students in a class. In the past, with these classes, the teachers skipped using groupwork or pair-work activities. Instead, they used traditional teaching styles: teacher-centred approaches rather than learner-centred approaches.

The teaching problems reported by these teachers came from their mixed-ability students.

Levels of students in remote areas are mixed, so it is difficult for teachers.

(Ngoc, teacher, Teacher Interview 1)

It was common for teachers to report that their English classes included students who did not know any English words and those whose English was good. Thus, it was challenging for the teachers to differentiate their lessons to cater for all students in the class.

In summary, if students' level is good, it is not necessary for me to teach all. But we still have to teach because students' level is mixed. Some students know more whereas some others do not know anything. (Hang, teacher, Teacher Interview 3)

Teachers' colleagues were reported to be one of the factors that prevented the teachers from implementing what they learned in EFL Course. At lower secondary schools, the EFL teachers were placed into either the group of social science teachers or the group of natural science teachers. These were the observers of EFL teachers' classes and they brought with them the standards in their subjects to evaluate the EFL teachers' teaching practices. Consequently, the teachers were faced with a dilemma.

When I know that we can adapt like combining or omitting tasks in the textbooks, I said that to my colleagues of other subjects, but they don't agree. Even though I teach English, the observers of my lessons may not teach English and they argued that I should teach the same as the textbooks. So what should I do now? I only can do that if a formal decision is issued. Up to now, teachers of other subjects all teach the same as the textbooks, item by item, so do we, as English teachers, dare to adapt on our own? (Thu, teacher, Teacher Interview 3)

In addition to the teachers' colleagues, the teachers' implementation was under the supervision of the three-layer leadership model comprising the subject group leaders, the school executive board, and the district educational department staff. These leaders were in charge of investigating and evaluating teachers' teaching activities through regular

classroom observations and inspections of teachers' lesson plans and professional notebooks. All of the teachers reported the support of their leaders in providing teaching facilities necessary for their teaching. However, it was not enough. The teachers needed their leaders' support for the changes they made to their teaching practices even if those changes sometimes generated noise.

When I implemented the new teaching methods, the students were encouraged to be more active so they would make more noise. I did not want them to make noise, so I didn't let them perform actively and constrain them ... My old headteacher used to ask me why my classes were always so noisy. Other teachers, especially my old headmaster also complained that my classes were noisy. (Nhung, teacher, Teacher Interview 3)

In addition, the teachers also needed their leaders' support when they had to deal with criticism from the teachers in their subject group.

When we told our colleagues who taught other subjects that some tasks could be omitted while the others could be combined, of course they did not agree. While we taught English, our observers might teach other subjects. They still asked us to teach the same as the textbooks. So what? We need official approval from administrative staff which we can base on. (Thu, teacher, Teacher Interview 3)

If the leaders did not show their support, the teachers might have difficulty implementing the new teaching approaches.

Teachers have pressures from their leadership that they have to teach everything in a lesson in a session in order not to be criticised or bad feedbacks from students. (Anh, teacher educator, TE Interview 1)

With such pressures, the teachers felt anxious to implement or change their teaching practices. Therefore, the teachers' willingness to take risks was a very important factor affecting the effectiveness of the course.

Teachers are often under the supervision of leaders like subject group leaders, school leaders, and district educational department staff. Normally they are afraid of changing the current format. Therefore, how the teachers are willing to adjust or adapt their lessons so that students' learning can be better is a factor affecting the effectiveness of the course. (Thy, teacher educator, TE Interview 2)

Moreover, although all of the teachers appreciated the support of their school leaders with teaching facilities, the teaching facilities were still not as good as they expected. For example, there was no specialised room for teaching English with sound systems for learning and staying away from other classes so that noise could be eliminated in Nhung's school, and there was not an Internet supply to allow teachers to include web-based resources at Hien's school.

The teachers' workload affected implementation of the ideas they learned about in the course. Each teacher was required to teach 19 sessions, lasting 45-minutes each, per week. Apart from the teaching activities, the teachers could be assigned other roles such as the head teacher of a class or the subject group leader. These roles meant more responsibilities and greater workload. Teachers were also involved in teaching observations, teaching competitions, and teaching seminars in their school and school district. On average, classroom observation is once per month in addition to completing notebooks and lesson plans for their classes. It is noteworthy that, as a novice teacher, Lan reported that she had to handwrite all of the lesson plans and notebooks in 3 years. With such a workload, it was difficult for the teachers to spend time on preparing their lessons using new teaching approaches from EFL Course.

Regarding the difficulties deriving from me, it is my heavy workload. I teach so many classes: the daily classes, the classes for the best students, the classes for students who are preparing for the exam to enter Year 10 ... Those activities take so much time that I can't have time to design the lesson plans as well as I expect every day. I tried to do it, but it can't happen every day. (Hien, teacher, Teacher Interview 3)

5.5.3.4 *The national educational system*

In relation to the Vietnamese educational system, three issues related to the teachers' implementation were identified from the interviews with the teachers and the teacher educators. They were the unfamiliarity of the new textbooks, the mismatch between the assessment system and the approaches of the new textbooks, and the inconsistencies in curriculum between education levels.

Introduction of the new textbooks was a challenge for the teachers. Although all of the teachers interviewed evaluated the new textbooks positively, they all raised a concern about the unfamiliarity of the textbook topics to students.

The topics in the new textbooks have far distance with my students. My students in the countryside have never had any access to those topics. Therefore, when I taught them new words in those new topics, students had difficulties in acquisition ... Many lessons have unfamiliar topics, so it is difficult for students to remember new words. My students are too young to understand abstract and unfamiliar topics in the new textbooks (Lan, teacher, Teacher Interview 3)

In addition, there was a mismatch between the assessment procedures of the educational system and the approach of the new textbooks. Whereas the current assessment system focused on grammar, writing, and reading skills, the teaching approach of the new textbooks encouraged communicative skills such as speaking and listening. Therefore, teachers may take professional risks when they follow the approach of the new textbooks.

If the tests are still grammar translation based, grammar based, focus on grammar, vocabulary and in multiple choice format, and do not emphasise all four skills, and do not follow communicative approaches, when teachers implement the communicative language teaching approaches, first, they themselves may affect their profession because students' test scores are not high, and they may be criticised or face with more serious consequences. (Tan, teacher educator, TE Interview 2)

The inconsistencies between levels of education hindered the teachers' implementation. Students do not complete an English assessment at primary schools, but they are assessed at lower-secondary schools. Moreover, the free choice of English textbooks at primary schools is contrary to the use of a formal set of textbooks sponsored by the Ministry of Education and Training at lower secondary and higher secondary schools. Anh, with her experience of teaching professional development courses, pointed out this inconsistency when talking about difficulties that EFL teachers may have when implementing the new textbooks in their lessons.

When I taught lower-secondary teachers, I found that the transition from primary schools to lower-secondary schools and then to higher-secondary schools is not consistent, so it is very difficult to teachers, for example, in terms of testing and assessment. At Vietnamese primary schools, they don't have scores and currently some schools haven't implemented new textbooks for Year 3. They still use the old textbooks. So when students enter Year 6, learning new textbooks which are at A2 level at least and having tests and assessments, students may be confused, and then maybe they would not care about scores. (Anh, teacher educator, TE Interview 1)

According to the teachers, it is not students' interest in scores, but their competence that hindered students' English acquisition from difficult new textbooks.

I found out that Year 6 students' knowledge is not good because at primary school, they just learned from playing. It is the reason why they don't have much knowledge. So, with the new textbooks, students cannot speak much. (Yen, teacher, Teacher Interview 2)

5.5.3.5 Socioeconomic factors

The interviews with the teachers and teacher educators revealed three factors that contributed to the effectiveness of EFL Course. They are the importance of English in the economy of region, the parental attention to English learning, and the salary of EFL teachers.

Teachers' implementation depends on the importance of English in the regional economy. As explained by teachers, students need an environment in which they can

practise English. It is because the time for students to learn English at school is three sessions of 45 minutes per week.

First, let's talk about difficulties related to students. Here in the countryside, students have limited environment for learning ... We don't have environments for foreign languages; we don't have even English native speakers. (Hien, teacher, Teacher Interview 3)

In the meantime, English learning is encouraged in regions which have English tutoring centres or hospitality services.

Since tourism in the island was developed, there were foreign languages centres here ... The district opened classes of teaching English to staff in the motels, so people participated and understood the usefulness of learning English. (Ngoc, teacher, Teacher Interview 3)

The importance of English in the regional economy also influenced the attention that parents gave to English learning, which may impact the teachers' implementation of new textbooks. Six of the seven teachers in Teacher Interview 3 stated that the lack of parental attention to students' learning hindered their teaching of English. This is because the parents' financial situation may require the students to spend time helping in their parents' work.

Students here are from poor families, so they have to earn money rather than focus on learning. (Yen, teacher, Teacher Interview 3)

In addition, the limited family income may not allow parents to pay for English-speaking teachers to teach their children English as an extracurricular activity.

For example, the district educational department intended to invite English-speaking teachers to teach students, but in reality, when this project was launched, very few parents paid for their children. They are poor. They are farmers. Some parents work on the sea. It was about 4 AUD for 90 minutes of learning English in those classes, so most of the parents did not pay. (Thu, teacher, Teacher Interview 3)

Furthermore, in some families, parents may be unaware of the importance of education, but not particularly learning English (Nhung). Violet was the only teacher who stated that teaching English to her students was supported by parents because of the developing tourism industry on the island.

Teachers' salary is a sensitive but decisive factor. When implementing the new teaching approaches from EFL Course, the teachers needed to invest not only their time but also their money.

First, I think the teachers have to invest more. Invest both time and money because some activities require teaching materials. Thus, teachers have to pay for them to carry out the activities. (Linh, teacher educator, TE Interview 2)

The teachers' salary affected not only teachers' implementation of the ideas from the course but also their satisfaction in the profession.

I have been thinking about this for quite a long time. I am young, and my friends who graduated with me ... we all know English and learned quite well when we were at the university. My friends are not teachers. They often advise me to work for foreign companies as I will have more chance to improve my abilities, and especially, the salary is higher. (Lan, teacher, Teacher Interview 1)

5.6 Conclusion

This chapter has reported the main findings from the study. In summary, the EFL course was highly evaluated by both the teachers and the teacher educators as a result of its blended delivery mode, informative coursebooks, and high-quality teacher educators. However, the course contained weaknesses related to its duration and scheduling, travel and accommodation. EFL Course showed different aspects of teachers participating in the course and the factors affecting teachers' implementation after the course. These issues are discussed in the next chapter.

Discussion

6.1 Introduction

In this study, I explored the activities in EFL Course and the participating teachers' teaching practices. I also examined how the teachers and teacher educators perceived the effectiveness of EFL Course. Data collected from questionnaires, interviews, and observations revealed a variety of factors enabling and constraining the activities in EFL Course and teachers' teaching practices as well as differences in teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of the course's effectiveness. To provide a holistic view of EFL Course, in this chapter these findings are placed under the lens of practice architecture theory.

This chapter has five main parts:

- The EFL Course is considered as a site of practices in which diverse practices are indicated. In this site of practices, the roles of teachers and teacher educators as practitioners are discussed. After that, the practice architectures that shape the activities in the course are identified.
- The teachers' teaching practices in different practice landscapes are compared with each other, and with reference to the contents of the course, to identify changes in how the teachers implemented the ideas they had learned about in the course. Then, the architectures of teachers' teaching practices are discussed.
- Practice traditions that contributed to shaping the activities of EFL Course and teachers' teaching are identified.
- The differences in teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of EFL Course are addressed.
- A discussion of observations is provided to highlight the benefit of using observations as a data collection method for the study.

6.2 EFL Course as a site of practices

In this section, I discuss the practices in EFL Course together with their practice architectures. In addition, the roles of teachers and teacher educators as the practitioners in EFL Course are highlighted.

6.2.1 Practices in EFL Course

Practices are regarded as social human activities constituted by what people say and think (*sayings*), the activities they conduct (*doings*), and the way people relate to each other and the surrounding world (*relatings*). The sayings, doings, and relatings are interconnected to achieve the projects or aims of the practices. These sayings, doings, and relatings are prefigured and made possible, respectively, by the cultural-discursive, material-economic, and social-political arrangements in a site of practices (Kemmis, Heikkinen, et al., 2014).

EFL Course can be regarded as a site of practices with various practices simultaneously unfolding in it. These practices consist of the teaching practices of the teacher educators, the learning practices of the teachers, the supporting practices of the course providers, and the supervising practices of the district education department staff. Teachers and teacher educators are the two main participant groups in EFL Course, so the sayings, doings, and relatings found in EFL Course are mainly theirs.

With teacher educators' teaching practices, their sayings include explanations and instructions in relation to the contents of the coursebook, facilitating discourses in discussion activities, or answers to teachers' questions raised during the course. Sayings of teachers' learning practices are teachers' responses to teacher educators' instructions, their discourses in discussions with teacher educators and the other teachers, and their questions about teaching and learning problems posed in the course.

Doings in EFL Course include actions that teacher educators and teachers perform. They include teacher educators' writing on the board about the contents of the modules, demonstrations of teaching strategies, and instructions and explanations throughout the course. Teachers' doings include their completion of the tasks assigned by the teacher educators, their notetaking, and completion of tasks in the online independent learning.

Relatings in EFL Course consist of the relationships between participants of the course and the environment of the course. These relatings include relationships between the teachers and the teacher educators, among the teachers, and among the teacher educators. The relationships also encompass how the teacher educators and teachers relate with objects such as the coursebook, the new textbooks, and the teaching facilities of the course. In addition, relatings include how the teacher educators and teachers interact with course providers and district education department staff. These *relatings* are demonstrated through the rules in the course such as the starting time for the classes, how the teachers were expected to behave while the teacher educators were lecturing, or participants taking turns in course discussions.

A detailed example of how sayings, doings, and relatings intertwined to make practices can be seen in May's demonstration when instructing the teachers on how to teach reading skills using the new textbooks. In her demonstration, she used a poster showing a table with three columns named *What I knew*, *What I read* and *What I think*, and five rows titled *History*, *Stage*, *Performers*, *Materials*, and *Contents*. She asked teachers to read a passage named *Water Puppet* in the new textbooks and fill in the table. This demonstrating practice was constituted by May's requests to the teachers, for example, to read the passage and complete the table. Her doings included sticking the poster on the blackboard and letting teachers have time to read the passage. Her relatings consisted of using the poster and the blackboard, and interacting with the teachers. In order to use the poster and the board, May needed an understanding of their use as well as the effect on her teaching from using these objects. Similarly, the teacher educators had some understanding of the teachers and teachers' role in the course when they interacted with the teachers. All of her sayings, doings, and relatings served the goal of instructing teachers how to teach a reading passage in the new textbooks, which constituted May's demonstrating practice. This practice was one of May's teaching practices in EFL Course.

The identification of different practices in EFL Course sheds light on how EFL Course is constituted. As a result, it facilitates understanding of the factors affecting practices in EFL Course.

6.2.2 Teachers as practitioners in EFL Course

Results in the current study indicated that the teachers in EFL Course presented a low level of motivation for the course and a limited level of English proficiency. These two factors affected not only the teachers' own learning practices but also the teacher educators' teaching practices in the course.

First, the teachers exposed a low level of motivation when participating in EFL Course, as evidenced by their late arrival for the face-to-face sessions; their inactive participation, as mentioned by teacher educators in the interviews; and noncompliant behaviours from some of the teachers. This finding confirms the findings of previous studies, where teachers' lack of motivation was attributed to the failure of teacher professional development courses to achieve their expected outcomes (Rukan Uddin, 2020) or prevent teachers from implementing what they had learned in the course (State, 2019).

