

WORKPLACE LEARNING IN A SCHOOL OF LANGUAGES:
INSTRUCTORS' VALUES AND PROFESSIONAL LEARNING PRACTICES



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Workplace Learning in a School of Languages:
Instructors' Values and Professional Learning Practices

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

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- I am the sole author of this thesis and that I have fully acknowledged and documented in my thesis all sources of ideas and words, including digital resources, which have been produced or published by another person or institution;
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- this is a true copy of the thesis approved by my advisor and thesis committee at Boğaziçi University, including final revisions required by them.

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ABSTRACT

Workplace Learning in a School of Languages: Instructors' Values and Professional Learning Practices

The quality of professional development opportunities for instructors can be improved by promoting expansive learning environments as it is not possible to develop educators without considering their interaction with school environment and culture. Combining survey quantitative data and semi-structured interview results, this mixed-method study analyzed EFL instructors' values and professional learning practices by comparing the schools of languages of state schools and foundation schools, as two different workplace settings. It was observed that workplace environment influences instructors' orientations to learning in terms of (i) what kind of learning activities instructors value and practice, (ii) which factors they perceive as either influencing, supporting or hindering their learning and (iii) whether they believe their professional learning affect the way they work with their colleagues and students. It was concluded that while EFL instructors working in state schools tend to depend mostly on outside experts and have some external foci of professional learning, instructors working in foundation schools are more likely to function as a community of practice, exploiting internal resources and collaborating with their coworkers. Analysis of interview results showed that all instructors thought that their professional learning definitely affected how they work with their students and the majority thought that such an effect was a positive one. However, instructors differed in the way they perceive the effect of their learning on their work with their colleagues.

ÖZET

Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulunda İşyerinde Öğrenme: Öğretim Görevlilerinin Mesleki Öğrenme Değer ve Pratikleri

Eğitimcilerin mesleki gelişimleri çalıştıkları okulların kültürü ile kurdukları etkileşimden bağımsız düşünülemez. Bu sebeple, okul kültürünün mesleki öğrenmeyi destekleyen unsurlar içerecek şekilde geliştirilmesi öğretim görevlilerine sunulan gelişim olanaklarının kalitesi artırılabilir. Karma yöntemli bu çalışma, anket yolu ile elde edilen nicel ve birebir mülakat yolu ile elde edilen nitel verileri karşılıklı analiz ederek devlet ve vakıf üniversitelerinin yabancı diller yüksekokullarında çalışan öğretim görevlilerinin mesleki öğrenme değer ve pratiklerini incelemiştir. Veri analizi işyeri ortamının öğretim görevlilerinin öğrenme yönelimlerini ve buna bağlı olarak; (i) hangi mesleki öğrenme aktivitelerini değerli bulduklarını ve uyguladıklarını; (ii) hangi faktörleri mesleki öğrenme süreçleri için kolaylaştırıcı ya da önleyici bulduklarını, ve (iii) mesleki öğrenmelerinin meslektaşları ve öğrencileri ile çalışma şekillerine nasıl etki ettiği hakkındaki fikirlerini etkilediğini ortaya koymuştur. Bulgular devlet okullarındaki yabancı diller yüksekokullarında çalışan öğretim görevlilerinin mesleki öğrenmeleri noktasında okul dışı uzmanlarla çalışmayı tercih ederken, vakıf okullarındaki yabancı diller yüksekokullarında çalışan öğretim görevlilerinin çoğunlukla kurum içi kaynak ve kişilerle çalışmayı tercih ettiğini ve uygulayıcı topluluk özelliği taşıdığını göstermiştir. Bununla birlikte, sonuçlar tüm öğretim görevlilerinin mesleki öğrenmelerinin öğrencileri ile çalışmalarını, meslektaşları ile olan çalışmalarından farklı olarak, kesin ve çoğunlukla olumlu bir şekilde etkilediğini düşündüğünü göstermiştir.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Purpose of the study	4
1.2 Research questions	6
1.3 Significance of the study	7
1.4 Structure of the thesis	9
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	10
2.1 Situated learning theory	10
2.2 Workplace learning	14
2.3 Teachers' continuing professional development (CPD)	19
2.4 Teacher learning change models	35
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY	43
3.1 Research design	43
3.2 Participants	45
3.3 Data collection instruments	49
3.4 Pilot study	52
3.5 Data analysis techniques	64
3.6 Merging pilot data into the main data analysis	70
CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS	72
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION	117
5.1 Discussion	117
5.2 Conclusion	126
5.3 Limitations	129
5.4 Recommendations	130

APPENDIX A: TEACHER PROFESSIONAL LEARNING IN TURKEY 2009-2018	
.....	134
APPENDIX B: APPROVAL OF BOĞAZIÇI UNIVERSITY- INAREK/SBB	
ETHICS SUB-COMMITTEE	135
APPENDIX C: INFORMED CONSENT FORMS	136
APPENDIX D: INSTRUCTORS' SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE	138
APPENDIX E: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS PREVIOUS VERSIONS	141
APPENDIX F: ORIGINAL SUBSCALES	143
APPENDIX G: COMPARISON OF PILOT AND MAIN DATA	144
APPENDIX H: COMPARISON OF ITEM-LEVEL SURVEY RESULTS	148
REFERENCES	150

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Participants' Demographics: Gender	46
Table 2. Participants' Demographics: Status of Employment	46
Table 3. Participants' Demographics: Age and Teaching Experience	47
Table 4. Participants' Demographics: Age and Teaching Experience Compared by School Type	47
Table 5. Participants' Demographics: Highest Current Level of Education	48
Table 6. Participants' Demographics: Current Professional Role	49
Table 7. Scale Factor Analysis: "Learning in Relation to Instructional Practice"	55
Table 8. Scale Factor Analysis: "Sharing Collaborative Activity"	56
Table 9. Scale Factor Analysis: "Talking About and Valuing Learning"	57
Table 10. Scale Factor Analysis: "Teachers' Role in the Learning Process"	58
Table 11. Scale Factor Analysis: "Consulting Different Sources of Knowledge" ...	59
Table 12. Scale Item-Total Statistics: "Consulting Different Sources of Knowledge"	59
Table 13. Summary of Quantitative Statistics	66
Table 14. Cronbach's α Values for Pilot and Main Data	71
Table 15. Paired Samples <i>T</i> -Test for Orientations to Learning: All Participants	74
Table 16. Paired Samples <i>T</i> -Test for Orientations to Learning: Schools Compared..	75
Table 17. Summary of Intercorrelations, Means and Standard Deviations for Value and Practice Scores: Schools Compared	76
Table 18. Top Three Professional Development Activity: Quantitative Results	79
Table 19. Top Three Professional Development Activity: Qualitative Results	80

Table 20. Paired Samples <i>T</i> -Test for Learning Activities: All Participants	84
Table 21. Summary of Intercorrelations, Means and Standard Deviations for Instructors' Values and Practices of Professional Learning Activities: All Participants	86
Table 22. Summary of Intercorrelations, Means and Standard Deviations for Instructors' Values and Practices of Professional Learning Activities: Schools Compared	87
Table 23. Summary of Learning Activities with High Value-Low Practice Scores Learning Activities (High Value-Low Practice): $r \geq .3$	88
Table 24. Top Three Influential Factors on Instructors' Professional Learning	93
Table 25. Factors Supporting Instructors' Professional Learning	97
Table 26. Factors Hindering Instructors' Professional Learning (Barriers)	100
Table 27. The Perceived-Influence of Instructors' Professional Learning on Their Colleagues	106
Table 28. The Perceived-Influence of Instructors' Professional Learning on Their Students	111
Table 29. Expansive Learning Activities for Instructors Working at a State School	122
Table 30. Expansive Learning Activities for Instructors Working at a Foundation School.....	123

LIST OF APPENDIX TABLES

Table F1. Original Survey Subscales and Relevant Items	143
Table G1. Participants’ Demographics: Descriptive Statistics (Pilot Data)	144
Table G2. Participants’ Demographics: Descriptive Statistics (Main Data)	144
Table G3. Participants’ Demographics: Gender (Pilot Data)	144
Table G4. Participants’ Demographics: Gender (Main Data)	144
Table G5. Participants’ Demographics: Type of School Employed at (Pilot Data).....	144
Table G6. Participants’ Demographics: Type of School Employed at (Main Data).....	144
Table G7. Participants’ Demographics: Status of Employment (Pilot Data)	145
Table G8. Participants’ Demographics: Status of Employment (Main Data)	145
Table G9. Participants’ Demographics: Current Role of Work (Pilot Data)	145
Table G10. Participants’ Demographics: Current Role of Work (Main Data)	145
Table G11. Scale Reliability Statistics: “Learning in relation to instructional practice” (Pilot Data)	146
Table G12. Scale Reliability Statistics: “Learning in relation to instructional practice” (Main Data)	146
Table G13. Scale Reliability Statistics: “Consulting different sources of knowledge” (Pilot Data)	146
Table G14. Scale Reliability Statistics: “Consulting different sources of knowledge” (Main Data)	146
Table G15. Scale Reliability Statistics: “Sharing collaborative activity” (Pilot Data)	146

Table G16. Scale Reliability Statistics: “Sharing collaborative activity” (Main Data)	147
Table G17. Scale Reliability Statistics: “Talking about and valuing learning” (Pilot Data)	147
Table G18. Scale Reliability Statistics: “Talking about and valuing learning” (Main Data)	147
Table G19. Scale Reliability Statistics: “Exploring teacher’s role in the learning process” (Pilot Data)	147
Table G20. Scale Reliability Statistics: “Exploring teacher’s role in the learning process” (Main Data)	147
Table H1. Item-Level Survey Results for State Schools	148
Table H2. Item-Level Survey Results for Foundation Schools	149

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Teacher orientation to learning	27
Figure 2. An implicit model of the purpose of teacher professional development ...	37
Figure 3. A linear model of teacher change	37
Figure 4. A cyclic model of teacher change	41
Figure 5. The influence of orientation to learning on teacher learning change	41



CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Scholars are asserting their concerns pertaining to the ineffectiveness of traditional professional development (PD) activities as numerous educational reform movements are reported not to have forged major changes pertaining to teachers' teaching habits and routines (Jacobs, Heibert, Givvin, Hollingsworth, Garnier & Wearne, D. 2006; Rousseau, 2004; Spillane & Zeuli, 1999; Warfield, Wood & Lehman, 2005).

Researchers working on school reform have noted teacher professional development as an important predictive of learning change and as an eminent link between student performance and set standards (Grossman, Wineburg & Woolworth, 2001; Richardson & Placier, 2001). However, due to little consultation of and attention to what it is that individual teachers need to make changes in their classrooms (Elmore, 2007; Fullan, Hill, & Crevola, 2006; Little, 2001); teachers are still offered professional development practices that are obsolete, which neither yields enriched knowledge and improved practice for the teachers nor provides better learning for students.

It is claimed that current professional development practices have been unsuccessful, particularly in bringing about long-lasting change in teachers' practices and behaviors (Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 1999; Fullan, Hill & Crevloa, 2006). Most researchers agree on the proposal that one-size-fits-all method of teacher education does not lead to quality professional development. To illustrate, several researchers and advocates in the field of education (Darling-Hammond & Richardson, 2009; Hill, 2009; Merriam, Caffarella & Baumgartner, 2007) agreed that

a noticeable number of teachers continue to suffer from insufficient, unproductive, and mediocre traditional professional development opportunities. Further, Chappuis, Chappuis, and Stiggins (2009) characterized traditional quick-fix professional development workshops as ineffective, unproductive and inefficient. These researchers explained that such workshops do not support teachers in transferring attained learning from the workshop to the classroom because of (a) the coverage of an excessive amount of content in a single session; (b) an environment which fails to address diverse needs; (c) the one-size-fits-all perspective that expects teachers to “sit and get” information; (d) the lack of reflection of any form, which limits teachers in putting learning into action; and (e) the deficiency in providing constant support and transmission of learning.

Webster-Wright (2009) claims that one major drawback of traditional conceptualization of professional development is that it regards teachers as deficient professionals who are to be developed and directed. For instance, seminars, in-service days, conferences, and graduate coursework -as examples of traditional professional development activities- conceptualize teachers as lacking and therefore requiring development. In such a conventional conceptualization of professional development, the common expectation from teachers is to participate in PD activities to receive knowledge and to fill a perceived deficit or gap between their actual practice and what the research says is best practice (Webster-Wright, 2009). The motive of such an expectation is to familiarize teachers with theory so as to prepare them for the challenge of linking their instructional experience with the prescribed knowledge (Eraut, 2004). However, the lack of link or connection to teachers’ already existing knowledge obtained through practical experience widens the gap between theory and teachers’ practice. Such a gap impedes teachers from

restructuring their notions of classroom practice based on what they already know, which ultimately results in detached, incoherent, and therefore; minimally executed professional knowledge (Eraut, 1994).