The teachers' low motivation may come from how they accessed the information about the contents of EFL Course. The quality of teacher professional learning depends on teachers' willingness to seek out opportunities for their own learning (Randi & Zeichner, 2005). However, the teachers in EFL Course did not autonomously look for teacher professional development opportunities. Instead, they were offered the course by the staff responsible for supervising and inspecting them. Some teachers revealed in their responses in Questionnaire 1 that they participated in EFL Course because they were invited by their district education department. Teachers may therefore have felt obliged to attend the course because they were invited by the people who would evaluate their teaching practices at their school. Another reason may come from the lack of information regarding the contents of the course that made it difficult for teachers to make decisions about their professional development choices (Hill, 2009). Thu and Yen, two among the eight teachers in the interviews, reported that they accepted the offer to participate in the course without knowing what the course was about, so they did not have any expectations of the course. Teachers' lack of information related to the course as well as possible coercion in the course offer raises the importance of the way information about teacher professional development programs should be introduced to teachers so that teachers' autonomy and motivation are increased.

In addition to the low level of motivation, the teachers in EFL Course demonstrated limited English competence despite having passed the examination of English competence provided by the Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training. This result resonates with a study on the implementation of Content and Language Integrated Learning in Vietnam, which revealed that teachers had limited language competence to be able to implement content and language integrated learning (T. T. L Nguyen, 2016). This finding of teachers' limited language competence is in line with that of studies by Baker (2016) and Huhtala and Vesalainen (2017). These studies confirmed the challenges that teachers' language competence posed for teachers during their professional learning as well as their teaching. However, the researchers did not state whether these teachers achieved the requirement of English proficiency in their countries. On the contrary, all the teachers in EFL Course were qualified in the framework standards set by the Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training as the prerequisite for them to participate in this course. Therefore, the teachers' limited English competence in this study may indicate issues regarding examining and nourishing teachers' English competence.

The conflict between teachers' actual and formally recognised competence in this study may be attributed to two causes. First, it is likely that the assessment system does not accurately evaluate teachers' English competence. Examinations evaluating teachers' language competence are often organised at the end of intensive courses of language proficiency. Therefore, the results of teachers' language competence may only be temporary and not indicative of long-term competence. Second, teaching English is different from other subjects. Although other subject teachers can increase their knowledge through books, EFL teachers need to improve their competence through communication (Wichadee, 2011). They need an environment in which they can nourish their language competence. Therefore, the lack of foreign language communication in the countryside of Vietnam may explain why these teachers found it difficult to understand the contents of the course and why they made mistakes related to English usage in their microteaching and the field trip.

6.2.3 Teacher educators as practitioners in EFL Course

As practitioners in EFL Course, the teacher educators influenced the course's activities through their knowledge, skills, and values or through their dispositions (Kemmis et al.,

2012). The findings of the study indicate two issues related to the teacher educators that either oriented or constrained the activities in EFL Course—namely the educators’ beliefs about teacher change and their lack of lower-secondary teaching experience.

First, in this study, the teacher educators were found to possess beliefs about teacher change. They believed that how teachers change depends on the teachers’ motivation, their beliefs, and contextual factors such as the Vietnamese testing and assessment system. Deriving from these beliefs, the teacher educators set aims of motivating teachers, improving teachers’ knowledge of new textbooks, and providing teachers with practical teaching techniques and tools. The teacher educators then pursued those aims when teaching EFL Course and evaluating its effectiveness. In doing so, the teacher educators’ beliefs oriented their practices. This finding is consistent with that of Morrison (2016), who asserted that teacher educators demonstrated complex beliefs of professional experience underlying their practices of preparing, mentoring, and supervising preservice teachers in their initial teacher education. Morrison also found that different teacher educators held different beliefs about professional experience. Because of their differing beliefs, the teacher educators set different aims for preparing, mentoring, and supervising practices.

Contrary to the link between teacher educators’ beliefs and practices, Akbar et al. (2013) revealed that the teacher educators in their study did not reflect their beliefs of student-centred teaching approaches and the importance of collaborating with preservice teachers in their classroom practices. This gap between beliefs and practices is also seen in a study by Yuan (2017). In that study, the two teacher educators espoused complex beliefs about English teacher education that could be grouped into “how to teach and learn English”, “how English teachers learn to teach”, and “how to teach language teachers”. These beliefs guided the teacher educators in their preservice teacher education. However, the transfer from beliefs to practices of these teacher educators was hindered by obstacles in their teaching context. For example, despite believing in the importance of reflective thinking and professional autonomy in teacher education, one of the teachers could not promote these principles in her teaching because of students’ passivity. Similarly, Muofhe (2007) revealed that the teacher educators decide whether to reform or not, based on the context. If the reform is not relevant to the context, the teacher educators rejected the reform (Muofhe, 2007).

Findings from these studies show that teacher educators' practices appear to result from the interaction between their beliefs and contextual factors. This interaction can be seen in Thy's reason for her aim in EFL Course when she prioritised motivating the teachers. Thy did not know when the new textbooks would be used nationwide and she believed that, before the textbooks were used, there would be other courses to remind teachers about how to use the new textbooks. She also believed in the critical role of teachers' motivation in teacher professional development. Based on such teaching realities, including the unknown time of textbook launch and her own beliefs about teachers' motivation, Thy decided to focus on motivating teachers first. It is noteworthy that the participants in the above studies were teacher educators of preservice teacher education rather than of inservice teacher professional development. With the finding that teacher educators' practices in inservice teacher professional development are the result of the interaction between their beliefs and contextual factors, the finding of my study extends the theory of teacher educators' beliefs to a broader scope, namely inservice teacher professional development.

The interviews with the teacher educators revealed that they did not mention their role in teacher change. More importantly, believing in the influence of contextual factors in teacher change, Tan, one of the teacher educators, said that he had low expectations of a change in teachers' teaching practices after EFL Course. His views about his minimal impact on teachers' teaching practices contrasted with studies showing how teacher educators who teach these courses directly influence teachers' evaluation of the effectiveness of PD courses (Nur & Short, 2019; Rukan Uddin, 2020) and influence teacher change. For example, Bui and Nguyen (2016) revealed that Vietnamese EFL teachers are capable of exercising their active role in their teaching practices through the ways they respond to English-language policies. If English-language policies are poorly regulated, teachers will resist following them. Instead, they will teach the way they believe would benefit their students and be suitable for their specific teaching context. Therefore, the importance that Tan placed on contextual factors in promoting teacher change, rather than the importance of teachers themselves, may also have constrained his practices in EFL Course. This is because teacher educators with high expectations for teachers and teachers' learning, together with the capability to facilitate these teachers, are ingredients of professional development success (Jeanpierre et al., 2005).

Tan's suggestion that he did not have much influence on teacher actions may also explain why he faced some unexpected incidents in the course, such as teachers not doing homework or not responding positively to him during the sessions. It may also explain why Tan did not model or demonstrate the teaching techniques provided by the coursebook, such as teaching grammar from examples or giving feedback in a speaking lesson by repetition. Rather, he preferred to sit and tell teachers what they should do. The above analysis shows that teacher educators' beliefs have a close relationship with their teaching practices and can have an impact on the effectiveness of inservice teacher professional development. With such influences, understanding teacher educators' beliefs may confer benefits for teacher professional development. Such an understanding can inform educational stakeholders of teacher educators' competence (Aydin et al., 2010). Also, because different projects of practices may have different practice architectures (Kemmis, Heikkinen, et al., 2014), understanding teacher educators' beliefs underlying the aims or projects of their practices allows educational stakeholders to identify possible material-economic, social-political and cultural-discursive arrangements shaping teacher educators' practices.

Another important finding is the teacher educators' limited lower-secondary teaching experience, which constrained the practices in EFL Course. In accordance with the present study, Ho et al. (2013) reported that 28% of teachers in their study claimed that the teacher educators in their professional development courses were unfamiliar with the curriculum of secondary education. Sutrisno and Carter (2016) also concluded that the teacher educators in their study did not have knowledge of the teachers' context before they taught them. Similar situations were found in EFL Course, although the teachers themselves did not make any claims of teacher educators' limited teaching experience. For example, the teacher educators in EFL Course presented a different lesson-plan format and reported that teachers were not in charge of writing tests at their schools when they were. Another instance comes from teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of teachers' implementation. In the interviews, teacher educators claimed that teachers' practices were hindered by the class size in the teachers' own classes at their schools as well as their prior beliefs. However, the teachers did not address these issues when being asked in the interviews about what factors constrained their implementation.

These examples all point to the fact that teacher educators did not fully understand the context of the teachers they were teaching. In addition, because teaching experience is considered to be the major source of pedagogical content knowledge (Van Driel et al., 1998), Tan's actions, such as not demonstrating teaching techniques or requiring teachers to do a sudden test when some teachers did not respond to his questions, indicated a limitation in his teaching experience as well as his pedagogical content knowledge. So, whereas teachers consider teacher educators to be subject specialists giving them ideas about supporting student learning (Guskey & Yoon, 2008; Halai, 2006), teacher educators' limitations in pedagogical content knowledge, which distinguish a novice from an experienced teacher (Gudmundsdottir & Shulman, 1987), may influence the effectiveness of teacher professional development courses (Zein, 2016).

Teacher educators' limited lower-secondary teaching experience may be attributed to their working conditions. White (2019) reported that teacher educators in teacher professional development consisted of three groups, namely, those who are university based, school based, and community based. The teacher educators in this study were university based who mostly worked with preservice teachers, so it is perhaps not surprising that they lacked lower-secondary teaching experience. Even, Nam, the teacher educator who was part of the team that wrote the coursebook, confirmed his lack of lower-secondary teaching experience and how that challenged him when he wrote the coursebook. Nam's confirmation calls into question the recruitment of teacher educators in EFL Course when these university-based teacher educators were placed in circumstances where their teaching experience was found to be insufficient. In school–university partnerships, teacher educators tend to act as outside experts (Yoon et al., 2007) and researchers (Manton et al., 2020), supporting activities such as preservice teacher practicums (T. M. H. Vu et al., 2020), inservice teacher professional development, or research, rather than as learners in professional development for teacher educators.

Teacher educators can develop their own profession through participating in partnership activities. For instance, the teacher educators in EFL Course reported that their interactions with the teachers during the course enabled them to learn more about the lower-secondary teaching context and provided them with suggestions for subsequent courses. However, teaching experience depends not only on the quantity (years of experience) but also on the quality of experience (Krečič & Ivanuš Grmek, 2008).

Moreover, professional development for novice teacher educators, in collaboration with lower-secondary schools, can allow teacher educators to adopt roles that are balanced between learners and lecturers, and this may resolve issues related to teacher educators' teaching experience in teacher professional development.

6.2.4 Practice architectures of the activities in EFL Course

The activities of EFL Course comprise teachers' learning practices and teacher educators' teaching practices. Whereas teachers' and teacher educators' dispositions play an important role in shaping their learning and teaching practices, it is undeniable that dispositions contribute to making each practice of each individual unique. As educational stakeholders or policymakers cannot change dispositions of each individual to improve the quality of education, the best way is to change arrangements of practices to create widespread and more effective reform. In this section, I discuss the three arrangements of the practice (cultural-discursive, material-economic, and social-political) that shaped the teachers' and teacher educators' sayings, doings, and relatings in EFL Course.

6.2.4.1 Cultural-discursive arrangements

The cultural-discursive arrangements that shaped the participants' sayings in EFL Course were the common language, specific terms, and formality level shared by the teachers and teacher educators. These arrangements were represented through the discussions in the course. The teachers and teacher educators used Vietnamese and English to communicate with each other in the course. They also used specific terms in teaching English, such as learner-centred, vowels, consonants, school principals, and testing to address issues in the teaching. As a result of these common languages and terms, the teachers and teacher educators could understand each other and discussions in EFL Course were facilitated.

The identification of cultural-discursive arrangements indicates the importance of common languages in teacher professional development. For example, in the study by Lofthouse and Hall (2014), the teachers were provided with common languages to communicate with others, and these common languages became factors determining the success of those teacher professional development programs. Also, quality teaching rounds (Gore et al., 2017) use the common terminology of the quality teaching framework so that teachers and principals could have productive conversations about classroom

instruction, which contributed to the positive impact of quality teaching rounds on the participants. Common languages between participants may be an important feature that enables collaboration between participants in teacher professional development.

6.2.4.2 Material-economic arrangements

Material-economic arrangements of teachers' and teacher educators' doings in EFL Course include a lot of factors like blended mode of delivery, scheduling and duration, the coursebook, the location, or the number of teachers and teacher educators participating in the course. Course observations and the interviews with the teachers and the teacher educators revealed that the course operation components namely blended mode of delivery, scheduling and duration, the coursebook, and the location enabled and constrained the activities of EFL Course equally. It means that on the one hand, these factors benefited the teachers and teacher educators; on the other hand, they challenged the teachers and teacher educators in their teaching and learning activities.

Harwell (2003) reported that the delivery mode, combining face-to-face sessions and online learning, benefits teachers in two ways. First, it creates learning environment and interaction for teachers. Second, it reduces the pressure of time and place on teachers. Owston et al. (2008) also asserted that blended teacher professional development courses are effective in providing teachers with an opportunity for learning on the job and collaborating with other teachers; consequently, blended teacher professional development courses influence teachers' teaching practices moderately. It is noteworthy that the use of the field trip in EFL Course is evidence of the application of Guskey's (2002) model and Clark and Hollingsworth's (2002) Interconnected model of teacher growth. Guskey (2002) proposed that teachers' beliefs are only changed when teachers witness the change they made on their students. In the meantime, Clark and Hollingsworth (2002) argued that through enaction and reflection processes, teachers can change their practices and their beliefs. In EFL Course, the teachers had the chance to practise what they learned in the face-to-face sessions at a school with real students rather than the other teachers. As such, the teachers could witness the effects of their teaching on the students in students' attitudes towards their teaching, and students' performance after receiving their instructions. More importantly, the teachers could reflect on their implementation through discussions with the other teachers and the teacher educators at the end of their

field trip. The inclusion of the field trip after the face-to-face sessions in EFL Course aligns with Guskey's (2002) model and Clark and Hollingsworth's (2002) model and shows the potential of EFL Course to bring about the change in teachers' practices. This potential was confirmed by the interviewed teachers when they shared lessons they gained from the field trip like improvements in their time management, classroom management, and lesson preparation.

Extending the findings of these studies, my study reports the weaknesses of this blended delivery mode in, for example, the inconsistency between online contents and face-to-face contents, inconsistencies in the layout of the coursebook where the modules were not written in the same way, and the unfamiliar teaching environment of the field trip. There exist two possible explanations for these weaknesses.

First, the inconsistency in the layout and contents of the coursebook may be due to the participation of many different teacher educators in the process of writing the contents for the online independent learning activities and the coursebook. In detail, there were 20 teacher educators writing 20 modules of the coursebook. Most of the modules were written by groups of two or three teacher educators. Second, the teacher educators who wrote the contents for independent learning activities were not the ones writing the coursebook. Because of the variation of teacher educators' profiles, the inconsistency in the layout and the way the modules of the coursebook were written, as well as the inconsistency between the coursebook and the online independent learning, is understandable. This explanation raises the importance of oversight and validating all teaching materials of teacher professional development before they are used.

In relation to the unfamiliarity of field trip schools, choosing a school in the city centre for the teachers to do the field trip came from the awareness of convenience, limited human resources, and limited budget for EFL Course. If the 60 teachers had made the field trip at their school, it would have required more teacher educators to conduct the observations. In addition, schools of the teachers were located sparsely in a province of over 6,000 square kilometres, so it would take a lot of time and money for the course providers and teacher educators to travel to those schools to observe the teachers. Consequently, to save time and money, the course providers chose a cascade model (Ngeze et al., 2018) for EFL Course: One teacher from each school participated in the

course, then they could train other teachers at their school. However, despite its popularity in Asian teacher professional development, the cascade model of teacher professional development is not effective in transferring knowledge from teachers to teachers because of the involvement of contextual factors as well as teacher characteristics (V. T. Nguyen & Mai, 2018). The ineffectiveness of cascade model in knowledge transfer as well as issues related to the use of cascade model in EFL Course, may raise a concern about course providers' decision making between school-based and cascade or centralised professional development.