Altering day-to-day in-class practices of teachers was reported to be an ongoing challenge related to teacher professional development (Hiebert, 2013 as cited in Webel & Platt, 2015) because most PD for teachers is criticized and defined as one-size fits-all and disjointed (Borko, 2004) because teachers' previous knowledge and students' learning needs are ignored (Darling-Hammond, 2009; Lieberman & Mace, 2008; Snow-Renner & Lauer, 2006; Wei et al., 2009). It is also critiqued for employing obsolete teaching methodologies which may not address particular needs of teachers and their students at hand (Borko, 2004; Wei et al., 2009) although embracing teachers' needs could potentially have an impact on their classroom practice (Knowles, Holton & Swanson, 2005). Therefore, it is emphasized that teachers are adult learners who possess distinctive professional development needs pertaining to knowledge, their self-concept, previous experiences, personal motivations for and orientations to learning.

That is why it is argued that one major step to reframe teacher PD is to highlight learning in teachers' immediate environment rather than disjoint development (Webster-Wright, 2009). Dewey also maintained that teachers themselves are active agents of their own process of development as they are no mere "spectators" observing the experience (Garrison, 2006, p. 20).

That is, teacher learning is no longer regarded as a quondam process of providing prescribed teaching techniques or processes through teacher training or periodic staff development workshops (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999). This constructivist view of teacher learning (Dewey, 1933; Eraut, 2004) revolves around

the essential query of how teachers learn rather than what knowledge teachers may receive (Eraut, 1994, 2004; Webster-Wright, 2009). That is, how teachers learn and make meaning of PD is greatly influenced by how they participate in the process, how they are positioned, and what role they play (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). To conclude, recent conceptualization of teachers' learning is holistic; it cannot be separated from actual experience (Dewey, 1933) and relevant context.

1.1 Purpose of the study

Educational scholars noted teachers' workplace learning as a substantial factor in professional growth of teachers (Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2005; Retallick, 1999) and concluded that professional learning opportunities need to be contextualized in teachers' classrooms or schools; embodying their classroom environment and promoting active and collegial involvement on the part of teachers (Garet, Porter, Andrew, & Desimone, 2001). Hence, in this particular study instructors' workplace and related dynamics are conceptualized as their learning contexts (Meirink, Meijer, & Verloop, 2007).

According to Wilson and Demetriou (2007, p. 214) "teacher learning is shaped through a combination of reciprocity between the context of the particular school setting, and an individual teacher's interest and disposition to learn about practice". Therefore, this study will analyze "teachers' orientation to learning; beliefs, practice and experiences about learning and its relationship to teacher learning and change" (Opfer, Pedder, and Lavicza, 2011, p. 444). Teachers' learning orientation is conceptualized in a framework identifying four different orientations: "internal orientation to learning, external orientation to learning, research orientation to learning, and collaborative orientation to learning" (Opfer et al., 2011, p. 444).

According to Fuller et al. (2007), it is essential to study workplace learning in situ to recognize factors which have an effect on the learning environment, and therefore, on prospects for change. To apprehend instructors' learning experiences in the workplace, this study will examine a number of barriers and opportunities to learning on an 'expansive-restrictive continuum' (Fuller & Unwin, 2003, 2004, 2006). The idea of 'expansive learning' was developed by Engeström (2001), who asserts "the object of expansive learning activity is the entire activity system in which the learners are engaged. Expansive learning activity produces culturally new patterns of activity. Expansive learning at work produces new forms of work activity" (p. 139). That is, expansive environments promote learning in the workplace through further opportunities while restrictive environments are likely to impose more barriers to learning.

Fuller and Unwin (2003, 2004, 2006) extended the notion of "expansive learning" by demonstrating workplace learning dynamics on an "expansive-restrictive continuum", which, over time has been further developed into a varied version. Hodkinson and Hodkinson (2005) classify some important characteristics of an expansive learning environment in an educational workplace setting as follows: "close collaborative working, colleagues mutually supportive in enhancing teacher learning, an explicit focus on learning, as a dimension of normal working practices, out-of-school educational opportunities including time to stand back, reflect and think differently, opportunities to participate in more than one working group, opportunity to extend professional identity through boundary crossing into other departments, school activities, schools and beyond, support for local variation in ways of working and learning for teachers and work, groups and teachers' use of a wide range of opportunities to engage in learning activities" (p. 124).

Ultimately, the aim of this study is to identify factors and forms of learning activities which seem to support an “expansive learning environment “along with those which result in a more “restrictive learning environment” (Fuller & Unwin, 2004; Fuller et al., 2007; Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2005) and if they lead to self-reported teacher change.

1.2 Research questions

The main research question with four sub questions (adapted from Feeney, 2011, p. 7) addressed in this study is:

What are EFL instructors’ orientations towards professional learning in their workplace?

- a) What forms of learning activities they value and practice?
- b) What are the differences between instructors’ perceptions of self-reported learning practices and beliefs about these practices?
- c) What factors do they believe affect their professional learning?
- d) How do they believe their professional learning affect the way they work with;
 - i. their colleagues,
 - ii. their students?

1.3 Significance of the study

Researchers working in the field of teacher education have long focused on how to provide learning experiences which are effective enough to revolutionize teachers' instructional practice in the classroom (Putnam & Borko, 2000) since professional development that does not initiate a change in practice and improve student

outcomes was reported insufficient (Rickey, 2008). Peixotto and Fager stated that “lessons from research are explicit, challenges and questions remain. A significant challenge is to put these lessons into action” (1998, p.6). That is, in order for teacher learning change to happen, the mere provision of professional development opportunities does not suffice. What matters is the availability of PD activities which could assist teachers to overcome the challenge of implementing target skills and changing their beliefs and instructional practices in the classroom accordingly.

A discontent pertaining to the prevailing theoretical conceptualization of learning, which Beckett and Hager (2002) refer to as the ‘standard paradigm’ has been the driving force behind this study. The asocial character of conventional learning theory limits one’s ability to elucidate how people learn participating in informal learning settings (Billet, 1996a; Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2005; Sandholtz & Scribner, 2006) and, to date, the link between teacher beliefs and teachers’ attendance in continuous PD has not been empirically investigated as research on these two areas remained discrete (Opfer & Pedder, 2011).

Ultimately, any research that demonstrates a better way to change teacher practice is deemed necessary, given the failed efforts of professional development initiatives to bring about significant changes in the instructional practices of different teachers to date (OECD, 2009; Rousseau, 2004; Spillane & Zeuli, 1999). Thus, Opfer Opfer et al. (2011), in their leading study of teacher learning orientation and change, analyzed 1126 British teachers’ professional development processes through path-analysis and deduced that “teachers bring an orientation to their professional learning and this orientation contributes significantly to whether teacher professional change results from that learning” (p. 444). Their proposal is confirmed by a later study conducted by Feeney (2016) who used their conception and theory as the

groundwork of his research to study any existent relationship between teacher learning orientation and supportive dynamics of learning context. To the best of my knowledge, this work, however, has never been extended to research done in Turkey over the last ten years (see Appendix A) on the continuous professional development of instructors of English working in a schools of languages of Turkish state and foundation universities. Therefore, the aim of this study is to identify factors and forms of learning activities that appear to reinforce an expansive learning environment as well as those which lead to a more restrictive learning environment (Fuller & Unwin, 2004; Fuller et al., 2007; Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2005) in schools of languages.

This study may benefit education institutions and education practitioners as school change and PD must begin with classroom changes if any lasting improvement in classroom practice is going to occur (Fullan, 2006). This is especially true for those institutions catering to teacher education, as training opportunities can be improved to take teachers' orientation to learning into account, based on its relationship to teacher change. These findings, therefore, may address PD problems that contend due to the fact that current CPD activities are not able to "penetrate the classroom door" (Fullan, 2006, p. 57) and that "current (professional development) strategies are not getting at the core of improving instructional practice in the classroom" (Elmore, as cited in Fullan, 2006, p.57).

Scholars and the academic community may also benefit from the outcomes of this study, which provide empirically-based information on teacher's orientation to learning and their influence on teacher learning change, which has not yet been explored given the current existing literature. This study can also provide areas for future research that will assist in developing the field of teacher professional

development as the need for more effective professional development has been documented in the research (Falk, 2001 as cited in Deborah, 2008; Little, 2001).

1.4 Structure of the thesis

This thesis is structured as five chapters. The second chapter is dedicated to literature review under the titles of (a) situated learning theory, (b) workplace learning, (c) teachers' continuing professional development (CPD) and (d) teacher learning change models. The third chapter provides the information on methodology, research design, research settings, research participants, data collection tools and procedures and finally data analysis techniques. The fourth chapter summarizes the findings of the data collection and data analysis pertaining to (i) the demographics of participants and (ii) the discussion of findings. The fifth chapter concludes the thesis study, including conclusions, limitations and recommendations directed towards practicing instructors, professional development developers and providers, and researchers.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The review of the literature elaborated below is meant to afford a conceptual framework to study teachers' learning situated in practice in relationship to teachers' orientation to learning (Opfer et al., 2011); contextual factors and conditions which affect how teachers participate in learning (Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2005); and structures of the environment pertaining to the workplace dynamics providing opportunities (expansive) for or imposing barriers (restrictive) to learning (Engeström, 2001; Fuller et al., 2007).

2.1 Situated learning theory

There has been a growing dissatisfaction pertaining to the asocial characteristics of conventional learning theory since it has neglected the nature of learning processes, types of knowledge and skills gained outside of formal educational institutions or training events (Fuller, Hodkinson, Hodkinson, & Unwin, 2005; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Smith, 2003). As a response to such a growing discontent and as a theoretical framework to challenge the standard paradigm (Beckett & Hager, 2002), Lave and Wenger (1991) proposed a situated view of learning based on principles of very different disciplines. The term "situated" entails a set of theoretical perspectives and research rooted in several disciplines such as social anthropology (Lave & Wenger, 1991), sociology and psychology (Tochon, 2000; Edwards, 2001).

Situated view of learning, with its inherent social perspective, conceptualizes learning in the daily experiences; that is, an individual's capacity to participate, to belong, and to make meaning could be altered via participation in learning.

Vygotsky, who claimed that learning is primarily social in nature (1978, 1987), set the basis for such a sociocultural approach to understanding human action. He claimed that learning entails not only the interaction with other individuals but also the one with the sociocultural situation along with the norms of interactions, traditions, values, and beliefs which are embraced in that social and cultural setting. That is, according to Vygotsky (1978), acquiring knowledge and negotiating meaning moves from the social to the individual as human beings constantly negotiate with each other. Thereby, sociocultural approach explains the relationships between human actions within the historical, institutional, and cultural settings in which that action occurs (Wertsch, 1998).

Lave and Wenger (1991) based their conceptualization of situated learning on the idea of apprenticeship; not as a pedagogical strategy but as a theory to comprehend learning. That is, they depict situated learning as “participation in a community of practice” (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 98). According to Wenger (1998), a community of practice defines itself along three dimensions:

What it is about; a joint enterprise as understood and continually renegotiated by its members; how it functions: a mutual engagement that bind members together into a social entity; what capability it has produced: The shared repertoire of communal resources (routines, sensibilities, artifacts, vocabulary, styles, etc.) that members have developed over time. (Wenger, 1998, p. 73)

That is, what constitutes a community of practice is “not just the technical knowledge or skill required to fulfill a certain task but it is its members’ engaging in a set of relationships over time” (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 98). In other words, members of “a community of practice” develop a sense of mutual enterprise and shared identity as they engage in some specific area of knowledge and activity.

Hence, a community of practice entails shared practice, as a common way of performing and dealing with things, among its members to a certain extent (Smith, 2003).

Lave and Wenger's (1991) ground-breaking analysis pertaining to the social, and therefore; situated nature of learning later improved in works by Lave (1993) and Wenger (1998), has formed the backbone of certain remarkable developments in organizational practice and lately within some schools (Rogoff, Turkonis, & Bartlett, 2001). Inspiring several teacher educators and researchers, their work has brought novel perspectives on learning and teaching. Influenced by the conventional paradigm, many teacher educators had previously advocated that educational knowledge should be simply transmitted to teachers to develop them. Lave and Wenger restated such an argument just the other way around: "learning emerges from our own actions in relation to those of others and its outcomes are socially constructed" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 95).