Regarding duration and scheduling of professional learning courses, previous studies have emphasised long-term learning rather than one-off workshops to improve teachers' professional development (Diaz-Maggioli, 2003; Posnanski, 2002). However, there is little consensus about the necessary time for teacher professional development to be effective. Yoon et al. (2007) reviewed nine studies and revealed that 49 hours of teacher professional development can increase students' learning outcomes by about 21 percentile points. For Weiss and Pasley (2006), this number was 30 hours. Blank and de las Alas (2009) indicated that the mean contact time with teacher educators in teacher professional development programs was 91 hours extended over more than 6 months. In comparison with these studies, EFL Course was much longer, with 400 hours— including 100 hours for face-to-face sessions, 200 hours for online independent learning, and 100 hours for the field trip. However, EFL Course took place over only 7 weeks, including a week for the field trip. Because the intensity of a professional development course can predict only teachers' temporary use of the professional development contents (Kanaya et al., 2005), an intensive course such as EFL Course may lead to teachers' temporary use of new teaching techniques. Its characteristics are similar to one-off workshops that may be effective in providing information but limited in the potential for teachers to transfer the knowledge into their practices (Darasawang, 2006; Koh, 2011).

One of the findings in this study is related to the contents of the coursebook like the inconsistency in contents of the coursebook. Although previous studies on teacher professional development regard a focus on content to be an important feature of high-quality professional development (Desimone, 2011; Ingvarson et al., 2005; Lipowsky & Rzejak, 2015), there has been little research addressing the use of coursebook or any teaching materials in teacher professional development. Piper et al. (2018) identified a

combination of professional development, instructional support, teachers' guides, and a revised textbook for students as being effective in teacher teaching and student learning. It is worth mentioning that the teachers' guides used in this study included lesson plans for the revised textbook. To some extent, these teachers' guides are similar to the coursebook used in EFL Course, although the coursebook in EFL Course did not have any lesson plans for the teachers to follow.

In addition to confirming the importance of the coursebook or a teachers' guide in teacher professional development, this study of EFL Course points out the weaknesses of the coursebook such as the inconsistency in layout and unnecessary contents, both of which were discussed at the beginning of this section. Moreover, as noted in the interviews with Thy and Nam, two writers of the coursebook, the weaknesses in the coursebook derive from the fact that the teacher educators wrote the coursebook based on the outline approved by the sponsor—the owner of the National Foreign Languages 2020 Project. During the process of writing the coursebook, these teacher educators recognised what they regarded to be an unbalanced allocation of the contents in the outline. For example, the teacher educators thought that time for the modules about teacher professional development or testing and assessment should be shortened so that teachers would have more time for microteaching. However, the process of changing the outline of the coursebook was complex because the teacher educators reported that the chief editor was in charge of and oversaw writing the outline, which was then revised and approved by the sponsor. After that, the chief editor would recruit teacher educators to write the coursebook. The teacher educators needed the sponsor's approval for any change in the outline, and due to the troublesome process related to amending the outline, the teacher educators decided to continue following the approved outline, even though they felt it was deficient. This explanation by the teacher educators shows that the coursebook writing practices contain limitations related to validating the contents of the coursebook before being launched and that there were communication problems between the coursebook writers and the sponsor. In addition, there were many groups of teacher educators who participated in writing the coursebook. Among these teacher educators, Nam was asked to write sections of the coursebook using a set of textbooks he had never used before. His situation may not be unique when other writers of the coursebook also taught pre-service teachers at the same university as Nam. This means that maybe lack of knowledge of lower-secondary school is the challenge of all the teachers in the course.

This points to the importance of recruiting teacher educators who have sufficient knowledge and experience for writing the coursebook material.

It should be noted that the location of EFL Course constrained teachers' learning through the hardship in travelling great distances and lack of accommodation. However, there have been very few studies that have identified location as a factor affecting teacher professional development. This may be because of relatively few professional development courses that include a residential component. In Vietnam, it is the usual practice to organise teacher professional development courses at a common place where all teachers in the school district can participate, rather than offering school-based teacher professional development programs. The teacher educators in EFL Course confirmed this way of doing things in their interviews by reporting their participation in many similar courses like EFL Course in other regions in Vietnam. Ho et al. (2013) also studied teacher professional development courses in Vietnam and revealed that the difficult geographic conditions of Vietnam and the costs of transportation and accommodation challenge teachers' participation in professional development courses. A similar issue is found in a Turkish study by Öztürk (2019), where the course was organised in places far away from the city centre which made organising the course activities difficult. As discussed previously with regard to the mode of delivery, the reason for issues related to the location of the course is connected to the course providers' preference for a cascade model for EFL Course. With issues related to the location of EFL Course, once again, the course providers' choice of centralised versus school-based teacher professional development is challenged.

6.2.4.3 Social-political arrangements

In EFL Course, a variety of interactions were present. These included interactions between the teachers and the teacher educators, among the teachers, among the teacher educators, between the teachers and teaching facilities, and between the teacher educators and teaching facilities. There were many implicit factors that acted as social-political arrangements shaping the interactions in EFL Course, for example, the teachers' and teacher educators' code of conduct, course rules, teachers' familiarity level with the new textbooks, teacher educators' familiarity level with the coursebook, and the role of English in a coastal province.

The effect of the social-political arrangements can be identified through course observations and interviews. For example, a course rule was that the teachers needed to be present in face-to-face sessions. To guarantee teachers' attendance, the teacher educators had to check teachers' attendance every day, and records of teachers' absences were sent to district education department staff at the end of the course. The course rule about teachers' attendance determined what the teacher educators needed to do if the teachers were either absent or present. Another social-political arrangement that had a negative impact is the teachers' unfamiliarity with the new textbooks. In the interviews with May, one of the teacher educators, she stated that the teachers did not raise their problems in teaching the new textbooks because many of them had not taught with those textbooks at their school. Teachers' lack of familiarity with the new textbooks affected their engagement in course discussions. It is important to note that, to my knowledge, the role of course rules, or teachers' and teacher educators' code of conduct in teacher professional development, cannot be found in the literature. There could be two reasons for this. Firstly, I used practice architecture theory which enabled me to identify underlying enablers of teacher professional development. Secondly, previous studies have focused more on problems or features of teacher professional development programs, so implicit supporting factors such as teachers' and teacher educators' code of conduct may be missed.

Information about the role of social-political arrangements in shaping the activities of teacher professional development is sparse in the literature, but some information is available. For instance, Hashimoto (2018b) reported that teachers in Japanese elementary schools were required to teach in English even though they did not have qualifications in English language teaching. This led to professional development of English proficiency for the teachers in Japanese schools.

6.2.4.4 Summary

The constraints on teachers and teacher educators in EFL Course were mainly caused by the mode of delivery, duration, and scheduling, the coursebook, and the location. These factors all belong to the material-economic arrangements. This suggests that, in providing teacher professional development courses, the material-economic arrangements play an important role. In addition, that these factors equally enabled and

constrained the practices of EFL Course indicates that there is no best arrangement. Each practice arrangement can create both enablers and constraints to practices (Kemmis et al., 2017). Therefore, careful consideration of each factor in the course operation is necessary if course providers want to offer teachers and teacher educators the best learning and teaching experiences in teacher professional development.

6.3 Teachers' teaching and their practice architectures

6.3.1 Change in teachers' classroom practices

Teachers' teaching practices here refer to their microteaching practices during the course, their microteaching practices in the field trip, and their teaching practices at their school after they completed the course. I witnessed these practices throughout the study and observing and comparing these practices together may have indicated some change in teacher practices.

Comparing these practices revealed a small change in teachers' teaching. This was noted in microteaching sessions, my observations showed that the teachers attempted to incorporate some of the teaching techniques and tools, for example, language games and pronunciation instruction videos, provided by the teacher educators. After their microteaching sessions, as a result of the feedback and comments from the teacher educators and their peers, the teachers improved their microteaching in the field trip. For example, they projected their voices more in their field trip sessions after being told about their soft voice in the microteaching sessions.

In addition, the experience the teachers gained in the field trip by using group work and pair work in EFL classrooms, or learning how to adapt the teaching materials, influenced their teaching practices. The observations of teachers' classes at their schools indicated that the teachers included more reasonable use of group work and pair work instead of their extensive use in the field trip. This shows they had progress in their use of teaching techniques. They also chose tasks that were more suited to students' English competence levels. The reason for these changes in their teaching techniques derived from teacher educators' feedback and from what the teachers learned in the course. This demonstrated a greater comprehension of the practical requirements linking to the course content which consolidated their overall understanding.

One interesting finding is that the teachers did not fully understand how to conduct some of the teaching strategies provided during the course. For example, being interviewed about her teaching after the course, Ngoc reported that she let her students learn new words through their context. However, the observation of her class revealed that she still wrote the new words on the board and provided their Vietnamese meanings alongside. This observation resonates with the teacher educators' evaluation of teachers' implementation as this was observed more broadly. The teacher educators believed that the teachers were indeed imitating what teacher educators and other teachers did in the course. This means that, after observing other teachers' microteaching and teacher educators' introduction of new teaching techniques, the teachers thought these new teaching techniques might work in their classrooms. From this belief, they applied those teaching techniques to their teaching without considering whether these were suitable for their specific teaching context. Without considering contextual factors in implementation, teachers may introduce inappropriate activities in their classrooms. Some examples are teachers' overuse of games or their overuse of animation in lesson slides to attract students, both of which attracted teacher educators' criticism in the microteaching lessons and the field trip. The lesson implementation by teachers in these cases was evaluated by the teacher educators as shallow and temporary rather than reflecting a deep understanding of the new and therefore appropriate teaching strategies. It is interesting to note that many studies have found a gap between teachers' reported teaching practices and their actual classroom teaching (Ebert-May et al., 2011; Pham & Hamid, 2013; Phan, 2018). For example, Ebert-May et al. (2011) revealed 89% of the teachers in their study stated that their teaching followed learner-centred approaches which placed students at the centre of the learning and teaching activities. However, observational data showed that the teachers in my study did not implement this approach well. These studies once again confirm that teachers often do not develop a deep understanding of the teaching techniques that they learn in teacher professional development courses. The implementation can be temporary and superficial.

Regarding teacher change in practices, numerous studies reported changes in teachers' teaching following teacher professional development (Brady et al., 2009; Gore et al., 2017; Kiemer et al., 2018; Walker et al., 2012; Xie et al., 2017; Yoshikawa et al., 2015). For example, science and mathematics teachers in the study by Huffman et al. (2003) implemented standards-based instructional practices after the teachers participated in a

course focused on teachers examining their practice and curriculum development. Gore et al. (2017) reported a significant improvement in teaching quality of the teachers after participating in their quality teaching rounds. On the contrary, there have been studies reporting change in teacher practices as illustrated in O. Lee et al. (2004) who revealed that, although the teachers stated that their knowledge of science content and beliefs were reinforced, their teaching practices did not change. Brinkerhoff (2006) showed that, although the teachers in his study reported that they made changes in their practice, their self-assessed technology integration beliefs and practices displayed no significant gains. Results from the current study do not indicate that the teachers did not change, as O. Lee et al. (2004) and Brinkerhoff (2006). Instead, the present study reveals that the teachers did change, but superficially and temporarily—a different picture of teacher change in comparison with previous studies. So, there are cases where teachers change and cases where they do not change. In this study, the teachers are in the middle: they are at the beginning of their change.

There are several possible explanations for the finding that teachers in the present study were only just beginning to change their practice. First, change is a long-term process that takes place gradually (Ono & Ferreira, 2010). Thus, it is not surprising that the teachers in EFL Course did not make significant change in their practice after the 7-week EFL Course. In addition, teacher change is dependent on many factors, including teachers' prior beliefs, the teaching context, teachers' own willingness (Girardet, 2018), teachers' beliefs (Çelik et al., 2013), teacher workloads (Hairon & Dimmock, 2012), their efficacy, the hierarchical system, teachers' attitudes, teachers' knowledge, and years of teaching experience (Brady et al., 2009). In my study, several factors that affected teacher change were found, including school context and educational-socioeconomic system factors. Discussion of these factors is provided in the next section.

6.3.2 Practice architectures of teachers' teaching practices

Teachers' teaching practices consisted of their microteaching practices during the course, their microteaching practices in the field trip, and their teaching practices at their school. Hence, the teachers' teaching practices took place at various practice landscapes including the school where the course took place, the schools where the field trip was conducted and the schools where the teachers worked. Thus, teachers' teaching practices

were shaped and influenced by the arrangements at those places and the practices that existed there.in those contexts.

In relation to the cultural-discursive arrangements, the observations revealed that sayings of the teachers' teaching were shaped by the languages the teachers shared with the students in their lessons, namely the use of English and Vietnamese as mediums of instruction. The cultural-discursive arrangements also included specific terms and phrases in teaching and learning English, for example, "reading comprehension", "consonants", "listen to the recording" or "put the verbs in the correct tense", as discussed in Section 6.2.4.1.

In relation to the material-economic arrangements, observations and interviews with the teachers indicated that doings of teachers' teaching were shaped by course operation, such as the number of students in each class, the teaching facilities at the school, the duration and scheduling of each lesson, and the teachers' workload (discussed in Section 6.2.4.2). Among these factors, teachers' workload was reported by the teachers as determining how well they could implement the new teaching methods. The issue of teacher workload has been addressed by many studies in the field of teacher professional development (see, e.g., Hairon & Dimmock, 2012; Meng & Tajaroensuk, 2013; Nawab, 2017). These studies all indicate that teachers had to perform a lot of teaching and non-teaching activities at school such as writing the lesson plans, completing score records, being in charge of supervising a class at school, or participating in a variety of seminars, classroom observations, and meetings. Therefore, when engaging in teacher professional development and then implementing what they learned, their level of work may be increased. For example, the teachers in EFL Course had to teach make-up lessons for their students when they returned to their schools after the field trip. Moreover, the teachers reported that preparing their lessons using the teaching methods they learned about in the course took them more time than they usually spent on lesson planning because the content of the new textbooks was more condensed and more difficult than was the content of the old texts.

In relation to the social-political arrangements, relatings of teachers' teaching were shaped by a variety of implicit factors such as the teachers' code of conduct, school rules, school structures, students' and teachers' familiarity with the new textbooks, and policies

or programs associated with the role of English in the society. Among those factors, the interviews with the teachers revealed that their teaching was constrained by school structures, which consist of school leaders' practices and subject groups' practices. Moreover, educational, and socioeconomic factors such as the new textbooks and programs supporting tourism contributed to constraining teachers' teaching. Discussion about these factors is provided in following sections.

6.3.2.1 School structures: Teachers' colleagues and leaders

This study found that teachers' colleagues and leaders directly affect whether teachers implemented what they learnt in EFL Course like the new teaching techniques, language games, and tools. This accords with previous studies about the factors affecting teacher professional development. For example, formal organisational structures, including grade level teams and formal leadership positions inside schools, can shape beginning teachers' opportunities to learn about instruction (Hopkins & Spillane, 2014). Once teachers are inducted into the school, their professional development is influenced by personal factors and environmental factors that include relationships, mentoring and expectations of colleagues and leaders (Amin & Saukah, 2015). Kraft and Papay (2014) reported that teachers working in supportive schools improved their effectiveness more over time than did their counterparts in less supportive schools. These effects on teachers can be seen more in detailed discussions about school leaders and subject groups of the teachers in EFL Course.

The findings of the study revealed that lower-secondary school leaders in Vietnam tended to constrain the teachers' implementation of lessons and content through their top-down inspecting practices. This is a result of school and district leaders being responsible for planning and implementing professional development for teachers as well as encouraging teacher change (Whitworth & Chiu, 2015). Leading practices affect diverse practices in school landscapes, including teachers' teaching practices, students' learning practices, and teachers' professional learning practices (Edwards Groves & Rönnerman, 2013). As the key architects of practice architectures, school leaders influence the conditions that promote the appropriate environment or praxis of teachers' teaching to flourish (Wilkinson et al., 2010). Despite their important role in teacher professional development, school leaders in Vietnamese lower-secondary schools played the role of

inspectors more than change facilitators. It is not unusual in this role to see them suddenly visiting teachers' classrooms unannounced and checking teachers' lesson plans. As teachers reported in this study that the school leaders could attend their classes without notice and question them about issues in their teaching. It has been illustrated previously that Vietnamese EFL teachers' self-efficacy development largely depends primarily on the appropriateness of verbal and nonverbal feedback (Phan & Locke, 2016). Therefore, the types of comments and the approaches employed by inspection of school leaders may prevent or hinder teachers from changing standard practice. For example, Nhung, one of eight teachers interviewed, explained the reason for her hesitation in implementing new teaching techniques came from her school leaders' complaints of the noise in her class. This finding of school leaders' inspecting practices conflicts with that of H. N. Tran et al. (2020) and N. H. Tran et al. (2018). In these studies, school leaders were found to facilitate teacher professional development through collaboration, teacher empowerment, supervision and evaluation, and teacher-motivational strategies. In comparison with teachers' responses in the interviews of the present study, their school leaders were appreciated for their willingness to provide teachers with teaching facilities necessary for their implementation. However, the school leaders' control over teachers' teaching practices made teachers hesitant in their implementation. This leads to the need to discover the origin of school leaders' inspecting practices.

School leaders inspecting practices may be attributed to two possible reasons. First, they may be due to the Vietnamese educational system that requires school leaders to guarantee the quality of teaching and learning in their schools, especially in the era of national educational reforms. School leaders work in a team to make decisions related to their school. Their practices are supervised by the district education department, and this affects every decision that Vietnamese school leaders make (Trinh et al., 2019; Truong et al., 2017). Their responsibility for building solidarity and managing external relationships in their school also places the pressures on school leaders (Hallinger et al., 2017). Second, it seems possible that limitations in school leaders' competence prevent school leaders from performing other practices of leadership rather than inspecting. C. Nguyen (2020) found that, in educational reforms, school leaders interpret new educational policies based on their own knowledge, experiences, values, and beliefs with consideration of their school resources. This led to policy implementation at different schools not being implemented as the original aims of the policies had intended. Salo et al. (2015) also

noted that school leaders lacked vocabulary to perform their leadership role in improving the quality of teaching practices at their schools. These studies raise the importance of professional development for school leaders in Vietnam. This importance can be seen more clearly when looking at the operation of subject groups at lower-secondary schools.

Similar to the school leaders, the operation of subject groups at lower-secondary schools focuses more on inspecting teachers' teaching rather than collaborating with them to improve their classroom practices. Rodgers (2002) argued that supportive and disciplined reflective communities of teachers can help teachers understand their role in their teaching, from which teaching practices can be improved. Goza et al. (2008) confirmed that cohesive and professional relationships among colleagues are important if teachers want to gain innovative achievements in English language teaching. On the contrary, when teachers in the present study worked in their subject groups, they focused more on supervising each other's teaching rather than providing feedback to improve the quality of teaching. As reported by the teachers in the interviews, their colleagues were also responsible for observing their classes and this demonstrated the tension between being a supervisor on one hand and a mentor on the other. In their classroom observations, their colleagues would question whether the teachers had omitted some sections that they thought unnecessary for students in their teaching. Even if the teachers explained that they were adapting appropriately to their students' level, their colleagues required them to teach all of the sections in the books until they had the approval from the leaders. This example shows that an unequal power exists between the observed teachers and their colleagues. Effectiveness of communities of practice depends on the way power is exercised in and out of the communities (W. Green et al., 2013). The collaboration between members is stronger when they do not have an imbalance in power (Ning et al., 2015). Because the teachers in these subject groups display differing roles with unequal power depending on the activities in their communities of practice, it is not surprising that teachers' implementation of new teaching approaches in EFL Course were constrained by their school subject groups.

Another possible explanation for the constraining effect of subject groups on teachers' teaching lies in the expertise of the teachers. The teachers reported that they were grouped with teachers of other subjects. Because English teaching is different from other subjects in the way that it depends on communication (Wichadee, 2011), grouping teachers of

other subjects with EFL teachers unsurprisingly produced disagreement about the best ways to teach. These explanations, as a result, suggest that the current operation of subject groups at lower-secondary schools in Vietnam needs to be restructured and reconceptualised so that teachers' collaboration can be enhanced. This implication leads to questioning the responsibility of school leaders in orienting the operation of these subject groups.

6.3.2.2 Practices in the educational and socioeconomic systems

In this study, factors in the Vietnamese educational and socioeconomic systems were found to constrain teachers' teaching practices. These factors include the introduction and implementation of new textbooks and programs supporting tourism which is a government agenda in growing the tourism industry.

An important issue that emerged from the findings of this study is related to how the Vietnamese educational system shaped the teachers' classroom practices, particularly regarding the choice of new textbooks at lower-secondary schools. The teachers reported that their students live in the countryside, so these students were unfamiliar with some content in the new textbooks. This unfamiliarity of content challenged these teachers' teaching practices by making it more difficult to deliver lessons that were relevant to their students. This finding related to new textbooks confirms the importance of textbooks in educational reforms raised in other studies (To, 2018; T. K. A. Vo, 2017). Baker et al. (2009) indicated that teachers tend to use the textbooks when they find them suitable within their teaching context. In fact, the teachers in EFL Course were permitted by the Ministry of Education and Training to participate in deciding which textbooks the teachers in their province would use (Vietnam Ministry of Education and Training, 2020). However, it was surprising that in the interviews, the teachers claimed that the topics in the textbooks were not relevant to their teaching contexts, which resulted in difficulties in their teaching. The conflict between the teacher's choice of textbooks and their comments about textbooks' unfamiliarity may come from the process by which the teachers chose the textbooks. As described in Chapter 5, the teachers had only 4 or 5 days to read through six sets of new textbooks to decide which one they would choose. In addition, the teachers commented that they needed to look up new words in the new textbooks, which raised a concern about their competence in evaluating those textbooks.

In addition, although teachers were allowed to participate in choosing new textbooks for their province, the final decision was made by the provincial education department. This analysis implies reconsidering the process of choosing new English textbooks for lower-secondary schools.

Socioeconomic factors, such as economic policies, educational projects, or family background, play an important role in determining teachers' teaching practices (Merchie et al., 2018; Petrie & McGee, 2012). These factors influence teachers' teaching through district practices and policies and educational priorities (Bechtel & O'Sullivan, 2007). Consistent with the literature, this study indicates that teachers' teaching is affected by a range of socioeconomic factors; in the present study this was the programs supporting tourism in the districts. In Ngoc's district, English competence is important because this island is a tourist attraction that witnesses large numbers of English-speaking tourist visiting each season. Therefore, the district educational department staff opened English tutoring classes for people living on the island. Teachers and students were not only motivated to teach and learn English, but they were provided with an environment for increasing their exposure to English as well. The important role of an English-speaking environment in English language teaching (T. N. Nguyen & Ho, 2012) can explain why programs supporting tourism influence teachers' teaching. However, it is not easy to set up an English-speaking environment for students and teachers because tourism-supported programs depend much on the location of the district. Even so, this finding suggests the important role of district and government programs and policies on people's awareness of learning English that policymakers need to keep in mind.

6.3.3 Summary

In this section, I have discussed the changes in teachers' teaching practices and the practice architectures that shape those changes. Teachers' roles and the course operation also contributed to shaping teachers' teaching practices: teachers exercised their role in their teaching practices through their English competence, and the course operation shaped teachers' teaching practices through feedback and reflection in the microteaching sessions and the field trip. Teachers' teaching practices were also shaped by their interactions with other teachers during the course, their practices in their own school contexts, and the practices of the broader educational and socioeconomic systems in

Vietnam. In other words, teachers' teaching practices are shaped by systems and subsystems (Opfer & Pedder, 2011).

These interactions also illustrate how teachers' teaching practices operate in an ecology of practices (Kemmis et al., 2014). This means that change in teachers' teaching practices requires change in systems and subsystems or practices that operate in the same ecology with teachers' teaching practices. One important point is the foregrounding role of social-political arrangements in shaping teachers' teaching practices. In the present study, these arrangements are represented through the direct effect of school leaders and subject groups on teachers' decisions about attending the course and whether they would implement the new teaching techniques they learned about in the course. The significant role of social-political arrangements may indicate that more attention should be paid to relationships at school in order to facilitate change in teachers' teaching practices.

6.4 Practice traditions

The activities of EFL Course and teachers' teaching were shaped not only by cultural-discursive, material-economic, and social-political arrangements but also by practice traditions. Practice traditions were identified in many activities in the course as well as in teachers' classrooms. These include the residue of Confucianism, traditional English teaching methods, and the traditional approaches of professional development. Evidence of the practice traditions was present in the interviews with the teachers and the teacher educators.

Confucianism and teacher-centred approaches represented their influences in how the teachers and teacher educators evaluated each other. First, Confucianism supports the necessary respect that the junior needs to show to the senior. In EFL Course, regarding teaching experience, the teachers had from 5 to 10 years of experience more than the teacher educators. They were also 5 to 10 years older than the teacher educators. As such, they were considered as senior to the teacher educators. However, when participating in EFL Course, they were in the role of the learners. Their new role may have conflicted with their senior role with regard to their teaching experience and age. This conflict can be seen in their evaluation of the teacher educators. In the interviews, all the teachers complimented the teacher educators' expertise. However, they emphasised the fact that the teacher educators were very young, so it was very surprising to them that the teacher

educators could teach this course. As such, it seems that the teachers may have been referring to Confucian values in evaluating people by assuming a correlation between expertise and age. This was also felt by the teacher educators. May stated that she felt challenged by the teachers when they argued with her about her suggestions for their teaching problems. For May, the teachers' responses at that time were not constructive. On the contrary, the responses indicated that the teachers did not respect her because she was younger than them.

Tan's reaction when the teachers did not respond to him can be viewed as another example of Confucian values. In Confucianism, individuals have their own roles, and their responsibility is to act in accordance with their particular role. This means that teachers in a junior role need to show respect to teacher educators in a more senior role by following their instructions and not questioning them or ignoring them. In Tan's situation, he was angry because the teachers did not do what he asked them to do. As a result, he acted in accordance with how he saw his role as a teacher educator in that group: using his authority to ask the teachers to do an unanticipated test. This analysis may indicate that although these teacher educators emphasised the importance of a learner-centred teaching approach, the way they dealt with incidents in the course still reflected some residues of Confucianism.

One of the Confucian values represented in the activities of EFL Course was the appearance of an examination. Confucianism appreciates learning and pays much attention to examinations as the main form of assessment. The teachers had a mid-term test and a final examination. After these formal evaluations, teachers would receive a certificate acknowledging their completion in the course. The teachers themselves also paid much attention to these examinations. In course observations, the teachers were seen to ask the teacher educators about the format of the final examination, and they complained that they did not have time to learn study before the examination. Such responses (or feedback or comments) showed that the Confucianism approach not only impacted the format of the professional development course but also on the teachers' attitudes towards the course. Such incidents demonstrated that Confucianism left its residue not only in the format of the professional development course but also in teachers' attitudes toward the course.

Confucian values and teacher-centred teaching methods were also reflected in teachers' teaching. It was evident in the teachers' interaction with their school leaders and subject groups. The teachers in this course expected their school leaders to decide whether they could implement what they had learned in the course. This demonstrated their belief that implementation of what they had learned was not decided by them. Rather, more powerful individuals such as school leaders should make the decision for these teachers. In this case, these teachers were affected by power distance—or unequal distribution of power in Confucian society. Moreover, students' shyness in speaking activities in Lan's class and Hang's class were the result of teacher-centred teaching methods. In the past, English was taught using a grammar-translation methodology. The teachers focused more on grammar, whereas English speaking and listening were neglected. Hence the activities in the classes focus on teachers speaking and students doing exercises. Consequently, students did not have confidence to speak English.

The traditional approach of teacher professional development is another practice tradition. It was represented in the evaluation of the course. Two of the eight teachers who were interviewed said that they did not change much because the course was similar to one in which they had participated in 2002. They described how the 2002 course also consisted of face-to-face sessions, microteaching sessions, and field trips. Although EFL Course had a component of online independent learning, which was a new feature in comparison with the 2002 course, the online independent learning of EFL Course only served as a revision of course contents for the teachers. This comparison shows the similarity between EFL Course and the previous course that teachers participated in nearly 20 years previously. This suggests that, to influence teachers' teaching, a course that is designed differently from prior professional development courses may provide teachers with more positive experiences.

Studies about teaching and learning English in Vietnam reveal similar concerns about the effects of culture. In these studies, culture encompasses Confucian values and teacher-centred teaching approaches. P. M. Nguyen et al. (2005) indicated in their study that Confucianism, with its appreciation of collectivism, resulted in large class sizes and a whole-nation curriculum for teaching and learning English. This conflicted with cooperative learning, and the conflict resulted in the failure of cooperative learning in teaching and learning English in Vietnam. In addition, Vietnamese students' inactive

learning styles are argued to be the result of culture. First, Vietnamese people pay considerable attention to examinations. Consequently, students learn for examinations rather than for English proficiency (T. T. H. Nguyen & Pham, 2016). This may explain why Vietnamese students have limited English proficiency when they enter university (V. C. Le, 2017). Vietnamese students' inactive or passive learning styles may also be attributed to their view of showing respect. T. H. Nguyen (2002) demonstrated that Vietnamese students kept quiet in class because they believed that doing so was the way to show respect to the teachers as well as to guarantee a productive learning atmosphere. Similarly, Thai et al. (2018) revealed that face-saving and conflict avoidance affected EFL students' speaking performances. However, it is noteworthy that T. T. Tran (2013) did not support the influence of culture on Vietnamese students' inactive learning styles. To her, their styles may originate from their previous learning experiences or teacher-centred teaching methods.

In comparison with those studies, my study extends the effect of culture or traditional values to teacher professional development, about which, to the best of my knowledge, there has been little research in relation to teacher professional development. The focus on practice traditions in the theory of practice architectures draws attention to the fact that teacher professional development cannot be separated from its history and context (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002; Guskey, 2002). Hence the effect of traditional values such as Confucianism, teacher-centred teaching methods, and traditional teacher professional development approaches is unavoidable. It is therefore possible to suggest that traditional values deserve more consideration in designing teacher professional development programs.

6.5 Teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of the effectiveness of EFL Course

The findings of the study reveal two issues related to teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of the effectiveness of EFL Course. They include a mismatch between teachers' and teachers' expectations of the course and different perspectives of teachers' teaching practices.

One of the important findings in the present study is the mismatch between teachers' and teacher educators' expectations of the activities in the course. The teachers expected

teacher educators to model, in their teaching, the kinds of practices they wanted the teachers to implement in their own classrooms, for example, how to teach a listening lesson. However, teacher educators did not want to attach teachers' teaching to a fixed model, so they only explained ways to conduct activities or modelled some short parts rather than an entire lesson. Many previous studies explored teachers' perceptions of the effectiveness of teacher professional development (Komba & Nkumbi, 2008; Penuel et al., 2007). These studies emphasised the importance of fulfilling teachers' needs so that the effectiveness of teacher professional development could be improved (Luft & Taylor, 2014; Sutrisno & Carter, 2016). However, teachers' needs identified in those studies were limited to answering the question, "What do teachers need in teacher professional development?" by practical knowledge, subject pedagogical content knowledge, or content knowledge. In my study, the teachers did not provide a similar answer. They reported that they expected teacher educators to model the lessons so that they could understand how they should teach their students. Apart from the contents of the course, what they needed is related to how the contents should be taught to them through teacher educators' modelling rather than lecturing. They wanted to witness the teacher educators, who in their mind are experts, microteaching a lesson in an explicit way so that they could have a clear view of how the lessons should be taught. With the important role of modelling in the literature of teacher professional development (Posnanski, 2002; Saigal, 2012), this finding of the mismatch in expectations between teachers and teacher educators may inform course providers with suggestions for designing activities in teacher professional development courses.