Although it originated from other disciplines, the conceptualization of communities of practice has been studied in different educational settings, varying from primary students to adult learners (Wenger, 1998). A situated view of learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991) guided the research on teacher professional development in challenging the way teachers work, locate themselves, and engage in the process of professional learning as a practice (Kelly, 2006). By engaging in communities of practice teachers are believed to "collaborate to develop new knowledge and to develop and learn about new resources" (Hildreth & Kimble, 2008, p. x); therefore, communities of practice is indispensable for schools to facilitate teachers' learning and development process. That is why in recent teacher professional development endeavors, the relationship between what is learned in the classroom and what is

needed outside of the classroom has been emphasized to locate teachers' learning within their immediate social and professional environment.

To exemplify, it is recognized that an expansive learning environment offer “teachers with a wide range of learning opportunities both inside and outside the work environment” (Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2005, p.124). The situation of co-participation (Lave & Wenger, 1991), provided by the expansive learning environment, helps teachers to engage in a mutual learning process rather than merely acquiring certain forms of knowledge prescribed by others (Kearney, 2015).

Therefore, teachers' learning in a community of practice involves active participation, which “refers not just to local events of engagement in certain activities with certain people, but to a more encompassing process of being active participants in the practices of social communities and constructing identities in relation to these communities” (Wenger 1999, p. 4). Based on the principles of Lave and Wenger's (1991) situated learning theory, it could be argued that the more teachers interact together on a regular basis for a common goal, the better they learn how to achieve better results.

Wenger conceptualized a community of practice within three essential qualities: “(1) mutual engagement, (2) a joint enterprise, and (3) a shared repertoire” (1998, p. 73). That is, the collegial interaction and collaboration among teachers help them to develop similar learning beliefs. Over time, teachers, as members of the collective community, better cooperate to articulate the knowledge and role assignments of the members of the community, which shapes collective practices among teachers as a more natural rather than a deliberate stance over time.

Within such a community, teacher learning is not just restricted to “limited understanding of, responsibility for, and participation in the practice” (Feeney, 2011,

p. 31) but it requires increasing levels of comprehension, contribution, and accountability on part of the teachers. Such learning happens irrespective of “whether intentional teaching is part of the individual’s experience in the community” (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 40). Retallick also concludes that “teachers’ workplace learning is a recognizable form of professional learning...which extends the boundaries of what is normally regarded as legitimate professional development” (1999, p. 49). Although teachers are provided with opportunities for collaborative work in certain educational institutions, what might aggravate the difficulties of teachers’ workplace learning is that “the current structures (e.g., work schedules) rarely allow for deep engagement in joint efforts to improve instruction and learning” (Wei et al., 2010, p. vi).

To summarize, key concepts pertaining to situated learning theory and communities of practices (Lave & Wenger, 1991) are “domain, community, practice, identity, and learning”. The notion “communities of practice” puts emphasis on the idea that individuals who negotiate meaning consistently concerning a shared aim acquire the necessary skills to achieve better results. Lave and Wenger’s (1991) situated learning theory emphasizes that learning and collaboration should occur naturally without imposed constraints, which makes it worthy to study how teachers interact and collaborate in expansive learning settings to learn.

2.2 Workplace learning

Many researchers have agreed on the premise that there is a growing need for critical analysis of the workplace as a site of learning and how the nature of such learning is characterized by the dynamic context of workplace (Billet, 2004; Fuller et al., 2007; Hawke, 1998; Unwin et al., 2007). From socio-cultural (Kelly, 2006; Rogoff, 1995;

Lave & Wenger, 1991) and anthropological perspectives (Lave, 1993; Pelissier, 1991), participation in workplace activities are found to have strong relations to learning when it is contextualized in practice. The cognitive-constructivist perspective (Anderson, 1993; Shuell, 1990) also confirms that what sets the basis for learning and problem-solving is engagement in goal-directed activity (Smith, 2003). That is, when individuals take part in goal-directed activities, which are social in nature, their learning is believed to be facilitated through reinforcement or refinement of what they have already known (Billet, 2004) since “workplace learning has features which may distinguish it from other forms of professional learning; it is task-focused, it is collaborative and it often grows out of experience or problem” (Retallick, 1999, p. 34).

Embracing earlier arguments of situated learning theory and adopting a social-constructivist approach, Eraut (2004) conceptualizes the nature of knowledge (or knowing) depending on whether an individual or social perspective exists. Sfard (1998) refers to the individual perspective of learning as “learning as acquisition” while referring to the social perspective of learning as “learning as participation”. He argues that through “learning as acquisition”, context-independent knowledge is acquired and stored in individuals’ minds (Beckett & Hager, 2002) whereas through “learning as participation”, knowledge (and knowing) is produced by active participation in practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

Felstead (et al., 2005) conducted a survey research to understand the nature of knowledge at work, to better conceptualize any existent connection between formal and informal sources of learning, and to observe whether such sources are helpful in improving work. Based on the findings, he concluded that employees perceive

“learning through everyday practice” (Billet, 1996b) as the most effective medium of learning as it facilitates their work.

In addition, Fuller and Unwin (2003, 2004) proposed that organizations, as learning environments, are different in nature pertaining to how they create and manage learning, and therefore, it is essential to study workplace learning in context so as to better conceptualize factors which affect the learning environment and possibilities for learning change (Fuller et al., 2007). Investigating learning in diverse workplace contexts and extending Engeström’s (2001) concept of “expansive learning”, Fuller and Unwin (2003) proposed a conceptual framework which acknowledged a variety of organizational and pedagogical factors that could be placed on the “expansive-restrictive continuum”; “expansive environments create opportunities for learning in the workplace, while restrictive environments tend to exhibit more barriers to learning” (Fuller et al., 2007, p. 744). It was concluded that expansive learning environments not only foster learning in the workplace but also facilitate the integration of individual and organizational improvement.

In a parallel study, Evans et al. (2006) reinforced these findings and furthered the discussion to suggest that the extent to which an individual engages in learning varies from one person to another. That is, how an individual respond to learning opportunities offered by the workplace is determined by “their learning territory which is based on individual backgrounds, previous educational experiences, and aspirations” (Fuller et al., 2007, p. 744). According to Billet (2004), to better understand how learning situated in practice can progress; the mutuality between how individuals participate in learning and the opportunities provided in their work is to be studied.

Workplace learning is considered as a central constituent of teachers' professional development process (Retallick, 1999; Meirink et al., 2009). Therefore, the concept of "expansive learning" (Engeström, 2001) in relationship to workplace learning plays an important role when analyzing the features of effective PD (Birman et al., 2000; Garet et al., 2001). Agreeing with the proposal, Fuller and Unwin (2003) suggested that it is vital to examine teachers' practice and learning in context so as to capture the factors which impact the learning setting and opportunities for teacher learning change. Hodkinson and Hodkinson (2005) claimed that constructing and reassuring more "expansive features of teachers' learning environments" is one of the most effective ways to improve teachers' learning (Fuller & Unwin, 2003, 2004).

Lohman (2005) studied the factors which affect workers' involvement in informal workplace learning activities. Comparing two professional groups, he established that teachers construct meaning and learn from self-initiated activities in the workplace. In other studies, with similar efforts, researchers got teachers to specify types of learning activities they participated and which activities contributed to their professional development as a consequence (Kwakman, 1999; Lohman & Woolf, 2001; Van Eekelen, Boshuizen, & Vermunt, 2005). From these studies, five general categories of learning activities which support the importance of workplace learning activities were identified: "1) doing; 2) experimentation; 3) reflection on experiences; 4) learning from others without interaction; and 5) learning from others with interaction" (Meirink et al., 2009).

Two other studies, conducted by Kwakman (2003), focusing on teacher workplace learning set the basis of an empirical model for teacher learning. In this model, factors which affect teachers' professional learning in the workplace were conceptualized under two main domains: "personal factors and contextual factors;

personal factors are reported to include that of “professional attitudes, appraisals of feasibility and meaningfulness, emotional exhaustion, and loss of personal accomplishment” (Kwakman, 2003, p. 156). Contextual factors are further divided into two separate categories as “task factors” and “work environment factors”; within these subcategories, five task factors and three work environment factors were recognized. While task factors refer to “pressure at work, emotional demands, job variety, autonomy, and participation; work environment factors comprise management support, collegial support, and intentional learning support” (Kwakman, 2003, p. 158).

The variety of such factors is reported to validate the conceptualization of workplace as a complex learning environment (Clardy, 2000; Hustler et al., 2003; Kwakman, 2003; Retallick, 1999; Scribner, 1999). Teachers, departments and schools vary in features affecting teacher learning, therefore, some tend to be more expansive while the others are more likely to be restrictive to an extent (Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2005). Acknowledging such differences, Hodkinson and Hodkinson (2005) listed certain central “features of an expansive learning environment” for teachers (Fuller & Unwin, 2003, 2004, 2006) as it follows:

- Close collaborative working,
- Colleagues mutually supportive in enhancing teacher learning,
- An explicit focus on learning, as a dimension of normal working practices,
- Out-of-school educational opportunities including time to stand back reflect and think differently,
- Opportunities to participate in more than one working group,
- Opportunity to extend professional identity through boundary crossing into other departments, school activities, schools and beyond,
- Support for local variation in ways of working and learning for teachers and work groups,
- Teachers’ use of a wide range of opportunities to engage in learning activities. (p. 124)

Therefore, it can be proposed that PD programs for teachers need to be situated in the workplace and provide many and varied opportunities for teachers to engage in learning activities, which has been reported to facilitate professional development (Birman et al., 2000; Darling-Hammond et al., 2009; Garet et al., 2001). Billett (2002) proposes that “considerations of learning, learning in workplaces and the development of a workplace pedagogy need conceptualizing in terms of participatory practices” (p. 56). Similarly, learning activities which encourage teachers to cooperate in teams are mostly anticipated to promote a very powerful and expansive learning environment (Fuller et al., 2007) for teachers (Grossman, Wineburg & Woolworth, 2001; Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2005; Little, 2002; Vescio et al., 2008).

2.3 Teachers’ continuing professional development (CPD)

Several terms have been used in relevant literature to refer to teachers’ professional development, such as professional development, continuing education, lifelong learning, in-service education and training, teacher development, staff development, career development, and human resource development (Bolam & McMahon, 2004). Such terms often bear corresponding connotations and are defined varyingly by diverse authors. Guskey (2002), for instance, frames PD programs as “systematic efforts to bring about change in the classroom practices of teachers, in their attitudes and beliefs, and in the learning outcomes of students” (p. 381).

In this study, a working definition which was provided by Day (1999) is adopted since it embodies the functions of CPD, the relationship between relevant stakeholders, and activities, which are listed to be the distinct but interconnected facets of CPD (Vries, Jansen, & Van de Grift, 2013):

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

CPD for teachers may serve varied functions as it could be aimed at maintenance of, improvement of or change in the facets of teachers (Day & Sachs, 2004). That is why, CPD is acknowledged as an essential mean to increase teacher quality, and in turn, to improve schools and facilitate student learning (Day, 1999; Opfer & Pedder, 2011). Due to its nature and function, teacher CPD is expected to be a career-long process, which is job-embedded and learner-focused (Vries, Van de Grift & Jansen, 2013). Over the course of their career, teachers develop actively and voluntarily by taking part in both formal and informal activities (Day, 1999; Feiman-Nemser, 2001) with a sustained emphasis on a specific content, such as “subject matter, general pedagogical knowledge, or pedagogical content knowledge” (Park & Oliver, 2008). Therefore, involvement in various CPD activities is mentioned to be indispensable for teachers to grow professionally (Bolhuis, 2009; Schraw, 1998; Timperley & Alton-Lee, 2008).

Teacher CPD activities are classified under three subcategories: 1) updating knowledge and skills, 2) reflection, and 3) collaboration with colleagues (Schraw, 1998; Timperley, Wilson, Barrar, & Fung, 2007). First of all, having completed their pre-service education, teachers expand their practical knowledge via actual classroom experience and teaching practice, yet the theoretic data base that they possess necessitates continual and deliberate updates to keep up with advances and

novelties pertaining to societal and educational issues. Cheetham and Chivers (2001) added that updating knowledge and skills affords teachers with the crucial professional knowledge and theory, therefore, sets the essential basis for certain follow-up professional activities such as reflection and collaboration. That is, a satisfactory level of theoretical knowledge is deemed crucial for a teacher to reflect on their proficiency in a meaningful way (Van de Ven, 2009; Verloop, 2001). Therefore, to update their knowledge and skills after concluding their initial schooling and to grow professionally, it is important for teachers' to recite professional literature (e.g. new textbooks, educational web sites and online courses) and advance their schooling via extensive study (e.g. training through courses, workshops and conferences and mentoring and collaboration in or outside school).