In addition to the mismatch in teachers' and teacher educators' expectations, there were differences in teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of the effectiveness of EFL Course. The findings indicate that most of the teachers and teacher educators had a similar evaluation of the effectiveness of EFL Course on teachers' knowledge of new textbooks and their beliefs. They all evaluated EFL Course positively. However, two teachers commented that their practices did not change much. Most of the teacher educators agreed that teachers made only superficial changes rather than actually changing their teaching practices. This difference in teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions is consistent with previous studies. Jan Bent et al. (2016) found that the teacher educators in their study evaluated the quality of primary education more critically than did the primary teachers. In addition to that difference, the primary teachers and the

teacher educators agreed on the limited importance of collegial support and assessing learning outcomes in teaching geography at primary school. Uztosun (2018) revealed that teachers displayed different opinions about the effectiveness of teacher professional development courses in Turkey. These teachers criticised the quality of the courses due to the limitations in the number of courses, the lack of the qualified teacher educators, and other issues related to course operation.

On the one hand, the study of EFL Course showed the differences in teachers' and teachers' perceptions that are similar to these above studies. However, the study also shows the variation in perceptions among teachers and among teacher educators. The present study provides insights into teachers' and teacher educators' views of teacher change. With teachers, the change includes the smallest improvements. With teacher educators, teacher change requires more than imitating the teaching techniques from the course. It requires teachers' comprehensive understanding of those teaching techniques and the circumstances that allow those techniques to be implemented. Teacher educators show more critical evaluation of teacher change than do teachers.

Teacher educators' evaluation of teacher professional development depends on their teaching experience and the number of teacher professional development programs they performed (Çobanoğlu & Genç, 2020). Teacher perceptions of teacher professional development quality are not consistent with knowledge growth and knowledge retention (Goldschmidt & Phelps, 2010). Rather, their views may depend on gender and teaching experience (Özer & Beycioglu, 2010; Ulla & Winitkun, 2018). Thus, the difference in teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions may be due to the difference in their teaching experience. This suggests that teaching experience needs to be taken into consideration when designing teacher professional development.

Differences in teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of the effectiveness of EFL Course show the complexity of human perceptions. On the one hand, teachers' and teacher educators' views of EFL Course are socially constructed in the way that they are shaped by various practices and arrangements in EFL Course and in the society. On the other hand, they are individualised when they encompass individuals' prior knowledge, experience, and beliefs. With these variations in their perceptions, evaluations of teacher professional development should be treated with caution. When teachers' and teacher

educators' perceptions of teacher professional development are compared carefully, different aspects of teacher professional development can be provided. This resonates with the constructivist paradigm in the way that reality is constructed by the interpretations of different individuals (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; C. J. G. Lee, 2012).

6.6 Observation practices in the present study

Previous studies (e.g., Ebert-May et al., 2011; Kedzior & Fifield, 2004) have suggested that observations can be used to gain an insight into teacher professional development courses.

Observation practices were conducted in the present study to understand what happened in the course and in the teachers' classrooms and as a means of confirming the questionnaire and interview responses. As a practice, observations consisted of sayings, doings, and relatings. Sayings in observation practices refer to discourses and thoughts of the practitioners—in this case, me as the researcher—about what happened during the observation process. Doings are what the researcher did during her observations, such as taking notes, recording, or sitting at the back of the class. Relatings refer to the relationship between me and participants during the course as well as my relationship with nonhuman objects such as the classroom, the table, and chair where I was located in the class to observe the activities and the observation guides that I used. All of my sayings, doings, and relatings were enabled and constrained by various cultural-discursive, material-economic, and social-political arrangements. Some of the arrangements were my knowledge of using observations in research, the availability of time for observations, and the codes of ethics for observational use in research. With such arrangements, observations were used in the study and benefited me because they allowed me to gain a greater understanding of the practices in EFL Course.

Observations during the course enabled me to better understand what happened in the course, especially the relatings in EFL Course. The observations provided data about how people relate to each other and to artefacts in the course. For example, observations allowed closer scrutiny of the teaching styles of teacher educators and teachers than could be discovered through questionnaires or interviews that were reported by participants themselves. Observations also meant that I could note some unexpected incidents (for example, the noncompliant teachers in Tan's classes) or teachers' lateness, which were

not reported in the interviews. So, when I interviewed teachers and teacher educators, I could refer back to those issues and ask the participants about them. My observations of the microteaching also indicated the teachers' frequent use of group work, pair work, and use of ICT in their lessons as a manifestation of how the teachers were applying communicative language teaching approaches in their lessons.

Observations enabled me to check the information provided by teachers and teacher educators and resolve any inconsistencies. For example, in the interviews, teachers said that the observation sheets provided in the coursebook were not necessary because they did not understand them and did not use them. However, course observations showed that teacher educators did require teachers to use the observation sheets when they observed other teachers in microteaching. Another example concerned teachers' English competence. Whereas the teacher educators regarded teachers' English competence as a challenge to them, the interviews with teachers and their questionnaire responses did not indicate any issues related to their competence. However, observations during the course did show teachers' limited English competence through their preparation and their instructions in their microteaching sessions.

In previous studies of other teacher professional development programs, observations have been made by the researchers who also designed the programs (e.g., Borko, 2004). However, in this present study, my role as an observer of this course was as an outsider of the course and an insider of the Vietnamese education system. As stated in Chapter 1, I had previously participated in a similar course belonging to the project that sponsored EFL Course. Also, currently, I work as an EFL teacher at a university of educational management in Vietnam. In that role, I have a basic knowledge of the Vietnamese education context, the National Foreign Languages 2020 Project, teacher professional development, and teaching and learning English in Vietnam. With this course, I participated in the role of a researcher observing activities in the course classroom. Thus, I adopted the role of an outsider with the knowledge of professional development. The dual role of the researcher, in this case, is believed to provide a holistic view of the course (Bourke, 2014; Malthouse et al., 2014). As an insider of the Vietnamese education system, I understand how teachers are controlled by different systems in Vietnam. As an outsider of the course, I viewed the course from the perspective of practice architecture

theory. Both these practical and theoretical standpoints offered a multifaceted exploration of EFL Course.

6.7 Conclusion

Applying the theory of practice architectures has allowed important findings of this study to emerge. First, the activities of EFL Course and teachers' classroom practices were shaped by an ecology of diverse, interconnected practices. These practices were made possible in different practice sites and landscapes, and they depended on external factors (including the school context, the Vietnamese educational system, and the socioeconomic system) and teachers' and teacher educators' dispositions. Second, practice architecture theory has enabled the identification of practice traditions in shaping the activities of EFL Course and teachers' teaching practices. This identification emphasises the importance of acknowledging and challenging traditional values in designing teacher professional development programs. Finally, this study paid much more attention to the roles of teachers and teacher educators in teacher professional development, which determined how the teacher professional development course was carried out.

Based on this discussion, in the next chapter, the three research questions of the study are addressed. After that, implications for educational policymakers, course providers, teacher educators, teachers, and researchers are provided.

Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

This study is driven by the goals of exploring the practice architectures that shape the activities of EFL Course to investigate the impact of the course on teachers' teaching and investigating participants' perceptions of the course. In the previous chapters, I introduced the research problem, revisited the literature of the field, described the research context, reported the findings, and discussed the findings under in terms of practice architecture theory. In this chapter, the three research questions of the study are addressed. After that, I provide the main implications from the study for educational policymakers, course providers, teacher educators, and teachers. This study itself is a practice that exists under the control of practice architectures like the operation of EFL Course and the ethical requirements; thus, it is unavoidable to have limitations when the study was conducted. Therefore, in this chapter I also identify those limitations before providing some suggestions for further research. The chapter ends with some concluding remarks that recap the important contributions of the study.

7.2 Responses to the research questions

It is difficult to change the practices of EFL Course without first understanding the practice architectures that support and constrain those practices. Hence, this study focused on identifying what and how the cultural-discursive, material-economic, and social-political arrangements shaped the activities of EFL Course and teachers' teaching. Once the arrangements and their mechanism of shaping practices in EFL Course and teachers' teaching are highlighted, the educators will be informed about what to maintain and what to abolish.

7.2.1 What are the practice architectures of EFL Course and how do these practice architectures shape the activities of the course?

The findings of this study indicate that different factors act as arrangements in shaping the activities in EFL Course or teachers' learning and teacher educators' teaching

practices. Cultural-discursive arrangements of the sayings in EFL Course consisted of the common languages (Vietnamese and English), specific terms related to EFL teaching and learning, and types of language registers shared by the teachers and the teacher educators. Material-economic arrangements that made the doings in EFL Course possible include the blended mode of delivery, scheduling and duration, the coursebook, the location, and the number of teachers and teacher educators participating in the course. Social-political arrangements that prefigured the relatings in EFL Course include teachers' and teacher educators' code of conduct, course rules, teachers' familiarity level with the new textbooks, teacher educators' familiarity level with the coursebook, and the role of English in Coastal Province.

Regarding how practice architectures shaped activities of EFL Course, because EFL Course is a site of practices, its activities shaped and were shaped by diverse practices in this site. The teachers and the teacher educators were the main practitioners in EFL Course, so their dispositions interacted with the above arrangements and this interaction shaped different practices of different teachers and teacher educators in EFL Course. The diversity of different practices in EFL Course created activities in EFL Course. For example, differing teachers' attitudes towards the course created differences in their engagement and interactions with teacher educators in the course.

It is noteworthy that when teachers and teacher educators performed their learning and teaching practices in the course, they would interact with the arrangements of EFL Course. For example, the teachers and the teacher educators would have to travel to a school far from their homes to attend face-to-face sessions. The teachers would have to sign into their online accounts to do the online independent learning. They would also have to use the coursebook to do the tasks that the teacher educators assigned them. In this process of interactions, factors constraining teachers' learning and teacher educators' teaching were exposed. Factors related to teachers' and teacher educators' dispositions constraining the activities of EFL Course included teacher educators' beliefs about teacher change, teacher educators' limited lower-secondary teaching experience, teachers' lack of motivation, and teachers' limited English competence. Among these four factors, teacher educators' beliefs about teacher change played the role of orienting activities in EFL Course because they reflect the expected ends or projects of their practices. It is noteworthy that the projects of EFL Course are the collective projects of teachers and teacher educators participating in the course. This shows the complexity of

the course. This complexity is more intense when teachers' and teacher educators' practices are performed in a site of practices and controlled by cultural-discursive, material-economic and social-political arrangements. Elements of course operation, namely mode of delivery, scheduling and duration, the coursebook, and the location equally enabled and constrained the activities of EFL Course. However, because the constraints on teachers' learning and teacher educators' teaching practices came from the course operation, it can be said that among the three arrangements of practice architectures, material-economic arrangements were foregrounded in constraining the activities of EFL Course.

7.2.2 What are the practice architectures of teachers' teaching practices in their school setting and how do these practice architectures shape their teaching practices after the course?

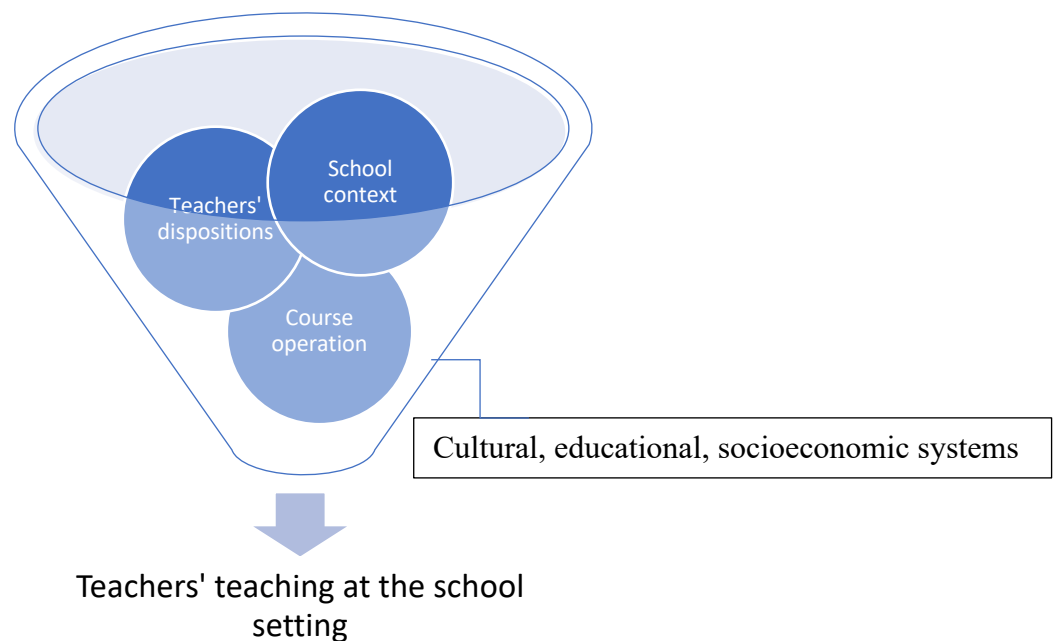
The sayings, doings, and relatings of teachers' teaching practices were also enabled and constrained by the cultural-discursive, material-economic, and social-political arrangements. Cultural-discursive arrangements of the teachers' teaching were identified as the shared languages the teachers used in their lessons. This included the use of English and Vietnamese as the medium of instruction, specific terms in teaching and learning, and types of language register. Material-economic arrangements consisted of the number of students in each class, the teaching facilities at the school, the duration and scheduling of each lesson, and the teachers' workload. With regard to social-political arrangements, relatings of teachers' teaching were shaped by factors such as the teachers' code of conduct, school rules, school structures, students' and teachers' familiarity with the new textbooks, and policies or programs supporting tourism.

With regard to the way these practice architectures shaped the teachers' teaching, their school contexts (including teachers' workload, teachers' subject groups, and school leaders) and course operation directly determined teachers' teaching through the practices of teacher inspection at the schools and course effects on teachers' dispositions. Educational and socioeconomic systems had indirect effects on teachers' teaching through the influence of new textbooks and tourism programs on teachers' teaching context.

It is important to understand that Confucianism, teacher-centred teaching methods, and the traditional teacher professional development approach acted as practice traditions that influenced the activities of EFL Course and teachers' teaching. The practice architectures, together with the practice traditions interacting with teachers' competence, resulted in the sustainability of EFL Course as represented through teachers' teaching practices. These interactions are presented in Figure 7.1. The diagram illustrates that individual teachers' dispositions, schooling context and course operations all interact with each other and are impacted by the external factors of cultural practices, educational traditions, and socioeconomic systems. It is necessary to understand these relationships when considering the development and delivery of EFL Course in Vietnam.

Figure 7.1

Practice Architectures Shaping Teachers' Teaching at the school setting



7.2.3 How do the teachers and teacher educators perceive the effectiveness of EFL Course?

In addition to the differences in teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of the effect of EFL Course on teachers' teaching practices, there was a mismatch in teachers' and teacher educators' expectations of the course. The teachers expected the teacher educators to model the lessons in the new textbooks so that they could have clear insights about how a lesson in the new textbooks should be taught. However, the teacher educators

believed that there are no best formulas for teaching and that teachers, with their comprehensive understanding of their teaching context, should figure out how the lessons in the new textbooks should be taught.

All the teachers and teacher educators considered this course to be effective in improving teachers' knowledge of the new textbooks. However, in terms of the course's effect on teachers' teaching practices, there was a disconnect between teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions. Although most of the teachers in the interviews believed that EFL Course changed their teaching practices, two of the teachers claimed that their teaching practices did not change because there were no differences in teaching methods provided in EFL Course compared with the previous course they completed in 2002. To some extent, most of the teacher educators agreed with these two teachers' self-evaluations. The teacher educators argued that EFL Course only improved teachers' knowledge of the new textbooks but did not change teachers' teaching practices much. What most of the teachers called a change in their teaching practices was evaluated by the teacher educators as superficial change and simple imitation without much understanding of new teaching approaches.

7.3 Implications from this study

From the perspective of practice architecture theory, this study shows that teacher professional development operates in an ecology of practices that include socioeconomic and educational systems, school context, course operation, and teachers' and teacher educators' dispositions. To maximise the effectiveness of teacher professional development courses similar to EFL Course, there needs to be cooperation from and among practitioners in each practice in this ecology of learning. These practitioners include educational policymakers, course providers, teacher educators, and teachers all of whom bring their own beliefs, understanding and approaches to teaching. Implications for these practitioners as well as teacher professional development in Vietnam are provided as follows.