Second, reflective CPD activities entail reflection which requires teachers to engage in a particular way of thinking to face a confusing or probing position (problem) and apprehend it better (Dewey, 1933). Schön (1983) calls this particular way of thinking "reflection-on-action" and defines it as a "deliberate process developed and used to reconsider existing knowledge, beliefs, possibilities, ideas, and actions" (p. 68). Reflective practice, which is an individual thought process in its traditional sense, is believed to work better when (a) teachers receive feedback given by their colleagues or students, and (b) they act on such feedback through practical research, as an individual or joint effort of coworkers (Ponte, 2002). Reflective activities are cited to be indispensable for CPD (Cheetham and Chivers, 2001; Eraut, 1994; Schön, 1983) since they motivate teachers to realize and verbalize their tacit beliefs and knowledge. Explicit beliefs and knowledge acquired through a reflective process are suggested to provide teachers with cognitive tools they need to regulate

instructional practices in the classroom and make required modifications to those actions, when deemed necessary (Schön, 1983).

Third, collaborative CPD activities are reported to yield better teaching and learning outcomes because they help teachers to overcome the effects of stress and develop confidence as they collaborate with their colleagues (Cheetham & Chivers, 2001; Cordingley et al., 2005; Levine & Marcus, 2010; Westheimer, 2008). Such CPD activities for teachers are categorized into two as “exchange activities (e.g. discussing teaching problems, exchanging instructional materials and professional collaboration (e.g. developing educational materials and team teaching)” (OECD, 2009). When teachers engage in teamwork, they receive feedback from their coworkers, face challenges and develop new understandings (Kwakman, 2003; Putnam & Borko, 2000).

In the existent research on effective types of teachers’ CPD, all three activity types have been reported to be productive in terms of improving teacher quality and their practices (Cheetham & Chivers, 2001; Timperley et al., 2007). Nevertheless, involvement in various CPD activities which address comprehensive lesson-related content such as subject matter, pedagogics, and pedagogical content knowledge (Van Veen et al., 2010) is reported to be crucial (Bolhuis, 2009; Timperley et al., 2007). Although all types of CPD activities are thought to be effective for teacher development, research on professional development constantly emphasize that many programs were not effective (Cohen & Hill, 2000; Jacobs et al., 2006; Rousseau, 2004; Warfield, Wood, & Lehman, 2005).

The common failure in providing teachers with fruitful and meaningful learning experiences was attributed to the fact that traditional professional development programs are inadequately structured to address the needs of teachers as

adult learners (Croft, Coggshall, Dolan, & Powers, 2010). This inadequacy could stem from numerous factors; however, it has been argued that many programs fail to realize their aims since they do not account for two decisive causes: “(1) what motivates teachers to engage in professional development, and (2) the process by which change in teachers typically occurs” (Guskey, 2002, p. 382).

Fullan (1982) also suggested that many CPD programs disregard the processes which teachers go through in the course of learning change. That is, approaches embraced by most professional development programs do not reflect the process of teacher learning change. Due to this understanding, an increasing number of research has been dedicated to determine what features of CPD practices and activities help teachers to yield change in their cognitive, affective and behavioral tendencies. At large, teacher learning change is expected if teachers are provided more and better (Opfer et al., 2011, p. 445): “field (classroom-based) experiences, opportunities for reflection, opportunities for understanding oneself in a secure environment under challenging or novel circumstances, applied knowledge about teaching and learning, collaboration with other teachers and research led or research informed learning activities”.

Such comprehensive criteria clarify that teacher learning tends to happen when instructional activities for teachers posit a strong coordination between conceptual and practical knowledge and consistency among programs and activities (Feiman-Neimser, 1985). That is, teachers need time to cultivate, captivate, debate, and most importantly, to practice new knowledge (Garet et al., 2001). Since teacher beliefs are deep-rooted in personal experience and practice of teaching, it is not easy for teachers, as adult learners, to alter what they attained through action by solely relying on the provision of new knowledge by an external resource. Therefore, how

individual teachers function as adult learners needs to be considered when planning professional development for school change. Tillema (2000) reported that practice followed by reflection affected belief change positively while reflection followed by practice failed to give rise to belief change, causing unsteady change of practice.

However, it is important for teacher professional development to end in action since when teachers do not implement change, CPD efforts “rarely penetrate deeply into the classroom” (Fullan, Hill & Crevola, 2006, p. 42). Therefore, conventional learning settings such as one-time workshops and conferences, which were labelled as “style shows” by Ball (1994), are not expected to yield teacher learning change (Hawley & Valli, 1999) because such settings do not treat teachers as adult learners and do not help them to implement change in their workplace (Elmore, 2007; Little, 2001).

Comparing the traditional one-size-fits-all or one-time workshops with learner-centered teacher professional development, Diaz-Maggioli (2004) argued that the latter might possibly meet teacher needs as it affords teachers with various opportunities to cooperate, grow, possess, and exercise their instructional knowledge, skills and attitudes pertaining to their professional development. To exemplify, experienced teachers differ from novice teachers in that veteran teachers engage in professional learning as individuals with rich experiences and theories about pedagogics, learning processes, the best existing practices, and what factors contribute to the achievement of desired content and outcomes (Timperley et al., 2007). That is why, it is highlighted that teacher professional development needs to be learner-centered which takes individual and contextual differences among teachers into account.

To conclude, three main types of CPD activities are categorized as “updating knowledge and skills, reflection, and collaboration with colleagues” (Timperley et al., 2007); reflection, in particular, has been reported as vital for teacher change and professional growth (Eraut, 1994). While one-size-fits-all tactic to teacher education has been reported to be unproductive (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009; Hill, 2009, Merriam et al., 2007), learner-centered CPD forms are reported to be promising because they take individual and contextual differences, motivators among teachers and teacher learning process into consideration (Guskey, 2002; Opfer et al., 2011).

2.3.1 Teachers’ orientation to professional learning

According to Wilson and Demetriou (2007) “teacher learning is shaped through a combination of reciprocity between the context of the particular school setting, and an individual teacher’s interest and disposition to learn about practice” (p. 214).

Similarly, Knowles (1980) stressed that (a) adults come to the learning environment with a myriad of experiences, which are fundamental to their learning; and (b) they are predisposed as to what they want to learn. Therefore, the theory of adult learning, andragogy (Knowles, 1984, 1990), offers “useful insights about motivational and instructional strategies that can be effective with experienced professionals” (Tallerico, 2005, p. 55).

Accordingly, Knowles (1980) made the claim that adult learning programs ought to accommodate the following six principles or suppositions: “need to know; learners’ self-concept; previous experience; readiness to learn; orientation to learning; and motivation to learn” (Knowles et al, 2005). Among the theoretical components that apply directly to teacher professional development are: “integration of experience, learning style variation, choice and self-direction” (Tallerico, 2005, p.

55). Therefore, it can be concluded that teacher professional development aiming teacher learning is to focus more on personal traits and individual needs of teachers (Burns & Dimock, 2007).

It is argued that teachers bring not only past experience but also beliefs to their teaching and learning (Opfer & Pedder, 2011). Researchers (Powell & Birrell, 1992; Novak & Knowles, 1992) propose that beliefs are deeply rooted in practice and teachers' beliefs reveal themselves as values and play an important role on teaching and learning practice as teachers tend to prioritize them in their instructional practice. Based on this argument, Opfer and his colleagues hypothesized that "teachers bring an orientation to their professional learning and this orientation contributes significantly to whether teacher professional learning change results from that learning" (2011, p. 444).

Teachers' orientation to learning is defined as "an integrated set of attitudes, beliefs, and practices as well as the alignment of oneself and one's ideas to circumstances and context ... learning orientations are heavily context dependent" (Opfer et al., 2011, p.444). Their model of teacher learning depicts the connection between beliefs, practices, learning and changes in practice as mutually causal and what comprises an individual teacher's orientation to learning is the interaction between these elements (Figure 1).

Such an orientation is argued to be demonstrated in (i) teachers' beliefs, (ii) teaching practices, (iii) present setting, and (iv) the learning they tend to attend. That is, it is proposed that, to a great extent, learning orientations depend on the context in which teachers work. Thus, Opfer and his colleagues (2001) accept that "while a part of teachers' orientations to learning may remain unchanged overtime, the influence of the context, the stage of career development, previous teaching experiences and

the pupils a teacher has at any given time, are primary determinants in the orientation to what, how and why they learn as professionals” (p.444).

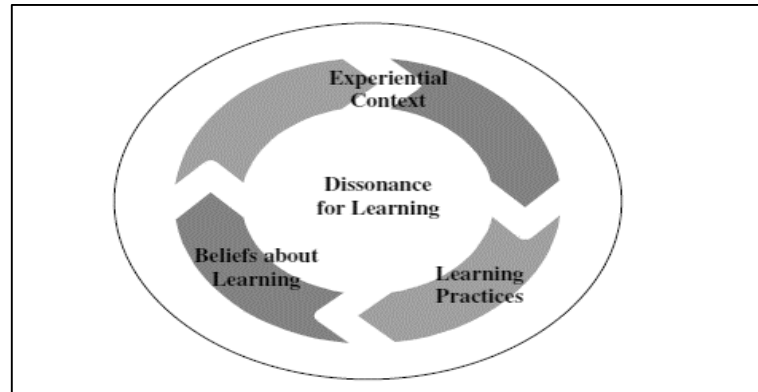


Figure 1. Teacher orientation to learning
Source: Opfer et al., 2011, p. 445

Teachers’ learning orientation is conceptualized in a framework identifying four different types of orientations as: “internal orientation to learning, external orientation to learning, research orientation to learning and collaborative orientation to learning” (Opfer et al., 2011, p. 444). Researchers (ibid.) state that different teachers may adopt an internal (reflective) or external (seeking) orientation to learning primarily. However, it is deemed necessary for teachers to set an equal balance between the practices which implicate an externally focused pursuit of novel ideas and internal reflection on teaching practice, beliefs and values.

The interconnection of values, learning methods and specific experimental settings an individual teacher possesses governs the instructional choices teachers make (Richardson, 1996), as well as what they themselves tend to learn. That is, a teacher’s learning orientation is composed of what they believe about learning in addition to how such beliefs connect with their understandings and practice as

veteran professionals and adult learners. Thereby, teachers' orientation to learning (Opfer et al., 2011) and the relationship between teacher learning and school setting as the workplace is a foundational element of this study.

2.3.2 The role of teacher beliefs in professional learning

Several factors which are teacher-specific, environmental or both are listed in the literature as possible determinants of teachers' participation in and learning through CPD (Runhaar, Sanders & Yang, 2010). One significant, yet mostly neglected, factor is noted to be beliefs held true by teachers, which are regarded as "the best indicators of the decisions individuals make throughout their lives" (Pajares, 1992, p. 307).

Pajares (1992) describes the notion of 'belief' as "an individual's judgment of the truth or falsity of a proposition, a judgment that can only be inferred from a collective understanding of what human beings say, intend, and do" (p. 316). Nisbett and Ross (1980 cited in Clark and Peterson, 1986), on the other hand, explain beliefs as rationally obvious schemes pertaining to the features of objects or classes of object; they propose that belief is a type of knowledge. Combining research from social psychology, philosophy and anthropology, Richardson (1996) proposed the following definition of beliefs:

Beliefs are thought of as psychologically held understandings, premises or propositions about the world that are thought to be true (p. 4).

Epistemological belief theory - the study of how people know things- theorizes that the way adults work and learn are indeed interconnected and what affect them are the very same underlying beliefs (Schommer, 1998). However, beliefs which are associated with learning and teaching have rarely been included in models of epistemological beliefs conceptualized by psychologists. Due to this lack

in literature, studies explicitly focusing on beliefs concerning teaching and learning have been developed in line with literature in the field of psychology and belief related to teaching and learning has been defined. Accordingly, to refer to the notion belief, several terms have been used in the field of teacher education and development: theoretical orientation (Kinzer, 1988), image (Calderhead, 1988, 1989), theoretical belief (Kinzer, 1988; Johnson, 1992; Smith, 2003), personal philosophies (Burns, 1996) philosophical orientation, and personal pedagogical system (Borg, 1998).

Research on the beliefs explicit to teaching and learning has led to proliferation of studies on teacher cognition, which is defined by Borg (2003) as “what teachers think, know, and believe and the relationships of these mental constructs to what teachers do in the classroom” (p. 81). Phipps (2010) surmises that a principal argument to emanate from the literature summarizing teacher cognition is that the way teachers think and behave is determined by “a set of beliefs which are personal, practical, systematic, dynamic and often unconscious” (p. 15).

Therefore, teachers’ own beliefs could be regarded as “the best indicators of the decisions they make throughout their lives” (Pajares, 1992, p. 307). This has aroused genuine interest in teacher education, especially pertaining to “the effects of teachers’ previous beliefs, how these beliefs are shaped, how such beliefs affect teaching, and how the very same beliefs influence teacher education” (Phipps, 2010, p. 15). As an answer to that fundamental question, Calderhead (1989) previously asserted that learning change efforts are to recognize the prominence of teachers’ beliefs. Therefore, such efforts are to be planned in a way to encourage teachers to inquire and examine their beliefs through reflection since change will be rejected unless it is harmonious with teachers’ beliefs (Cronin-Jones, 1991; Tam, 2015).

That is why, teacher beliefs are attributed considerable importance in teacher learning change process based on following reasons.

Firstly, teacher beliefs are proved to pose a powerful control over teaching and learning processes (Handal, Bobis, & Grimison, 2001; Johnson, 1992; Lovat & Smith, 1995) as they play a fundamental and long-term role on teachers' instructional activities (Borg, 2001; Johnson, 1992, 1994; Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992; Richards, 1998). Research focusing on teacher decision making processes regards beliefs and knowledge of individuals as the major determinants of teachers' actions (Borg, 2001; Johnson, 1992; Richardson & Placier, 2001; Schoenfeld, 2010).

The second reason why teacher beliefs are considered important in teacher learning and change is that teachers' beliefs about learning guide not only the instructional decisions that teachers make (Raths, 2001; Richardson, 1996) but also what learning they, as learners, themselves engage in (Opfer et al., 2011). Beliefs are not only pivotal directors of thought and deeds (Borg, 2001) but also are filters which people employ to monitor novel information and understandings for meaning (Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992). Teachers, akin to other learners, are likely to "interpret new content through their existing understandings and modify and interpret new ideas on the basis of what they already know or believe" (Kennedy, 1991, p. 661). Because teachers rely on their knowledge and beliefs related to teaching and learning as an "intuitive screen" to understand professional development activities (Buchanan, Burts, Bidner, White & Charlesworth, 1998), such beliefs can either facilitate or hinder the process of change (Prawat, 1990).

The third reason why teacher beliefs are considered important in teacher learning and change is that such beliefs tend to be ingrained and may remain influential on teachers' professional lives throughout their career (Borg, 2003). A

great body of research indicates that it is not unchallenging to alter teachers' beliefs (Block & Hazlip, 1995; Richardson & Placier, 2001; Van Driel et al, 2001), and such beliefs may indeed surpass the efforts of teacher education (Almarza, 1996). Adult learners are believed to have difficulty with change especially when they find their old assumptions challenged. Some of this reluctance stems from the fact that adult learners "derive much of their self-worth from their past experiences" (Knowles, 1980, p. 43).

For Opfer et al. (2011), beliefs relevant to teacher professional learning contain overall considerations which a teacher believes to be true pertaining to learning; thus, beliefs serve as values for teaching and learning and such values guide (a) which ideas an individual teacher holds to be true about learning in addition to (b) what kind of practice they would prioritize in their instructional decisions (p. 444). Similarly, Richards and Lockhart (1994) argue that teachers' belief systems are shaped by the aims, ethics, and opinions they possess about the context and procedure of teaching, and how teachers conceptualize the organization where they work.

Consequently, the documented significance of teacher beliefs on teacher practice and change has given rise to the studies exploring such connections. To exemplify, Burn, Hagger, Mutton, and Everton (2003), Novak and Knowles (1992), Powell and Birrell (1992) and Richards and Lockhart (1994) agreed on the premise that teachers possess approaches, values, philosophies, and understandings grounded in past experiences (as both teachers and students) and bring them to their teaching and learning, under the ruse of beliefs that shape their judgements about instructional practice. Highlighting the link between beliefs and actions, Pajares (1992) recommends that to comprehend and conceptualize teachers' beliefs, one must assess

what they say, intend, and do. When teachers hold quite different views about teaching, the methods and procedures they employ in the classroom change accordingly, which makes beliefs an important issue for the area of research on teachers' beliefs (Richards & Lockhart 1994; Woods 1998).

Likewise, many researchers argue that instructional decisions that teachers make are filtered through their beliefs (Hollingsworth 1989; Johnson, 1992; Kinzer 1988; Shavelson, Atwood & Borko 1977). According to these beliefs, while particular techniques are employed, others are disregarded; lesson plans are thought or re-structured, and resources are adopted, adapted, or ignored. The study conducted by Nespor (1987) analyzed the effects of teachers' beliefs on their instructional practices. The findings of the study suggested teachers make use of different teaching techniques which are also closely related to their beliefs about which roles the teacher and students need to take, how the responsibility should be allocated, how a lesson should be organized, and how certain issues such as motivation and discipline should be maintained. That is, teachers bring various beliefs and suppositions about the constituents of effective teaching into their class, and make their instructional decisions within those assumptions.

In addition to their own beliefs, teachers may opt for a teaching strategy based on other factors including the nature of the task and the variety of teaching strategies at their possession (Shavelson et al, 1977). All teachers have certain beliefs about the nature of their work, subject matter, students, and roles and responsibilities, yet this does not necessarily mean that they truly act upon all of their beliefs. That is, teachers' classroom practices do not always reflect their stated beliefs since teachers may have beliefs which they fail to actualize (Almarza, 1996; Barkatsas & Malone, 2005; Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Law, Wong, & Lee, 2012; Skott, 2001; Phipps, 2010).

Polly and Hannafin (2011) claim that discrepancies may exist between teachers' "espoused practices" (what teachers report they do) and their "enacted practices" (what they actually demonstrate or do during classroom teaching). Such inconsistencies between teacher beliefs and actual practices have been reported by studies from varied disciplines, such as science (Beyer & Davis, 2008), literacy (Sverdlov, Aram, & Levin, 2014), grammar (Phipps & Borg, 2009), and foreign language (Graham, Santos & Francis-Brophy, 2014). The reasons for this were considered multifaceted; however, convincing evidence show that teaching context plays a fundamental role on the extent up to which teachers can teach consistent with their beliefs (Phipps, 2010).

To sum up, it has been long documented that teacher beliefs are the key determinants of their decisions germane to instructional practice (Borg, 2001; Clark & Peterson, 1986; Fang, 1996; Handal et al., 2001; Johnson, 1996a, 1996b; Kagan, 1992; Levin & Wadmany, 2005; Lovat & Smith, 1995; Pajares, 1992; Richards, 1998). Compared to other factors such as educational policies and resources, teachers' beliefs have been reported to be more influential on teaching practices (Cronin-Jones, 1991; Tam, 2012, 2015). That is why the relationship between teacher beliefs and classroom practice has been a central area of concern in teacher learning and it is imperative to take teachers' beliefs into consideration while studying teacher learning change.

2.3.3 The interaction between belief and practice: A potential impetus for professional learning

Teacher CPD intends to engage teachers in this process of change so that their reasoning and actions result in better student learning. However, such a process of

change has been conceptualized as problematic (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2006; Cochran-Smith, 2005; Korthagen, 2001; Tedick 2005). Therefore, a fundamental interest in teacher education is how far formal learning could be transformed into effective instructional practice. Phipps (2010) suggests that teacher learning derives from a change in how a teacher thinks and behaves, “which is usually a gradual process” (p. 22).

Wheatley (2002) argued that the conflict between individual expectations and sense of effectiveness may serve as a catalyst for teacher learning to happen; that is, self-doubt may promote reflection, which in turn, may encourage teachers to learn. Similarly, the constant and sometimes inconsistent interaction among a particular teacher's practices, experiences, and knowledge and beliefs within their orientation to learning system plays an important role (Cobb, Wood, & Yackel, 1990). This cyclic interaction entailing the conflict between the idealized and current competency may cause a “change-provoking disequilibrium” (Woolfolk Hoy, Hoy, & Davis, 2009).

Similarly, other researchers acknowledge dissatisfaction as a major condition for a change in concepts and notions (Pintrich, Marx, & Boyle, 1993; Posner, Strike, Hewson & Gertzog, 1982). That is, it is the feeling of dissatisfaction what motivates an individual to seek new understandings and thoughts. The significance of cognitive conflict particular to teachers' thinking has been highlighted since teachers might feel the need to change when challenged in terms of their attitudes and way of thinking (Cobb et al, 1990). Ball (1988) has also confirmed that for teachers to acquire and espouse novel practices, they need to unlearn much of their knowledge though suffering dissonance in their thinking. Such a dissonance is seen as the “edge of chaos” (Marion, 1999) or “the special balance point between chaos and order,

where creativity and change can occur” (Waldrop, 1992 as cited in Opfer & Pedder, 2011, p.388).

However, Coburn (2001) has notified that if the dissonance among beliefs, knowledge, practices, and experience is too broad for teachers to manage, then they may perceive novel ideas as irrelevant to their circumstances and ignore them. From this perspective, Timperley and Alton-Lee (2008) correspond that dissonance may indeed result in rejection rather than adoption of new learning because teachers need to “restructure their long-held values, beliefs, and knowledge in line with change messages to resolve such a dissonance” (p. 345).

That is why Phipps (2010) conceptualizes “teacher learning in an in-service education context as a dynamic interplay between cognitive, affective, experiential and contextual factors” (p.168). Such an interaction and interplay among beliefs, knowledge, experiences and practices is believed to form a teacher's individual orientation to learning system, which may act as a stimulus for change (Opfer et al., 2011, p. 388). Researchers (ibid.) propose that the dissonance existent in an individual teacher’s learning orientation system may “serve as a catalyst to seek change and new learning” (p. 389).

2.4 Teacher learning change models

Teacher change has been attributed to “learning, development, socialization, growth, improvement, implementation of something new or different, cognitive and affective change, and self-study” (Richardson & Placier, 2001 as cited in Tam, 2015, p. 23).

Due to its nature and scope, teacher change was described as “the provision of activities designed to advance the knowledge, skills, and understanding of teachers in ways that lead to changes in their thinking and classroom behavior” (Fenstermacher

& Berliner, 1983, p. 4). That is, it has been proposed that teacher change comprises modifications not only in cognition but also behavior (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002; Richardson & Placier, 2001).

In earlier attempts to teacher professional development, a training paradigm which regarded teachers as professionals with deficits in their skills and knowledge (Guskey, 1986) yielded failing attempts to bring teacher change (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991), which has shifted the focus of much research onto the process of teacher learning and consecutive change triggered by professional development. That is, earlier conceptualization of teachers -as passive recipients of change efforts- was reconsidered to see teachers as active learners in the complex process of change (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991; Guskey, 1986). Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002) suggested that contemporary professional development efforts are mostly framed within the perspective of “change as growth or learning”, which is also embraced in this study because such an understanding embodies change within learning and regards it as a usual and habitual element of the professional activity of teachers in schools as learning environments

Earlier and linear professional development models (Lewin, 1935; Guskey, 1986) often tried to bring teacher change in a step-wise nature; changing teachers’ beliefs and attitudes in the first place and then expecting such changes in beliefs and attitudes to bring successive changes in teachers’ classroom practices and student learning outcomes. The causal chain commonly embraced by such programs is modelled in Figure 2:

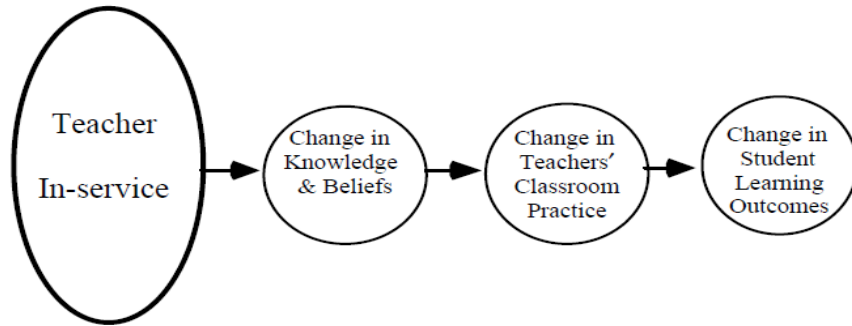


Figure 2. An implicit model of the purpose of teacher professional development
Source: Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002, p. 949