7.3.1 Implications for educational policymakers

First, there is a need for policymakers to identify ways to increase the partnerships between schools and universities. These partnerships should not be limited to supporting preservice teacher education. Rather, more attention should be paid to inservice teacher

education by creating opportunities for inservice teachers and teacher educators to collaborate with each other. These opportunities can be seminars, conferences of teaching and learning English, or professional development programs such as mentoring or Lesson Study. The most important feature for this partnership is an equal collaboration between teachers and teacher educators so that both groups can benefit from the partnerships.

Second, greater efforts are needed to ensure schools and teachers have rights in deciding the textbooks or the teaching contents for their own use. Currently, Vietnamese schools have an English curriculum to follow and six or seven English textbooks from which to choose. Teachers participate in the survey of choosing textbooks, and the provincial departments of education decide which textbooks will be used at all the schools in the entire province based on the opinions of the majority of teachers. Because schools in the countryside have different teaching contexts from schools in the cities, allowing schools and teachers to choose contents for their teaching based on the curriculum approved by the Vietnam Ministry of Education and Training could reduce the regional factors that affect English teaching and learning.

Third, a reasonable approach to tackle issues related to teachers' English abilities might be to create an environment that nourishes teachers' English competence. This environment could be created through the formation of teacher professional learning communities. For example, teachers from the same district could gather regularly. When these communities are tailored carefully, teachers may have an ongoing environment in which they can reflect on their English competence and their teaching practices, and from which they may be motivated to self-study.

7.3.2 Implications for course providers

In terms of course design, an important practical implication from this study for course providers is to design teacher professional development programs that are ongoing. Interviews with the teachers in EFL Course show that teachers did not receive any support from course providers after they returned to their schools. During their implementation, there arose a variety of issues. Therefore, instead of intensive teacher professional development, a program extending over a longer timeframe may benefit teachers and their teaching more than does a one-off program such as EFL Course.

Moreover, teacher professional development programs should be school based through activities such as mentoring, teaching rounds, and lesson study. School-based teacher professional development can help to solve issues related to accommodation, travelling, and unfamiliar school environments that were problematic in EFL Course. In addition, when organising teacher professional development programs at the teachers' own schools, the course providers can engage more teachers from the same school. A community of practice among the teachers can develop and the collective efficacy of the school may be increased because teachers together may create change at their school. More importantly, when attached to the teachers' daily teaching, school-based teacher professional development can eliminate the pressure of extra lessons. As described in EFL Course, the teachers had their classes covered by the other teachers at school when they engaged in the field trip. In this situation, if the field trip took place at their school, these teachers would not need to worry about finding time to teach those classes. More than that, they had chance of practising the new teaching techniques with their students.

The findings of this study also suggest that course providers should engage teachers and school leaders as collaborators in the process of designing professional development courses. Professional development programs designed with the participation of teachers and school leaders can create more impact on teachers' teaching when school leaders have an understanding of those programs because they are also familiar with the school contexts in which teachers work. In addition, teachers' participation in planning professional development can inform course providers about their expectations of the courses. Issues such as unmet teacher expectations, constraints from school leaders and limitations in teachers' access to information about teacher professional development can be resolved.

Course providers should construct reasonable recruitment criteria. The aim would be to create groups of professional, permanent teacher educators who have rich experience in inservice teacher professional development as well as teachers' teaching contexts. This may also ensure that teacher educators are capable of training novice teacher educators in teacher professional development.

Moreover, course providers should provide systematic professional development for teacher educators. This professional development should not be limited to some training before teacher professional development courses start as was the case for the teacher

educators in my study. Rather, course providers should encourage and give teacher educators (especially novice ones) more chance to become familiar with teacher professional development programs or to be mentored by experienced teacher educators in teacher professional development programs. Such activities not only help teacher educators understand the nature of the programs they will teach but may give them more experience in solving potential problems in their future teaching.

Finally, course providers should pay attention to cultural factors or traditional values when designing courses. Although these factors are not present explicitly, they may have an indirect impact on the effectiveness of teacher professional development courses. For example, teachers' expectations about how they will engage in the course activities or the role of the teacher educators. The important principle is that course providers should acknowledge the potential involvement of those cultural factors in teacher professional development, from which suitable solutions may be provided.

7.3.3 Implications for course participants

The most important implication for teachers and teacher educators in teacher professional development courses is to communicate with each other more. Only communication can inform both of them about each other's expectations. Only communication can help teacher educators understand more about teachers' teaching context. Only communication can resolve teachers' teaching problems. This can be done through seminars or briefing sessions in which teachers and the teacher educators share their own expectations as well as problems they have in teacher professional development courses.

In addition, teachers need to develop positive attitudes toward teacher professional development courses. Teachers should understand that the courses are organised to help them, but not evaluate them. Therefore, teachers should actively engage in the courses by raising their teaching problems in course discussions as well as spending time carefully preparing their microteaching lessons. Only with such positive attitudes can teachers benefit from teacher professional development courses.

Finally, teacher educators should pay attention to exploring teachers' expectations and how they can satisfy those expectations. Unmet expectations may cause disappointment that may demotivate teachers.

7.3.4 Implications for teacher professional development in Vietnam

In order to improve the quality of teacher professional development in Vietnam, first and foremost, more research on teacher professional development needs to be conducted. Studies on teacher professional development should not be limited to experimenting with new approaches; rather, attention should be given to current practices of teacher professional development. Once the current state of teacher professional development with its underlying issues are identified and fully understood, appropriate approaches can be chosen.

The results of the study also indicate that to enhance teachers in their profession, Vietnamese educational stakeholders and policymakers should focus on improving teachers' working environment. Their working environment should be a place where teachers are guaranteed to have a deserving income and a reasonable workload. When teachers have better income and are assigned an affordable amount of tasks, they may stay at their profession and have time to reflect on their current teaching. As such, teachers' engagement in their professional development may be promoted.

7.4 Limitations

There are some limitations of the study in terms of its scope, methods, and the trustworthiness of the results.

Regarding the scope of the study, due to the limited time, this study was conducted in only one course, although there were multiple courses related to the program of preparing new textbooks being offered to teachers. Moreover, only one classroom observation for each teacher participating in the interview was conducted. More importantly, I did not collect data from students to evaluate the effect of EFL Course on students' learning outcomes. This decision was made as a result of the perspective that teachers are subjects and objects of their professional development (Avalos, 2011) and the transfer from teachers' implementation to students' learning outcomes takes a lot of time. To evaluate the effectiveness of EFL Course on students' learning outcomes, it would be necessary to have a control group as well as data about students before the course. Because of my dependence on the information provided by the university organising EFL Course, information about students and teachers was not available to me before the course. Therefore, students' data was not chosen. Moreover, due to the limited time of a Ph.D.

candidature, I could meet the teachers only 6 months after the field trip of the course. What I observed enables my confirmation of EFL Course outcomes only on teachers at that time, but my observations do not address EFL Course's sustainability.

In terms of methodology, many studies and reviews called for experimental studies to evaluate the effectiveness of teacher professional development programs (see, e.g., Guskey & Yoon, 2008; Thurlings & den Brok, 2017). The primary aim of this study was not to evaluate whether EFL Course is effective. Rather, I wanted to explore the perceptions of the participants in EFL Course with the belief that reality is constructed by perceptions of different individuals in that reality (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; C. J. G. Lee, 2012). Therefore, teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions were explored using a qualitative approach.

In terms of the trustworthiness of the study, not all the sessions in the course were observed because I was the only observer, and the teachers were divided into two groups in face-to-face sessions and 10 groups in the field trip. These groups conducted their activities simultaneously, so a number of sessions were missed. However, to the best of my ability, I attempted to observe the greatest number of sessions in the field trip. In addition, although I did not participate in any activities of the course, my appearance as a researcher in EFL Course may have affected the teachers' learning and teacher educators' teaching. They may not have acted as naturally as they would have without my presence. In that way, my observations may be argued not to portray all the issues of EFL Course. However, as I spent a long time with the teachers and the teacher educators, they themselves might be familiar with my presence as well as forget they were the participants in a study (Guest et al., 2017). Therefore, data collected from course observations still allow comprehensive descriptions. Another concern related to the trustworthiness of the study may arise when some interviews are short. As the role of the researcher, the researcher's lack of experience in posing follow-up questions contributed to some short interviews. The differing time of interviews may lead to some missing information. However, as each interviewee was interviewed two or three times, the risk of missing information could be minimised.

7.5 Suggestions for further studies

Based on the above limitations, it is possible to provide suggestions for further studies.

Researchers could explore teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions in a broader scope, such as multiple courses in multiple areas with multiple classroom observations at different time points. Such a broader scope would provide rich data about teacher professional development and, consequently, more aspects of teacher professional development may be identified.

In situations where researchers have knowledge of teachers and students before teacher professional development programs, researchers should collect data of teachers' teaching and students' learning before the course using quantitative scales, making evaluation of teacher professional development programs more rigorous.

7.6 Reflection on the use of practice architecture theory

It is undeniable that practice architecture theory benefited me in the role of a researcher in discovering factors that shape the activities of EFL Course and teachers' teaching. Moreover, the process of implementing this theory provided me with suggestions for future use of this theory.

First, in identifying practice architectures shaping practices, researchers may be attracted more by constraints than by enablers. This is because constraints are the problems that need to be changed. However, enablers are also important because understanding enablers allows us to develop and enhance enabling/supporting conditions. Therefore, to avoid overlooking enablers in practice architectures, researchers should identify sayings, doings, and relatings first, then identify the arrangements that shape them. After the arrangements of sayings, doings, and relatings are identified, researchers can group the factors in these arrangements into those that are enabling group and those that are constraining. This approach will guarantee that all factors are treated equally.

Second, practice traditions are factors that are difficult to recognise. It is easy to miss practice traditions. Every event and phenomenon exists in a context that contains historical and cultural imprints. Therefore, identifying these historical and cultural imprints, and examining their effects on practices should not be neglected. The important rule for this identification is to use questions of practice traditions, for example:

- Is this practice the residue of something?
- Are there any similar events in the literature?
- What does not exist anymore but still leaves its imprint in the present?

7.7 Concluding remarks

Driven by the overarching question “How can we minimise the constraints and maximise the enablers of teacher professional development courses?”, this study focused on exploring practice architectures that shaped activities in EFL Course and teachers’ teaching. This exploration highlights the complex nature of teacher professional development which can be described as a spider web linking different factors from different spaces and times such as elements of course operation, school context, educational and socioeconomic factors, traditional values, teacher educators’ teaching practices, teachers’ learning practices, and teacher teaching practices. Because of this, it is challenging to improve education quality if there are only single reforms in single factors. Instead, the coordination in practices between systems and sub-systems is vital to best facilitate teachers’ teaching or, in other words, to maximise the effectiveness of teacher professional development.

In relation to practice architecture theory, this study contributes its voice of teacher professional development as an illustration of the theory; as such, it shows the wide application of practice architecture theory in studying human’s practices. Moreover, the operation of practice traditions in this study shows their importance in prefiguring and shaping practices. Thus, more attention should be taken to practice traditions when studying the theory of practice architectures.

This study has shed light on my own views about teacher professional development it has allowed me to develop an in-depth understanding of the factors that can enhance the professional development of teachers. From the perspective of an insider who participated in a similar teacher professional development course in the past, the teacher educators appeared to be challenged most in teacher professional development. They had difficulty understanding the teachers’ teaching contexts. They were also constrained by course provider practices, and they faced some reluctance from teachers. Hence, collaboration between teachers and teacher educators is more important than ever. Only by

collaboration can teacher educators and teachers improve the quality of teacher professional development.

From the perspective of someone who did not participate in EFL Course as a learner but as an observer, teacher professional development with teachers and teacher educators as I could observe in EFL Course was only the tip of an iceberg. Under this iceberg were educational, cultural, and socioeconomic systems that enabled and constrained teacher professional development. Our job, as researchers and educators, is to expose the submerged part of the iceberg to understand what underlines our practices, from which we are more aware of our roles in the interactions with the arrangements all around us.

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Appendix A

Ethics Approval

RE: HS Ethics Application - Approved (5201800270)(Con/Met)

Dear Dr Moloney,

Re: "Perceptions of the Effectiveness of a National Professional Learning Course for EFL Teachers in Vietnam" (5201800270)

Thank you very much for your response. Your response has addressed the issues raised by the Faculty of Human Sciences Human Research Ethics Sub-Committee and approval has been granted, effective 29th May 2018. This email constitutes ethical approval only.

This research meets the requirements of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007). The National Statement is available at the following web site:

<https://www.nhmrc.gov.au/book/national-statement-ethical-conduct-human-research>

The following personnel are authorised to conduct this research:

Dr Michael Cavanagh Dr Robyn Moloney Ms Hong Van Bui

Please note the following standard requirements of approval:

1. The approval of this project is conditional upon your continuing compliance with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007).
2. Approval will be for a period of five (5) years subject to the provision of annual reports.

Progress Report 1 Due: 29th May 2019 Progress Report 2 Due: 29th May 2020 Progress Report 3 Due: 29th May 2021 Progress Report 4 Due: 29th May 2022 Final Report Due: 29th May 2023

NB. If you complete the work earlier than you had planned you must submit a Final Report as soon as the work is completed. If the project has been discontinued or not commenced for any reason, you are also required to submit a Final Report for the project.

Progress reports and Final Reports are available at the following website:

<https://www.mq.edu.au/research/ethics-integrity-and-policies/ethics/human-ethics/resources>

3. If the project has run for more than five (5) years you cannot renew approval for the

project. You will need to complete and submit a Final Report and submit a new application for the project. (The five year limit on renewal of approvals allows the Sub-Committee to fully re- review research in an environment where legislation, guidelines and requirements are continually changing, for example, new child protection and privacy laws).

4. All amendments to the project must be reviewed and approved by the Sub-Committee before implementation. Please complete and submit a Request for Amendment Form available at the following website:

<https://www.mq.edu.au/research/ethics-integrity-and-policies/ethics/human-ethics/resources>

5. Please notify the Sub-Committee immediately in the event of any adverse effects on participants or of any unforeseen events that affect the continued ethical acceptability of the project.
6. At all times you are responsible for the ethical conduct of your research in accordance with the guidelines established by the University. This information is available at the following websites:

<https://www.mq.edu.au/research/ethics-integrity-and-policies/ethics/human-ethics/post-approval>

<https://www.mq.edu.au/research/ethics-integrity-and-policies/ethics/human-ethics/resources/research-ethics>

If you will be applying for or have applied for internal or external funding for the above project it is your responsibility to provide the Macquarie University's Research Grants Management Assistant with a copy of this email as soon as possible. Internal and External funding agencies will not be informed that you have approval for your project and funds will not be released until the Research Grants Management Assistant has received a copy of this email.

If you need to provide a hard copy letter of approval to an external organisation as evidence that you have approval, please do not hesitate to contact the Ethics Secretariat at the address below.

Please retain a copy of this email as this is your official notification of ethics approval.

Yours sincerely,

Dr Naomi Sweller Chair
Faculty of Human Sciences
Human Research Ethics Sub-Committee

FHS Ethics

Faculty of Human Sciences Ethics
C5C-17 Wallys Walk L3
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T: +61 2 9850 4197 | [http://www.research.mq.edu.au/ Ethics Forms and Templates](http://www.research.mq.edu.au/Ethics%20Forms%20and%20Templates)
<https://www.mq.edu.au/research/ethics-integrity-and-policies/ethics/human-ethics/resources>

The Faculty of Human Sciences acknowledges the traditional custodians of the Macquarie University Land, the Wattamattageal clan of the Darug nation, whose cultures and customs have nurtured and continue to nurture this land since the Dreamtime. We pay our respects to Elders past, present and future.