Guskey (1986) called attention to the flaws pertaining to this interpretation of change and suggested an alternative model which reordered three key effects of professional development; change first starts with teachers' practice, such a change later brings change in students and, ultimately, the change in student outcomes yield change in teacher beliefs and attitudes as modelled in Figure 3:

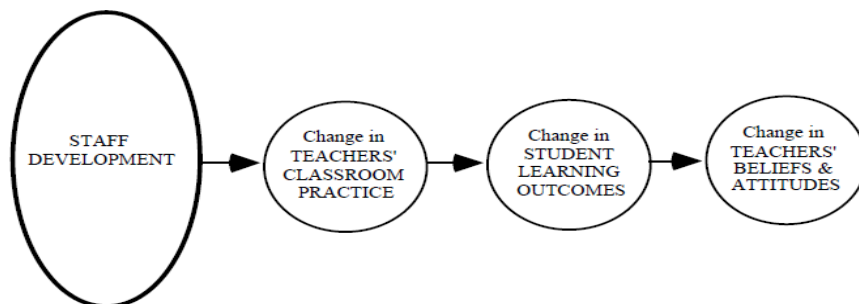


Figure 3. A linear model of teacher change
Source: Guskey, 1986, p. 7

That is, Guskey (2002) stated that “significant change in teachers’ attitudes and beliefs occurs primarily after they gain evidence of improvements in student learning; it is not the professional development per se, but the experience of

successful implementation that changes teachers' attitudes and beliefs" (p. 383). He advocated that noteworthy modifications in beliefs and attitudes tend to happen only after teachers try suggested change schemes in the field -authentic classroom settings- and observe immediate change (improvements) in student learning results. Therefore, Guskey (1986, 1989) attributed a significant change in teachers' attitudes and beliefs to teachers' direct observations of better student performance (Guskey, 1986, 1989). That is, teachers maintain newly introduced practices if and only they actively experienced and tested them in their classrooms (Crandall, 1983).

Lewin (1951) also introduced a linear three-step change model, which acknowledged three stages of teacher change: "unfreezing (where the intent is to motivate and prepare teachers for change), changing (where new patterns of behavior are learned), and refreezing (where new behavior is integrated into teachers' repertoires)" (Blanchard & Zigarmi, 1981 as cited in Guskey, 2002, p. 950). Another multiple-stage linear model of teacher change was suggested by Johnson and Owen (1986) who advocated that, to change, teachers need to pass through certain stages such as "recognition (of their existing repertoire), refinement, re-examination, renovation and renewal (where the nature, extent and use of their repertoire are re-evaluated and additions are planned)" (Guskey, 2002, p. 950).

Later researchers argued that such a linear connection is not indisputable since the suggested sequence that a change in cognition precedes behavioral change may indeed happen in the reverse order (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002; Richardson & Placier, 2001; Zwart, Wubbels, Bergen, & Bolhuis, 2007). Thus, considering the linear models of teacher change, it can be concluded that there was an incongruity about the order which the change sequence follows. Opfer et al. (2011) argued that such a disparity was existent because change, at the outset, was regarded as a linear

process. Levin & Wadmany (2005) also concluded that change processes tend to be highly peculiar (differ among teachers), vibrant, and do not essentially act in a linear manner. Due to this understanding, researchers have shifted their focus towards analyzing the cyclic nature of teacher change process and developing connected models.

Huberman's (1995) study on this area illustrated that change process for teachers indeed has a cyclic nature. He explained that changes in beliefs initiate changes in practice which yields "changes in student outcomes" which cause additional "changes in practice" which give rise to further "changes in belief". The link between such recursive routes has been described as mutual because modifications in one process depend on modifications in another process. Additionally, advocating that change happens in a cyclical nature among teacher beliefs, practice and student outcomes, Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002) warned that change can arise in one of those areas without bringing change in another.

Similarly, Tam (2015) reported that teacher change may happen in "three patterns: change in practice but not in belief, change in belief but not in practice, change in practice and belief; and in five dimensions: curriculum, teaching, learning, roles of teachers, and learning to teach" (p. 27). Yerrick, Parke, and Nugent (1997) proposed that teachers may vocalize their beliefs and teaching practices as congruent with the suggested change schemes without experiencing even a slightest change in such beliefs. For instance, teachers may provide their students with more opportunities to engage in pair and group work as they observe that such student-centered activities motivate students more compared to a conventional lecture. Nonetheless, this does not necessarily indicate that these teachers have started believing that student-centered teaching helps learners to develop better since such

teachers actually integrate just the format into their classroom only for motivational purposes. Opfer and Pedder (2011) also confirmed that “teachers may change their beliefs but not their practices, may change their practices but not their beliefs, and ultimately may change their practice but not the learning outcomes of their students” (p. 386).

Opfer et al. (2011) see change as a continuing, enduring, and multifaceted process that denotes the reciprocity between the individual and the environment (Richardson, 1996), which reinforces Argyris and Schön’s theories of action (1974); while individuals acquire information through their actions they utilize such information to think and perform prospect actions, which eventually shapes their beliefs in turn (Kane, Sandretto & Heath, 2002). Opfer et al. (2011) proposed that “three aspects of change -beliefs, practices and change in students- together constitute a better measure of learning change than any one of these measured singularly and teacher change results from a complex process involving beliefs and practices and the way these interact with, and intersect with, context and structures in schools” (p. 446). In other words, they acknowledge that individual opinions, interests, inspirations and social backgrounds and practices drive change but mere attainment of skills and knowledge through taking part in learning activities may not suffice to yield change. Therefore, their model of teacher learning (Figure 4) fundamentally hypothesizes that “for teacher learning to occur, change may occur in beliefs, practices, students or through any combination of these three areas of possible change. As a result, composite measures of change are needed and change in only one area would not constitute teacher learning” (p. 446).

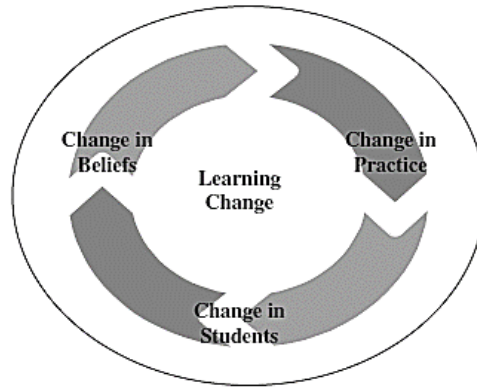


Figure 4. A cyclic model of teacher change
Source: Opfer et al., 2011, p. 446

The model of teacher learning proposed above recommends that teachers' orientation to learning -the combination of beliefs, practices and contexts- determines: "whether teachers learn from activities and whether they engage in certain learning activities at the first place" (Opfer et al., 2011, p. 447). Due to such a strong connection between a teacher's orientation to learning and his/her engagement in learning, the model depicts a teacher's orientation to learning posing a direct effect on teacher learning change (Figure 5).

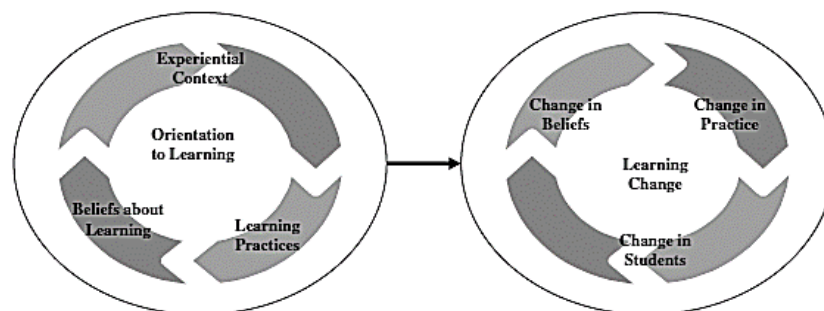


Figure 5. The influence of orientation to learning on teacher learning change
Source: Opfer et al., 2011, p. 446

Davis and Sumara surmise that teacher learning is likely to be constructed instantaneously in the actions of “autonomous entities (teachers), collectives (such as grade level and subject groups), and subsystems within grander unities (schools within school systems within sociopolitical educational contexts)” (2006, p. 90). Such systems along with their subsystems germane to teacher learning are suggested to be reciprocally effective and mutually dependent. As a result, while studying teacher professional learning, reciprocal influences within and between systems should be considered since “learning and change in any particular part of the system can result in change in other parts” (Stollar, Poth, Curtis, & Cohen, 2006, p. 183).

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter addresses the research design, research setting, participants, data collection methods, data collection instruments and pilot study, and data analysis techniques.

3.1 Research design

This particular study was set out to arrive at a better understanding of contextual factors and learning activities pertaining to teachers' orientation to learning (Opfer et al., 2011) and whether such features facilitate or constrain an expansive learning environment (Engeström, 2001; Fuller & Unwin, 2003, 2004). That is, the study focused on “process rather than outcomes, on context rather than a specific variable, and on discovery rather than confirmation” (Feeney, 2016).

That is, this study was designed to be descriptive in nature and employed a mixed-method research design so as to understand teachers' practice and learning orientation in the workplace. Since mixed method design is “responsive to local situations, conditions, and stakeholders' needs, it will facilitate the understanding and description of “people's (teachers) personal experiences of phenomena (i.e., emic or etic, insider's viewpoint) and contextual and setting (school) factors as they relate to the phenomenon of interest” (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p.20).

In other words, the fundamental principle of mixed research is to bring together various data obtained through different strategies, approaches, and methods to achieve a consequential combination which brings in corresponding strengths and eliminates overlapping weaknesses of quantitative and qualitative research (Brewer

& Hunter, 1989) as Firestone (1987) emphasizes the distinction between quantitative and qualitative studies: “the qualitative study describes real people acting in real events, whereas the world portrayed in the quantitative study consists of variables and static states” (p.19). While the quantitative research question(s) leads to a descriptive research design, the qualitative research question(s) leads to an explanatory design. Based on this argument, both quantitative and qualitative research questions in this particular study are believed to be congruent in terms of the underlying paradigm and methods used. Therefore, qualitative and quantitative mixed research was used to obtain a more comprehensive representation of the multiple realities existent (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004) in the schools as learning environments for teachers.

Greene, Caracelli and Graham (1989) notes that there are five main motivations for doing mixed research: “triangulation (i.e., seeking convergence and corroboration of results from different methods); complementarity (i.e., seeking elaboration, enhancement, illustration, and clarification of the results); initiation (i.e., discovering paradoxes and contradictions); development (i.e., using the findings from one method to inform the other method); and expansion (i.e., seeking to expand the breadth and range of research by using different methods for different inquiry components)” (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 22). In this particular study, the motivations for following mixed design were triangulation, expansion, development and expansion. In other words, the qualitative data was mainly used to support, clarify, elaborate and expand the results obtained from quantitative data.

In addition, what is also essential in mixed methods research is the extent of mixture, “which would form a continuum from mono-method to fully mixed methods” (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 20). it is possible for the researcher to

make a priority decision and “to give the quantitative and qualitative component of a mixed study equal status (i.e., QUANQUAL) or give one paradigm the dominant status (i.e., QUAN-qual or QUAL-quan)” (Morgan, 1998, p.368)”. The research question (adapted from Feeney, 2011, p. 7) addressed in this study is as below with quantitative and qualitative components:

What are EFL instructors’ orientations towards professional learning in their workplace?

- a. What forms of learning activities they value and practice? (QUAN + QUAL)
- b. What are the differences between instructors’ perceptions of self-reported learning practices and beliefs about these practices? (QUAN)
- c. What factors do they believe affect their professional learning? (QUAN + QUAL)
- d. How do they believe their professional learning affect the way they work with; (QUAL)
 - i. their colleagues,
 - ii. their students?

3.2 Participants

The online survey was conducted to 300 (100 pilot study + 200 main study) instructors. Participants who responded to the online survey were composed of 300 instructors of English working in the schools of languages of state and foundation universities located in Istanbul and Ankara, Turkey. The gender details regarding two subgroups of instructors working at a state or foundation school were as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Participants' Demographics: Gender

Gender	All Participants		Type of school employed at			
	Frequency	%	State School		Foundation School	
			Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Male	70	23.3	41	28.0	30	19.1
Female	229	76.3	102	71.3	126	80.9
Gay Male	1	.3	0	0	1	.7
TOTAL	300	100	143	100	157	100

Participants showed variety in terms of their age, gender and educational background. 229 participants stated their gender as female (76.3%), 70 as male (23.3%) and only 1 as gay male (.3%). In terms of gender, participants were unequally distributed as the majority was women and females were overrepresented in the sample, which, indeed, accurately represents the common pattern across such schools in Turkey.

While 273 participants (91.0%) were employed as local (Turkish) instructors of English, 27 of them (9%) were employed as international staff as displayed in Table 2. 134 local (93.7%) and 9 international instructors (6.3%) working at a state school participated in the study, while it was, respectively, 139 (88.5%) and 18 (11.5%) for the ones working at a foundation school as presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Participants' Demographics: Status of Employment

Status of Employment	All Participants		Type of school employed at			
	Frequency	%	State School		Foundation School	
			Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Turkish Citizen	273	91.0	134	93.7	139	88.5
International Staff	27	9.0	9	6.3	18	11.5
TOTAL	300	100	143	100	157	100

The age of the participants ranged from 25 to 63, averaged about 38 years old as shown in Table 3. Instructors working at a state school and foundation school had similar age averages as 37 and 38, respectively, as outlined in Table 4.

Table 3. Participants' Demographics: Age and Teaching Experience

	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	300	25	63	38.20	8.052
Total hours spent at school	300	3	50	29.40	8.629
Hours taught per week	300	1	38	17.49	5.954
Total years of experience in education	300	2	42	14.93	7.849
Years of experience in current position	300	1	36	10.28	7.142
Years of experience in current institution	300	1	41	8.80	6.704
Valid N (listwise)	300				

As shown in Table 4, the average of total hours that instructors spent at school was around 30; which was 28.02 and 30.66 for state and foundation schools, respectively. Per week, the majority of instructors taught around 18 hours. The total years of experience instructors had in education ranged from 2 to 42, averaged about 15 years. Instructors working at a state school and foundation school had similar years of experience in their current position, around 10 years, with around 9 years of experience in present institution.

Table 4. Participants' Demographics: Age and Teaching Experience Schools Compared

Type of School Employed at	State School				Foundation School			
	N	Min.	Max	Mean	N	Min	Max	Mean
Age	143	25	63	37.65	157	26	63	38.70
Total hours spent at school	143	3	50	28.02	157	5	50	30.66
Hours taught per week	143	5	32	19.35	157	1	38	15.80
Total years of experience in education	143	2	42	14.29	157	2	38	15.52
Years of experience in current role	143	1	36	10.34	157	1	30	10.24
Years of experience in current institution	143	1	41	9.42	157	1	24	8.23
Valid N (listwise)	143				157			

Information about the participants' academic background are given in Table 5. The majority of participants, 175 instructors (58.3%), hold a master's degree, which consisted of 70 (49%) instructors working at a state school and 105 (66.9%) instructors working at a foundation school. 71 participants hold a bachelor's degree (23.7%), which was 36 instructors (25.2%) working at a state school and 35 instructors (22.3%) working at a foundation school. A small group of instructors, 48 people (16%) hold a Ph.D., which was true for 31 instructors (22.4%) working at a state school and for 16 instructors (10.2%) working at a foundation school.

Table 5. Participants' Demographics: Highest Current Level of Education

Highest current level of education	All Participants		Type of school employed at			
	Frequency	%	State School		Foundation School	
			Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Bachelor's Degree	71	23.7	36	25.2	35	22.3
Master's Degree	175	58.3	70	49	105	66.9
Doctorate	48	16	32	22.4	16	10.2
MA (Thesis Stage)	1	.3	1	.7	0	0
PhD Candidate	3	1.0	3	2.1	1	.6
Other (please specify)	2	.7	1	.7	0	0
TOTAL	300	100	143	100	157	100

Instructors' positions within their institution are presented in Table 6. 239 participants (79.7%) were instructors, followed by 14 instructors (4.7%) who worked as curriculum developers. The number of instructors working at a state or foundation school was approximate, which was 119 for the first group while it was 120 for the latter one. The groups, however, differed from each other as 3 instructors working at a state school reported themselves as a curriculum developer, while 11 instructors working at a foundation school did so. Both groups had 5 (3.5%, 3.2%) instructors working as teacher development unit members.

Table 6. Participants' Demographics: Current Professional Role

Current Role	All Participants		Type of school employed at			
	Frequency	%	State School		Foundation School	
			Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Instructor	239	79.7	119	83.2	120	76.4
Assessment Specialist	10	3.3	5	3.5	5	3.2
Curriculum Developer	14	4.7	3	2.1	11	7
Teacher Development Unit Member (Trainer)	10	3.3	5	3.5	5	3.2
Team/Unit Leader	18	6	6	4.2	12	7.6
Director	4	1.3	3	2.1	1	.6
Vice/Deputy Director	2	.7	0	0	2	1.3
ELSE	3	1	2	1.4	1	.6
TOTAL	300	100	143	100	157	100

The number of instructors working as a team/unit leader at a foundation school (7.6%) doubled the number of those working at a state school (4.2%), which was 12 and 6, respectively. Only 6 (2%) instructors had managerial duties either as a director or vice director, which was true for 3 instructors (2.1%) working at a state school and for 3 instructors (1.9%) working at a foundation school.

14 instructors, who completed the online survey and left their e-mail address for a follow-up interview, participated in the interviews.

3.3 Data collection instruments

Data collection began after the review and approval of the study and data collection instruments by the Boğaziçi University- INAREK/SBB Ethics Sub-Committee (Appendix B). Prior to data collection, participants were asked to read and sign a consent form (Appendix C). While quantitative data was collected through a teacher learning self-evaluation survey instrument (Appendix D), qualitative data was collected through semi-structured interviews (Appendix E) with teachers as Yin

(2003) states one of the most important sources of mixed-method case study information is the interview.

3.3.1 The teacher learning self-evaluation survey

The online survey used in this research (with permission) had previously been used in a Ph.D. study conducted by Feeney (2011), whom was contacted to get permission for the use of the survey and its development process.

The survey (Appendix C) was a closed-response one using mainly ordinal data, which serves best for a quantitative analysis. The questionnaire, which is in English, consists of forty-one items in total, divided around three thematic blocks: a) demographics (comprised of nine items); b) teachers' value and practice of professional learning (comprised of twenty-nine items); c) influences, barriers, and supports (comprised of three items).

Part B of the survey questionnaire "teachers' orientation to learning questionnaire" was reported to have originally been developed based on research "Teaching and Learning Research Programme (TLRP), the United Kingdom's (UK) largest investment in educational inquiry" (James et al., 2006). The twenty-nine items in this part are divided into five different sections (A-E) related to the type of learning activity: "learning in relation to practice; consulting different sources of knowledge; collaborative activity; talking about and valuing learning; and teachers' role in the learning process" (Feeney, 2011, p. 95) and four categories related to the type of teachers' orientation to learning: "1) internal orientations to learning; 2) external orientations to learning; 3) research orientations to learning; and 4) collaborative orientations to learning" (Opfer et al., 2011, p. 444). For each item in part B, instructors were asked to specify the range on the scale (from 1 to 5) that best

describes (i) the value they attribute to each learning practice; and (b) their perception of how often each practice happens or does not happen in the school.

In part C, the instructors were asked to identify the three greatest influences, most important factors, and most challenging barriers for their professional learning among items given the survey, yet the development of Part C was finalized after getting twelve instructors' opinions on the important factors and challenges for their professional learning through informal collegial dialogues between the researcher and instructors before the actual implementation of the questionnaire. The aim was to relate items to be given in this part to instructors' authentic learning environments.

The online version of the questionnaire was created using Google Forms; responses from the participants was automatically recorded in a corresponding Google spreadsheet.

3.3.2 Interviews

In the second step of the data collection process, one-on-one interviewing, which is “a data collection process in which the researcher asks questions to and records answers from only one participant in the study at a time” (Creswell, 2012, p.218), was conducted. Semi-structured interviews (Appendix E) with individual teachers were conducted “to gather abundant qualitative narrative responses providing insight into workplace experiences” (Boyd, Smith & Beyaztas, 2015, p. 22) and “to gather descriptive data in the subjects' own words so that the researcher can develop insights on how subjects interpret some piece of the world” (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003, p. 94). The interviews were focused and lasted approximately for twenty-five minutes. Interviews were recorded through the medium of a digital recording device and then saved electronically.

3.4 Pilot study

A pilot study can be defined as a “small-scale test of the methods and procedures to be used on a larger scale ...” (Porta, 2008). Therefore, to recognize possible problematic parts and deficits not only in the research instruments but also research protocol, pilot studies were conducted separately both for quantitative and qualitative instruments in advance of their implementation.

3.4.1 Quantitative measures

Prior to the study, a pilot study was conducted in order to provide evidences to reliability and validity of the scores measured (Stern, 2010, p. 353) by teachers' value and practice of professional learning scale and to verify its appropriateness with instructors of English working in the schools of languages of state and foundation universities in Istanbul and Ankara, Turkey. Hundreds instructors (% 75 female, % 25 male) took part in the pilot study of the questionnaire. Factor analysis was used to test the internal structure of the scale and Cronbach's Alpha coefficient for internal consistency (hereafter, Cronbach's α) (Cronbach, 1951) was used to evaluate the internal consistency of the scale scores.

Factor structure of the scales can be tested via three approaches: exploratory factor analysis only, confirmatory factor analysis only and the hybrid approach (Ahire & Devaraj, 2001); among the three, exploratory factor analysis (hereafter, EFA) is a commonly utilized and widely applied statistical technique in social sciences. Durmuş, Ulusu, Erdem, and Yalçın (et al., 2015) summarizes that the rationale of EFA is to find out the sets of variables highly interrelated, known as factors (Hair, Hult, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2014).

Therefore, in this study, EFA is conducted to find out whether the instructors of English working in the schools of languages of state and foundation universities in Istanbul and Ankara, Turkey perceive the constructs the same as in the original studies from which the scale was adapted (Feeney, 2011, 2016; Opfer et al., 2011) and also to see if the derived constructs in this study confirms the existence of theoretically developed content categories. Most authorities recommend that factor analyses requires a sample size of at least 10 participants per item in the scale (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), which would be 290 participants for the instructors' orientation to learning questionnaire. However, only 100 participants completed the online survey in the piloting stage. Due to the small number of participants, each pre-defined factor was tested for their factorability separately rather than testing twenty-nine items all together at once.

Firstly, to examine if the data gathered from instructors was appropriate for factor analysis or not, at the beginning of each factor test, the measure of sampling adequacy was calculated though Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (hereafter, KMO) coefficient and Barlett's Sphericity tests (Stern, 2010, p. 365). KMO illustrates that the data used in the analysis is a homogenous collection of variables and that there are correlations between variables (Hair et al, 2014). KMO provides an index of factorability that ranges from 0-1; when the value of this statistics is less than .5, the matrix is considered not suitable for factor analysis; values from .5 to .7 are considered marginal; and values greater than .7 are considered adequate (Stern, 2010, p. 358). Likewise, Barlett's Sphericity test describes the statistical significance of the correlation between variables (Hair et al., 2014), and the higher limit for the p-value generally agreed upon in social sciences is .05 (Durmuş et al., 2015). After it was found that the data was appropriate for the analysis, factor analysis was carried out to

investigate the dimensionality of the scale and to identify the factorial structure of questions loading onto the same factors. In addition, total item correlation analysis and Cronbach's α were calculated to explore the internal consistency reliability associated with scores derived from a scale. Cronbach's α is a measure of reliability in that it checks whether or to what extent the items that make up a scale measure the same underlying construct; "Cronbach's α values range from 0-1 and ideally the value should be above .70" (Pallant, 2010, p. 87).

Part B of the survey used in this study (teachers' value and practice of professional learning questionnaire) was comprised of twenty-nine items. Those items were divided among the pre-determined following categories: "(a) learning in relation to practice; (b) consulting different sources of knowledge; (c) collaborative activity; (d) talking about and valuing learning; and (e) teachers' role in the learning process" (Feeney, 2011, p.95). The analysis started with all twenty-nine items categorized in pre-set five subscales.

3.4.1.1 Factor analysis of "learning in relation to instructional practice"

To identify and test the underlying structure of the scale (a) learning in relation to practice, EFA with Principle Component Analysis and Varimax rotations was conducted with six pre-defined items. KMO measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity were calculated to test the relevance of data for conducting factorial analysis (Sharma, 1996). The result of the factor analysis was satisfactory (KMO = 0.835; χ^2 Bartlett test = 327,480; $p = 0.000^*$). The diagonals of the anti-image correlation matrix were all over .50 (even .80), which strongly supported the inclusion of each item in the factor analysis (Hair et al., 2014). Six items converged into one factor explained variance of 63.95%. The Cronbach's α for

six items that make up the scale of (a) learning in relation to practice was .88, indicating good internal consistency in the responses as given in Table 7.