Appendix B

Information and Consent Forms

This appendix contains four items:

1. Information and consent forms for teacher educators — English version
2. Information and consent forms for teacher educators — Vietnamese version
3. Information and consent forms for teachers — English version
4. Information and consent forms for teachers — Vietnamese version

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Email: robyn.moloney@mq.edu.au

Chief Investigator's / Supervisor's Name & Title: **Dr Robyn Moloney**

Participant Information and Consent Form (Teacher educators)

Name of Project: ***Perceptions of the Effectiveness of a National Professional Learning Course for EFL Teachers in Vietnam***

You are invited to participate in a study on perceptions of the effectiveness of a national professional learning course for EFL teachers in Vietnam. The purpose of the study is to find out the views of teachers and instructors in a professional course for EFL teachers on its effectiveness to construct a better framework for EFL teacher professional learning in the future.

The study is being conducted by **Mrs Hong Van Bui** (tel: +61 4 50977656/ email address: hong-van.bui@students.mq.edu.au) to meet the requirements of Doctor of Philosophy under the supervision of **Dr Robyn Moloney** (tel: +61 2 9850 8605/ email address: robyn.moloney@mq.edu.au) and **A/Prof Michael Cavanagh** (tel: +61 2 9850 8239/ email address: michael.cavanagh@mq.edu.au) of the Department of Educational Studies. If you decide to participate, you will be asked to participate in:

- A 30-minute interview before the course
- A 30-minute interview after the course
- Course observations during the course

The observations and interviews focus only on research matters and some teaching and learning background information. You will have no exposure to any kind of risk when taking part in this study and will be given 25 AUD as the reimbursement for each of your participation in the study.

Any information or personal details gathered in the course of the study are confidential, except as required by law. No individual will be identified in any publication of the results. There are only three people who have the right to access the data: Mrs Hong Van Bui and her supervisors, Dr Robyn Moloney and A/Prof Michael Cavanagh. The data will not be used in any way outside the project. A summary of the results of the data can be made available to you on request by email. If you would like to receive this summary, please email Mrs Hong Van Bui.

Participation in this study is entirely voluntary: you are not obliged to participate and if you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time without having to give a reason and without consequence.

I, _____ (*instructor's name*) have read (*or, where appropriate, have had read to me*) and understand the information above and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this research, knowing that I can withdraw from further participation in the research at any time without consequence. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.

Participant's Name: _____

Participant's Signature: _____ Date: _____

Investigator's Name: _____
(Block letters)

Investigator's Signature: _____ Date: _____

The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the Macquarie University Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of your participation in this research, you may contact the Committee through the Director, Research Ethics & Integrity (telephone (02) 9850 7854; email ethics@mq.edu.au) or University of Languages and International Studies, VNU through the vice president – Dr Xuan Long Nguyen (telephone: +84 24 6652 3227). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome.

(INVESTIGATOR'S [OR PARTICIPANT'S] COPY)

Khoa Nghiên cứu giáo dục
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Email: robyn.moloney@mq.edu.au

Nghiên cứu trưởng/ Tên người hướng dẫn và học vị: **Tiến sĩ Robyn Moloney**

Mẫu chấp thuận và thông tin dành cho người tham gia

(Giảng viên khóa bồi dưỡng)

Tên đề tài: ***Nhận thức về hiệu quả của một khóa bồi dưỡng dành cho giáo viên tiếng Anh tại Việt Nam***

Kính mời anh /chị tham gia vào đề tài nghiên cứu ***Nhận thức về hiệu quả của một khóa bồi dưỡng dành cho giáo viên tiếng Anh tại Việt Nam***. Mục đích của nghiên cứu này là để tìm hiểu quan điểm của giáo viên và giảng viên của một khóa bồi dưỡng giáo viên tiếng Anh về hiệu quả của khóa học nhằm mục đích xây dựng một khung bồi dưỡng giáo viên tiếng Anh hiệu quả hơn trong tương lai.

Nghiên cứu này được thực hiện bởi bà **Bùi Hồng Vân** (Điện thoại: +61 4 50977656/ email: hong-van.bui@students.mq.edu.au) để hoàn thành yêu cầu của khóa Tiến sĩ dưới sự hướng dẫn của Tiến sĩ **Robyn Moloney** (Điện thoại: +61 2 9850 8605/ email: robyn.moloney@mq.edu.au) và Phó giáo sư **Michael Cavanagh** (Điện thoại: +61 2 9850 8239/ email: michael.cavanagh@mq.edu.au) thuộc khoa Nghiên cứu giáo dục.

Nếu anh/ chị quyết định tham gia vào đề tài nghiên cứu này, anh/chị sẽ được yêu cầu:

- Trả lời câu hỏi phỏng vấn trong khoảng 30 phút trước khóa học
- Trả lời câu hỏi phỏng vấn trong khoảng 30 phút sau khóa học
- Tham gia vào phần quan sát khóa học trong quá trình khóa học diễn ra.

Toàn bộ các phần quan sát và phỏng vấn chỉ tập trung vào các nội dung nghiên cứu và một vài thông tin giảng dạy. Vì vậy anh/chị sẽ không phải tiếp cận với bất kể rủi ro nào và sẽ được nhận được 25 AUD cho mỗi tham gia vào đề tài nghiên cứu này.

Bất kể thông tin hay chi tiết cá nhân được thu thập trong nghiên cứu này đều sẽ được bảo mật ngoại trừ trường hợp luật pháp yêu cầu. Không một cá nhân nào bị nhận dạng trong bất cứ xuất bản nào của kết quả nghiên cứu. Chỉ có ba người có quyền truy cập những dữ liệu nói trên là bà Bùi Hồng Vân và người hướng dẫn là Tiến sĩ Robyn Moloney và Phó giáo sư Michael Cavanagh. Tóm

tất của kết quả nghiên cứu sẽ được gửi cho anh/chị nếu anh/chị yêu cầu. Nếu anh/ chị muốn nhận bản tóm tắt này, xin hãy liên lạc với bà **Bùi Hồng Vân**.

Việc tham gia vào nghiên cứu này là hoàn toàn tự nguyện: anh/chị không bị bắt buộc phải tham gia và nếu anh/chị quyết định tham gia vào nghiên cứu thì cũng có thể tự do rút lui bất cứ lúc nào anh/chị muốn mà không cần phải đưa ra lý do hay phải chịu bất kì một hậu quả gì.

Tôi, _____ (*tên giảng viên*) đã đọc và hiểu thông tin bên trên và tất cả những câu hỏi tôi muốn hỏi cũng đã được trả lời thoả đáng. Tôi đồng ý tham gia vào nghiên cứu này và hiểu rằng tôi có thể rút lui khỏi nghiên cứu này bất kể lúc nào mà không có bất kì hậu quả gì. Tôi được đưa một bản sao của phiếu này để giữ.

Tên người tham gia: _____ (Viết chữ in hoa)

Chữ kí của người tham gia: _____ Ngày: _____

Tên người nghiên cứu: _____ (Viết chữ in hoa)

Chữ kí của người nghiên cứu: _____ Ngày: _____

Khía cạnh đạo đức của nghiên cứu này được thông qua bởi Ủy ban Đạo đức Nghiên cứu con

Người của trường đại học Macquarie. Nếu anh/chị có bất kể phàn nàn hoặc thắc mắc gì về khía cạnh đạo đức của sự tham gia của anh/chị trong nghiên cứu này, bạn có thể liên hệ Ủy ban thông qua Giám đốc, Đạo đức và toàn vẹn trong nghiên cứu (sdt: (02) 9850 7854; email ethics@mq.edu.au) hoặc Đại học Ngoại ngữ - Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội thông qua Phó hiệu trưởng – Tiến sĩ Nguyễn Xuân Long (sdt: +84 24 6652 3227). Bất kể phàn nàn nào của anh/chị cũng sẽ được xử lý bảo mật và điều tra kĩ càng, và anh/chị sẽ được thông báo về kết quả.

**(BẢN SAO CỦA NGƯỜI NGHIÊN CỨU
[HOẶC CỦA NGƯỜI THAM GIA]**

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Faculty of Human Sciences
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Email: robyn.moloney@mq.edu.au

Chief Investigator's / Supervisor's Name & Title: **Dr Robyn Moloney**

Participant Information and Consent Form (Teachers)

Name of Project: ***Perceptions of the Effectiveness of a National Professional Learning Course for EFL Teachers in Vietnam***

You are invited to participate in a study on perceptions of the effectiveness of a national professional learning course for EFL teachers in Vietnam. The purpose of the study is to find out the views of teachers and instructors in a professional course for EFL teachers on its effectiveness to construct a better framework for EFL teacher professional learning in the future.

The study is being conducted by **Mrs Hong Van Bui** (tel: +61 4 50977656/ email address: hong-van.bui@students.mq.edu.au) to meet the requirements of Doctor of Philosophy under the supervision of **Dr Robyn Moloney** (tel: +61 2 9850 8605/ email address: robyn.moloney@mq.edu.au) and **A/Prof Michael Cavanagh** (tel: +61 2 9850 8239/ email address: michael.cavanagh@mq.edu.au) of the Department of Educational Studies.

If you decide to participate, you will be asked to complete

- A 15-minute questionnaire before the course
- A 15-minute questionnaire after the course

In addition, a small number of respondents who give their consent and preferred way of contact will be asked to participate in:

- A 30-minute follow-up interview after the course
- A classroom observation, a 15-minute questionnaire and a 30-minute follow-up interview 6-8 months after the course.

The observations, questionnaires and interviews focus only on research matters and some teaching and learning background information. You will have no exposure to any kind of risk when taking part in this study and will be given 6 AUD for answering the questionnaire and 25 AUD for each interview.

Any information or personal details gathered in the course of the study are confidential, except as required by law. No individual will be identified in any publication of the results. There are only three people who have the right to access the data: Ms Hong Van Bui and her supervisors, Dr Robyn Moloney and A/Prof Michael Cavanagh. The data will not be used in any way outside the project. A summary of the results of the data can be made available to you on request by email. If you would like to receive this summary, please email Mrs Hong Van Bui.

Participation in this study is entirely voluntary: you are not obliged to participate and if you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time without having to give a reason and without consequence.

I, _____ (*teacher's name*) have read (*or, where appropriate, have had read to me*) and understand the information above and any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this research, knowing that I can withdraw from further participation in the research at any time without consequence. I have been given a copy of this form to keep.

Participant's Name: _____

Participant's Signature: _____ Date: _____

Investigator's Name: _____
(Block letters)

Investigator's Signature: _____ Date: _____

The ethical aspects of this study have been approved by the Macquarie University Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any ethical aspect of your participation in this research, you may contact the Committee through the Director, Research Ethics & Integrity (telephone (02) 9850 7854; email ethics@mq.edu.au) or University of Languages and International Studies, VNU through the vice president – Dr Xuan Long Nguyen (telephone: +84 24 6652 3227). Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome.

(INVESTIGATOR'S [OR PARTICIPANT'S] COPY)

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Nghiên cứu trưởng/ Tên người hướng dẫn và học vị: **Tiến sĩ Robyn Moloney**

Mẫu chấp thuận và thông tin dành cho người tham gia

(Giáo viên tham gia khóa bồi dưỡng)

Tên đề tài: ***Nhận thức về hiệu quả của một khóa bồi dưỡng dành cho giáo viên tiếng Anh tại Việt Nam***

Kính mời anh /chị tham gia vào đề tài nghiên cứu ***Nhận thức về hiệu quả của một khóa bồi dưỡng dành cho giáo viên tiếng Anh tại Việt Nam***. Mục đích của nghiên cứu này là để tìm hiểu quan điểm của giáo viên và giảng viên của một khóa bồi dưỡng giáo viên tiếng Anh về hiệu quả của khóa học nhằm mục đích xây dựng một khung bồi dưỡng giáo viên tiếng Anh hiệu quả hơn trong tương lai.

Nghiên cứu này được thực hiện bởi bà **Bùi Hồng Vân** (Điện thoại: +61 4 50977656/ email: hong-van.bui@students.mq.edu.au) để hoàn thành yêu cầu của khóa Tiến sĩ dưới sự hướng dẫn của Tiến sĩ **Robyn Moloney** (Điện thoại: +61 2 9850 8605/ email: robyn.moloney@mq.edu.au) và Phó giáo sư **Michael Cavanagh** (Điện thoại: +61 2 9850 8239/ email: michael.cavanagh@mq.edu.au) thuộc khoa Nghiên cứu giáo dục.

Nếu anh/ chị quyết định tham gia vào đề tài nghiên cứu này, anh/chị sẽ được yêu cầu trả lời đầy đủ:

- Bảng câu hỏi điều tra trong khoảng 15 phút trước khóa học
- Bảng câu hỏi điều tra trong khoảng 15 phút sau khóa học

Anh/ chị cũng sẽ được yêu cầu cung cấp tên đầy đủ và một phương thức liên lạc thuận tiện với anh chị để cho phép chúng tôi liên lạc với anh/ chị trong tương lai. Bên cạnh đó, một số lượng nhỏ người đồng ý và cung cấp phương thức liên lạc sẽ được mời tham gia:

- Trả lời câu hỏi phỏng vấn trong khoảng 30 phút sau khóa học
- Giai đoạn 4 của nghiên cứu (với các phương pháp quan sát lớp học, bảng câu hỏi điều tra, và phỏng vấn).

Toàn bộ các phần quan sát, bảng câu hỏi và phỏng vấn chỉ tập trung vào các nội dung nghiên cứu và một vài thông tin giảng dạy. Vì vậy anh/chị sẽ không

phải tiếp cận với bất kể rủi ro nào và sẽ được nhận 6 AUD khi trả lời bảng câu hỏi và 25 AUD với mỗi cuộc trả lời phỏng vấn.

Bất kể thông tin hay chi tiết cá nhân được thu thập trong nghiên cứu này đều sẽ được bảo mật ngoại trừ trường hợp luật pháp yêu cầu. Không một cá nhân nào bị nhận dạng trong bất cứ xuất bản nào của kết quả nghiên cứu. Chỉ có ba người có quyền truy cập những dữ liệu nói trên là bà Bùi Hồng Vân và người hướng dẫn là Tiến sĩ Robyn Moloney và Phó giáo sư Michael Cavanagh. Tóm tắt của kết quả nghiên cứu sẽ được gửi cho anh/chị nếu anh/chị yêu cầu. Nếu anh/ chị muốn nhận bản tóm tắt này, xin hãy liên lạc với bà **Bùi Hồng Vân**.

Việc tham gia vào nghiên cứu này là hoàn toàn tự nguyện: anh/chị không bị bắt buộc phải tham gia và nếu anh/chị quyết định tham gia vào nghiên cứu thì cũng có thể tự do rút lui bất cứ lúc nào anh/chị muốn mà không cần phải đưa ra lý do hay phải chịu bất kì một hậu quả gì.

Tôi, _____ (*tên giáo viên*) đã đọc và hiểu thông tin bên trên và tất cả những câu hỏi tôi muốn hỏi cũng đã được trả lời thỏa đáng. Tôi đồng ý tham gia vào nghiên cứu này và hiểu rằng tôi có thể rút lui khỏi nghiên cứu này bất kể lúc nào mà không có bất kì hậu quả gì. Tôi được đưa một bản sao của phiếu này để giữ.

Tên người tham gia: _____ (Viết chữ in hoa)

Chữ kí của người tham gia: _____ Ngày: _____

Tên người nghiên cứu: _____ (Viết chữ in hoa)

Chữ kí của người nghiên cứu: _____ Ngày: _____

Khía cạnh đạo đức của nghiên cứu này được thông qua bởi Ủy ban Đạo đức Nghiên cứu con

Người của trường đại học Macquarie. Nếu anh/chị có bất kể phàn nàn hoặc thắc mắc gì về khía cạnh đạo đức của sự tham gia của anh/chị trong nghiên cứu này, bạn có thể liên hệ Ủy ban thông qua Giám đốc, Đạo đức và toàn vẹn trong nghiên cứu (sdt: (02) 9850 7854; email ethics@mq.edu.au) hoặc trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ - Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội thông qua Phó hiệu trưởng- Tiến sĩ Nguyễn Xuân Long (sdt: +84 24 6652 3227). Bất kể phàn nàn nào của anh/chị cũng sẽ được xử lý bảo mật và điều tra kĩ càng, và anh/chị sẽ được thông báo về kết quả.

**(BẢN SAO CỦA NGƯỜI NGHIÊN CỨU
[HOẶC CỦA NGƯỜI THAM GIA]**

Appendix C

Questionnaires

This appendix contains three questionnaires:

1. Teachers' expectations before the course
2. Teachers' evaluation after the course
3. Impact of the course from the teachers' perceptions

QUESTIONNAIRE 1:**TEACHERS' EXPECTATIONS BEFORE THE COURSE****SECTION I. BACKGROUND INFORMATION**

1. Name:

2. Gender: Male ☐Female ☐

3. Age:

4. Your highest level of education:

5. Which tertiary institution did you attend?

6. Have you ever taken any international English examination (TOEFL / IELTS / Cambridge English qualifications)? If so, what is your score?

7. How long have you been teaching English as a second language?

8. Which school are you working at now?

How long have you been working at your school?

9. On a 9-point scale in which 1 - Non-existent, 3 - Poor, 5 - Adequate, 7 - Good, and 9 – Excellent, what do you think is your school teaching and learning atmosphere?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

10. Normally at your school how many students are there in an English class?

11. On a 9-point scale in which 1 - Non-existent, 3 - Poor, 5 - Adequate, 7 - Good, and 9 – Excellent, what do you think is your professional performance level?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

12. On a 9-point scale in which 1 - Non-existent, 3 - Poor, 5 - Adequate, 7 - Good, and 9 – Excellent, what do you think is your English reading level?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

13. On a 9-point scale in which 1 - Non-existent, 3 - Poor, 5 - Adequate, 7 - Good, and 9 – Excellent, what do you think is your English writing level?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

14. On a 9-point scale in which 1 - Non-existent, 3 - Poor, 5 - Adequate, 7 - Good, and 9 – Excellent, what is do you think your English speaking level?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

15. On a 9-point scale in which 1 - Non-existent, 3 - Poor, 5 - Adequate, 7 - Good, and 9 – Excellent, what do you think is your English listening level?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

16. Have you previously completed professional learning for teaching English as a second language? If so, how many courses have you completed?

17. Why did you decide to participate in the course?

18. What do you expect to learn from the course?

*This is the end of the questionnaire.
Thank you for your participation!*

QUESTIONNAIRE 2:**TEACHERS' EVALUATION AFTER THE COURSE**

Name: _____

SECTION I: EVALUATION OF THE COURSE*Please choose the degree you agree or disagree with the following statement*

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I am satisfied with the course	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. The course will be helpful in performing my teaching.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Information that I want to know was fully provided.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. The course increases my knowledge of the content I teach.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. The course increases my knowledge of teaching and learning strategies appropriate to the content I teach.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. The course increases my knowledge of how students learn the content.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. The course increases my knowledge of individual differences amongst students and	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

how to cater for their
needs

Please turn over /

- | | | | | | |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 8. The course increases my knowledge of how to link assessment into the teaching and learning cycle. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 9. The course increases my knowledge of classroom organisation and management. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 10. I gained more interest in the subject matter of this course. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 11. The learning content is easily understandable. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 12. The quality of the course compared favourably to my other courses. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 13. I was continuously interested throughout the course. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 14. I feel that this course served my needs well. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

15. I would recommend ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

this course to other

teachers.

Other comments on the course:

This is the end of the questionnaire.
Thank you for your participation!

QUESTIONNAIRE 3:**IMPACT OF THE COURSE FROM TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS**

Name: _____

SECTION I: IMPACT OF THE COURSE*Please choose the extent you agree or disagree with the following statement*

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I now make clearer links between my teaching goals and classroom activities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. I now manage classroom structures and activities more effectively.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. I now use more effective teaching and learning strategies appropriate to the content that I teach.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. I now use more effective teaching and learning strategies appropriate to the classroom context.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. I now use teaching and learning strategies that are more challenging and engaging.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

6. I am better able to meet the individual learning needs of my students. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

7. I now link assessment into the teaching and learning cycle more effectively. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Please turn over /

8. I now provide more effective feedback to my students to support their learning. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

9. I now engage students in higher order thinking. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

10. My students now have fewer difficulties in understanding what they are being taught. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

11. My students are learning more purposefully. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

12. My students are more actively engaged in learning activities. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

13. My students now demonstrate enhanced learning outcomes. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

14. My students now access and use materials ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

and resources more
effectively.

Other comments on the impact of the course?

*This is the end of the questionnaire.
Thank you for your participation!*

Appendix D

Teacher Interview Protocols

This appendix contains three items:

1. Interview protocol for teachers immediately after the face-to-face sessions
2. Interview protocol for teachers after the field trip
3. Interview protocol for teachers 6–8 months after the course

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR TEACHERS AFTER THE FACE-TO-FACE SESSIONS

Contents	Guided questions
Teacher's background	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Why did you choose to become a teacher of English as a Foreign Language? 2. Do you feel satisfied with what you achieve at work?
Teacher's Experience	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. During your time working as a teacher of English as a Foreign Language, have you encountered any difficulties affecting your professional performance? 2. What did you do to improve your teaching?
Teacher's Experience in the course	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Why did you decide to take part in this course? 2. What did you hope to get out of it? 3. Did the course meet your expectations? 4. What in the course impressed you most? 5. How did you take part in the course? 6. How did the course affect your motivation in working as a teacher of English as a Foreign Language?
Teacher's opinions of the course	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What do you feel about the contents and activities of the course? 2. How do you feel about the learning process (materials, organizing) of the course? 3. How do you feel about the time and convenience for you to participate in the course? 4. What aspects of the course do you intend to implement in your teaching? 5. How could the course be improved?

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR TEACHERS AFTER THE FIELD TRIP

Contents	Guided questions
Teachers' teaching practices in the field trip	How did you demonstrate what you learned from the course? What factors enable and constrain your teaching in this field trip?
Teachers' perceptions of the field trip	What do you think about this fieldtrip? Is this field trip useful to you? Why? How does this field trip meet your expectation? What did you learn from this field trip?

**INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR TEACHERS 06 – 08 MONTHS AFTER THE
COURSE**

Contents	Guided questions
Degree and Quality of Teachers' Implementation after the course	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Did you effectively apply the new knowledge and skills that you learned in the course? 2. How are you using what you learned from the course? 3. What challenges are you encountering? 4. Do you see any effects of this change on your students?
Factors affecting the impact of the course	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What do you think are the factors which have helped/ hindered your implementation of the ideas from the course? 2. Is your school considered a successful professional learning community? 3. What is the culture of your school? 4. What is the focus of your school? 5. What does professional learning look like in your school? 6. How is your school governed? 7. What does leadership look like in your school? 8. What roles do parents and community members have in your school? 9. What support systems are in place?

Appendix E

Teacher Educator Interview Protocols

This appendix contains two items:

1. Interview protocol for teacher educators before the course
2. Interview protocol for teacher educators after the course

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR TEACHER EDUCATORS BEFORE THE COURSE

Information	Guided Questions
Teacher educators' background	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What is your highest level of education? 2. How long have you been teaching English as a Foreign Language? 3. Why did you choose to become a teacher of English as a Foreign Language? 3. How many times have you taught this course before? 4. Why did you work as an instructor in professional development courses? 5. Were you trained to become an instructor in professional development courses?
Teacher educators' Experience in professional development courses	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 6. Do you take part in designing professional development curriculum and activities? 7. How do you design professional development curriculum and activities? 8. How do you evaluate the outcomes of professional development courses? 9. How do you foster the teachers' participation during the course?

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL FOR TEACHER EDUCATORS AFTER THE COURSE

Information	Guided Questions
Teacher educators' Experience in the current course	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. How do you rate the teachers' participation in the course? 2. How do you think the course will affect teachers' performance? 3. What are your goals in teaching this course? Do you think these goals are successfully achieved? How do you know?
Teacher educators' role after the course	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. What will you do to improve the impact of the course in the future? 5. Do you provide teachers with your feedback when they work at their school? 6. What factors do you think teachers should consider when they apply what they were taught in the course to their classroom practice?

Appendix F

Observation Guides

This appendix contains three items:

1. Course observation guide
2. Field trip observation guide
3. Classroom observation guide

Course Observation Guide

Date:

Location:

Participants:

Contents of the lesson:

Guided questions:

1. How long did the lesson last? Was the time well spent?
2. What did the teachers talk about the materials? Did the materials make sense to them? Will the materials be useful?
3. Did professional development activities during the lesson focus on subject matter content and how did teachers learn that content?
4. Did teachers have opportunities to get involved, such as observing and receiving feedback, analysing student work, or making presentations, as opposed to passively sitting through lectures?
5. What did teachers say about the consistency between this course and other professional learning courses? Is what teachers learn in the course consistent with other professional learning courses, with their knowledge and beliefs, with school, district, and state reforms and policies?
6. How did the teacher educators present the contents of the course?
7. Did the teacher educators present the lesson in ways consistent with the pedagogies they were encouraging participants to use?
8. Did teachers acquire the intended knowledge and skills?
9. How did the teachers engage with the lesson?

Field Trip Observation Guide

Date:

Location:

Participants:

Contents of the lesson:

Guided questions:

1. How long did the lesson last? Was the time well spent?
2. What did the students talk about the textbook and teachers' teaching materials?
Did the textbook and the materials make sense to them?
3. Did students have opportunities to get involved in classroom activities opposed to passively sitting through teachers' teaching?
4. How did the teachers present the contents of the course?
5. Did the teachers present the lesson in ways they were taught in the course?
6. Did students acquire the intended knowledge and skills?
7. How did students engage with the lesson?
8. What language did the teachers and students use?
9. What activities took place after teachers' teaching?
10. What did the other teachers and the teacher educators do when the teacher was teaching?
11. What did the other teachers and the teacher educators evaluate the teachers' teaching?
12. What did the teachers evaluate about her own teaching?

Classroom Observation Guide

Date:

Location:

Participants:

Contents of the lesson:

Guided questions:

1. How long did the lesson last? Was the time well spent?
2. What did the students talk about the textbook and teachers' teaching materials?
Did the textbook and the materials make sense to them?
3. Did students have opportunities to get involved in classroom activities opposed to passively sitting through teachers' teaching?
4. How did the teachers present the contents of the course?
5. Did the teachers present the lesson in ways they were taught in the course?
6. Did students acquire the intended knowledge and skills?
7. How did students engage with the lesson?
8. What language did the teachers and students use?

APPENDIX G

Teachers' Participation in Data Collection

Teacher code	Questionnaire 1	Questionnaire 2	Interview 1	Interview 2	Questionnaire 3	Interview 3
1	X ²	X	X	X	X	X
2	X					
3	X					
4	X					
5	X	X	X	X	X	X
6	X	X				
7	X					
8	X					
9	X					
10	X					
11	X	X				
12	X	X				
13	X	X				
14	X	X				
15	X	X				
16	X	X				
17	X	X	X	X	X	X
18	X					
19	X	X				
20	X	X				
21	X	X	X	X	X	X
22	X	X	X	X	X	X
23	X	X				
24	X	X				
25	X	X				
26	X	X	X	X	X	X
27	X	X				
28	X	X				
29	X					
30	X	X				
31	X	X				
32	X	X				
33	X	X				
34	X	X				
35	X	X				
36	X					
37	X	X				
38	X					
39	X	X				
40	X	X				
41	X	X				
42	X	X				
43	X	X				
44	X	X				
45	X	X				
46	X	X	X	X	X	X
47	X	X				

² The X indicates that the teacher participated in the activity.

APPENDIX G TEACHER'S PARTICIPATION

48		X				
49		X				
50		X				
51	X	X	X	X		
52		X				
53		X				
54		X				
55		X				
56		X				

Appendix H

Summary of Themes and Nodes

1. Teachers' perceptions of the effectiveness of face-to-face and online independent learning sessions

Themes	Nodes	
Teachers' expectations in the course	New teaching methods	
	Knowledge of new textbooks	
	Offer from educational departments	
	No expectation	
	Teacher educators' modelling	
Challenges in teachers' current teaching	Inexperience in transferring theory into practice	
	Lack of modern school teaching facilities	
	Lack of parental support	
	Students' level	
	Low salary	
	Too many classroom observations and investigation	
	Students' motivation	
	Teachers' working status	
Effects of the course on teachers	Increase in teachers' confidence	
	Improvement in teachers' teaching methods	
	Improved teachers' motivation	
	Improved knowledge of new textbooks	
Teachers' evaluation of the course	Enablers	Beneficial online and face-to-face learning
		Convenient timing for the course
		High-quality teacher educators
		Useful microteaching
		Various new teaching methods
	Constraints	Theoretical course book
		Tiring timetable
		Location
		Lack of financial support

How to improve the course	Reduced time for online learning	
	Collective participation	
	Longer time for practical contents	
	Less theoretical contents	
	Better accommodation	
	Teacher educators' modelling	

2. Teachers' perceptions of the teaching rounds

Themes	Nodes	
Effects of teaching rounds	Clear views of new textbooks, methods, and techniques.	
	Understanding of student placement	
	Understanding of others' teaching practices	
	Experience in other school context	
Teachers' experience in the teaching rounds	Enablers	Students of higher level
		Educators' and other teachers' feedback
		Supportive visiting school
		Real pedagogical issues with real students
		Supportive teacher educators
	Constraints	Too many attendees
		Lack of understanding of students
		Students of lower level
		Pressure of workload at home school after the teaching rounds
		Limited funding for accommodation and travel
		Lack of time for lesson plans

3. Teachers' perceptions of the implementation of the course

Themes	Nodes	
Enablers when implementing	High-quality teaching facilities	
	Tourism policies	
	Interactive textbooks	
	Updated knowledge in new textbooks	
	Well-behaved students	

Constraints in course implementation	Economic issues	
	Environment for English speaking	
	Lack of parental support	
	Students' anxiety	
	Students' low level of English	
	Students' limited access to Internet	
	Supervision from educational department	
	Supervision from leaders	
	Supervision from subject groups	
	Heavy workload	
Effects of the course implementation	Improvement in students' level of confidence	
	Improvement in students' communicative level	
Current implementation of the course	ICT	
	Games	
	New words from context	
	Textbook adaptation	
	Use of groupwork/pairwork	
	Teacher-centred vs student-centred	
Follow-up support after the course	No support from course providers	
	Support from colleagues	

4. Teacher educators' perceptions of the effectiveness of the course

Themes	Nodes	
Expectations of the course	Teachers' attention	
	Teachers' hard work	
	Teachers' cooperation	
	Teachers' activeness	
Effects of the course on teachers	Practical contents for teachers	
	Change in teachers' beliefs	
	Not much improvement in teachers' teaching practices	
	Improved teachers' motivation	

APPENDIX H SUMMARY OF THEMES AND NODES

Teacher educators' experiences of the course	Constraints	Teachers' inactiveness
		Negative teachers' attitudes towards the course
		Challenges from educational stakeholders in teachers' implementation
		Tiring travelling
		Teachers of English low level
		Teachers' lack of experience with new textbooks
		Teaching facilities and accommodation
		Teachers' low motivation
		Limited time for teacher learning
		Teacher educators' practical knowledge
	Enablers	Some good teachers' participation
Support for teachers after the course	Teaching materials	
	Textbook authors' contacts	
	Teacher educators' contacts	
	Online course	
Support for teacher educators before the course	No training of content knowledge	
	Training of pedagogical content knowledge	
Reasons for participating in the course	Requirement from the university	
	Higher income	
	Improvement in teaching profession	
	Opportunities for travelling	
Reasons for becoming EFL teacher educators	Good income	
	Personal interest	
Main tasks of teacher educators	Designing materials for PD courses	
	Conducting research activities	
	Teaching PD courses	
	Participation in teacher education	
How to improve the effectiveness of the course	More time for practice	
	More suitable contents in the materials	
	Better facilities	
	Better teachers' performance	
	More time for discussion	
	Careful training for instructors	