Table 7. Scale Factor Analysis: "Learning in Relation to Instructional Practice"

Factor Name	Factor Items	Factor Loading	Cronbach's α	Total Variance Explained
Learning in relation to instructional practice	3. "Instructors reflect on their practice as a way of identifying professional learning needs."	.872	.883	63.958
	4. "Instructors experiment with their practice as a strategy for improving teaching and learning."	.848		
	6. "Instructors modify their practice in the light of research-based evidence."	.811		
	2. "Instructors are able to see how practices that work in one context might be adapted to other contexts."	.770		
	1. "Instructors relate what works in their practice to research findings."	.751		
	5. Instructors modify their practice in the light of "feedback from their students."	.738		

3.4.1.2 Factor analysis of "sharing collaborative activity"

To identify and test the underlying structure of the scale (c) sharing collaborative activity, EFA with Principle Component Analysis and Varimax rotations was conducted with six pre-defined items. KMO measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity were calculated to test the relevance of data for conducting factorial analysis (Sharma, 1996). The result of the factor analysis was satisfactory (KMO = 0.861; χ^2 Bartlett test = 312,453; $p = 0.000^*$). The diagonals of the anti-image correlation matrix were all over .50 (even .80), which strongly supported the inclusion of each item in the factor analysis (Hair et al., 2014). Six items converged into one factor explained variance of 64.61%. The Cronbach's α for

six items that make up the scale of “learning in relation to instructional practice” was .89, indicating strong internal consistency in the responses as given in Table 8.

Table 8. Scale Factor Analysis: “Sharing Collaborative Activity”

Factor Name	Factor Items	Factor Loading	Cronbach’s α	Total Variance Explained
Sharing collaborative activity	14. “Instructors carry out joint research with one or more colleagues as a way of improving their practice.”	.855	.890	64.617
	17. “Instructors engage in co-teaching (team-teaching) as a way of improving practice.”	.842		
	16. “Instructors regularly observe each other in the classroom and give each other feedback.”	.830		
	15. “Instructors regularly collaborate to plan their teaching.”	.802		
	18. “Instructors make collective agreements to test out new ideas.”	.780		
	13. “Instructors modify their practice in light of evidence from evaluations of their classroom practice by administrators.”	.706		

3.4.1.3 Factor analysis of “talking about and valuing learning”

To identify and test the underlying structure of the scale (d) talking about and valuing learning, EFA with Principle Component Analysis and Varimax rotations was conducted with six pre-defined items. KMO measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett’s test of sphericity were calculated to test the relevance of data for conducting factorial analysis (Sharma, 1996). The result of the factor analysis was satisfactory (KMO = .901; χ^2 Bartlett test = 352,801; $p = 0.000^*$). The diagonals of the anti-image correlation matrix were all over .50 (even .80), which strongly supported the inclusion of each item in the factor analysis (Hair et al., 2014). Six items converged into one factor explained variance of 68.13%. The Cronbach’s

Alpha for six items that make up the scale of (d) talking about and valuing learning was .90, indicating excellent internal consistency in the responses, given in Table 9.

Table 9. Scale Factor Analysis: “Talking About and Valuing Learning”

Factor Name	Factor Items	Factor Loading	Cronbach's α	Total Variance Explained
Talking about and valuing learning	22. “Instructors discuss openly with colleagues what and how they are learning.”	.876	.905	68.153
	21. “Instructors suggest ideas or approaches for colleagues to try in class.”	.867		
	24. “Instructors offer one another reassurance and support.”	.857		
	20. “If instructors have a problem with their teaching, they usually turn to colleagues for help.”	.822		
	19. “Instructors as well as students learn in this school.”	.801		
	23. “Instructors frequently use informal opportunities to discuss how students learn.”	.720		

3.4.1.4 Factor analysis of “exploring teacher’s role in the learning process”

To identify and test the underlying structure of the scale (e) teachers’ role in the learning process, EFA with Principle Component Analysis and Varimax rotations was conducted with five pre-defined items. KMO measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett’s test of sphericity were calculated to test the relevance of data for conducting factorial analysis (Sharma, 1996). The result of the factor analysis was satisfactory (KMO = .840; χ^2 Bartlett test = 208,399; $p = 0.000^*$). The diagonals of the anti-image correlation matrix were all over .50 (even .80), which strongly supported the inclusion of each item in the factor analysis (Hair et al., 2014). Five items converged into one factor explained variance of 63.93%. The Cronbach’s α for six items that make up the scale of (e) teachers’ role in the learning process was .85, indicating good internal consistency in the responses as given in Table 10.

Table 10. Scale Factor Analysis: “Teachers’ Role in the Learning Process”

Factor Name	Factor Items	Factor Loading	Cronbach’s α	Total Variance Explained
Exploring teacher’s role in the learning process	25. “Instructors determine what and how they should learn for improving their practice.”	.847	.855	63.933
	26. “Instructors decide how to structure and use their time for improving their practice.”	.834		
	27. “Instructors take on a leadership role in making decisions about how to improve their practice.”	.803		
	28. “Instructors are consulted about how they learn most effectively.”	.784		
	29. “If an approach is not working, instructors have the flexibility to change and reshape their professional learning plan.”	.723		

3.4.1.5 Factor analysis of “consulting different sources of knowledge”

To identify and test the underlying structure of the scale (b) consulting different sources of knowledge, EFA with Principle Component Analysis and Varimax rotations was conducted with six pre-defined items. KMO measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett’s test of sphericity were calculated to test the relevance of data for conducting factorial analysis (Sharma, 1996). The result of the factor analysis was satisfactory (KMO = .828; χ^2 Bartlett test = 166,895; $p = 0.000^*$). The diagonals of the anti-image correlation matrix were all over .50 (even .80), which strongly supported the inclusion of each item in the factor analysis (Hair et al., 2014). Six items converged into one factor explained variance of 50.83%. The Cronbach’s Alpha for six items that make up the scale of (b) consulting different sources of knowledge was .80, indicating good internal consistency in the responses as given in Table 11.

Table 11. Scale Factor Analysis: “Consulting Different Sources of Knowledge”

Factor Name	Factor Items	Factor Loading	Cronbach’s α	Total Variance Explained
Consulting different sources of knowledge	9. “Instructors consult professional resources for improving their practice.”	.761	.801	50.833
	7. “Instructors consult student performance data to modify their practice.”	.748		
	10. “Instructors consult students about how they learn most effectively.”	.745		
	11. “Instructors attend workshops or in-service classes to further their learning.”	.737		
	8. “Instructors draw on good practice from other schools as a means to further their own professional practice.”	.729		
	12. “Instructors access online resources to support their learning (e.g. web, webinars, and videos).”	.531		

Although item 12 had a lower loading of .531, it was retained in the factor as the analysis of “Cronbach’s Alpha If Item Deleted” column showed that the overall reliability of the factor would increase only slightly from .801 to .808 as given in Table 12. Therefore, the deletion of this item was not considered necessary.

Table 12. Scale Item-Total Statistics: “Consulting Different Sources of Knowledge”

Item	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
12. “Instructors access online resources to support their learning (e.g. web, webinars, and videos).”	.808

To summarize, the results of KMO and Barlett’s Sphericity tests showed that the measured characteristics were multivariate in the universe parameter and the sample size was sufficient for factorability analysis. EFA analysis with Principle Component Analysis and Varimax rotations confirmed pre-determined five factors of Part B of the survey used in this study (teachers’ value and practice of professional

learning) as (a) learning in relation to practice; (b) consulting different sources of knowledge; (c) collaborative activity; (d) talking about and valuing learning; and (e) teachers' role in the learning process. Cronbach's α was strong ($\alpha = .883, .801, .890, .905, \text{ and } .855$) respectively for each form of learning activities identified above (Cronbach, 1951).

The twenty-nine survey items in part B of the survey were further divided into four different categories for deeper analysis related to teachers' orientation to learning consisting of beliefs, practice, and experiences about learning; four categories previously identified by Opfer et al. (2011, p. 444) were: 1) internal orientations to learning; 2) external orientations to learning; 3) research orientations to learning; and 4) collaborative orientations to learning. To measure the internal consistency of the suggested categories, Cronbach's α was calculated for value beliefs ($\alpha = .822, .790, .660, .842$) and practice ($\alpha = .914, .846, .814, .881$) respectively for each orientation to learning domain identified above. Feeney (2011, p. 95) previously reported "Cronbach's α for value beliefs ($\alpha = .919, .882, .813, .866$) and practice ($\alpha = .853, .844, .731, .758$) respectively for each orientation to learning domain" acknowledged above. Therefore, the findings of analysis correspond with the results of the original data except for the instructors' value beliefs concerning their research orientations to learning with $\alpha = .660$, which could be due to the limited number of participants (N=100) completing the pilot study.

As a result of factor and reliability analysis, the teachers' value and practice of professional learning scale was determined to be used as it is with twenty-nine items, despite the limited number of participants (N=100).

3.4.2 Qualitative measures

To develop a qualitative research instrument which is congruent with the aims of the research and appropriate for the participants (Jones, Torres & Arminio, 2014), it is important to “get feedback from others on how they think the interview questions will work” (Maxwell, 2013, p. 101). Seidman suggested that “at the heart of interviewing research is an interest in other individuals’ stories” (2013, p. 9). While interview questions should help participants unfold their stories gradually, they need to stay aligned with the purpose of the study. That’s why it is important for a researcher take advantage of “carefully brainstorming and evaluating interview questions before data collection” (Castillo-Montoya, 2016, p.810).

In this study, to complete the piloting of interview questions, three main steps were taken as; (1) consulting subject matter experts, (2) member checking and getting feedback on the wording of questions, and (3) conducting pilot interviews.

3.4.2.1 Consulting subject matter experts

In the first phase of developing interview questions, the focus was on the alignment between interview questions and research questions to check the validity of interview questions (confirming their purpose) and to ensure their necessity for the study (eliminating redundant ones) (Castillo-Montoya, 2016, p.812). Therefore, to assess and adjust or add interview questions if too many are related to one research question and too few to other research questions, on June 7th, 2018, the first draft of the interview questions (Appendix E), adapted from a previous study on the subject matter (Feeney, 2011, p. 257), was presented to thesis advisory board comprised of three faculty members all holding a Ph.D. in educational and social studies.

Faculty members of thesis advisory board concluded that the interview questions were not written in a non-judgmental manner and they may direct participants to give a specific type of response to a defined issue (Brace, 2013, p.62). Based on such a feedback, in the second draft of the interview questions (Appendix E), the wording of question one, question two, question three and question four were revised. The advisory board members also suggested that question seven was too general; therefore, based on feedback, it was supported with two subs-questions 5a and 5b. Finally, to hear more about participants' individual learning experience in detail, two more questions were added concerning whether they received and provided professional feedback.

3.4.2.2 Member checking and getting feedback on the wording of questions

Brinkmann and Kvale (2015) stated “research questions are usually formulated in a theoretical language, whereas the interview questions should be expressed in the everyday language of the interviewees” (p. 158). Therefore, to get feedback on the language of interview questions, three volunteer instructors who had similar teaching backgrounds with future participants for the actual study were consulted. These volunteer instructors were asked to read the second draft of the interview questions and think-aloud their answers in order for the researcher to elicit responses and also to observe how the participants arrived at such responses (Fowler, 1995). Such feedback helped with refining the wording and language of the interview questions. I was able to observe how the questions came across to potential participants and how I could refine them to make them concise and easy to understand. To ensure that questions are fine-tuned and understandable (Castillo-Montoya, 2016, p. 825), revisions were made and the terms used by volunteer instructors were considered and

jargon was avoided (Merriam, 2009; Patton, 2002) in the third draft of interview questions (Appendix E).

3.4.2.3 Conducting pilot interviews with possible participants

Having aligned the interview questions with the research questions through the feedback provided by thesis advisory board in the first phase and having ensured that the wording and language of those questions supports an inquiry-based conversation through the feedback provided by volunteer instructors in the second phase, revisions were made to the third draft of interview questions (Appendix E).

The third draft of the interview questions were used to conduct pilot interviews with three possible participants. The analysis of data gathered from pilot interviews revealed that answers given to questions six and seven showed a high variability and the content was not relevant to the purpose and research questions of the study. That's why those two questions were omitted and the fourth version of the interview questions were finalized as it follows:

1. Can you describe your professional learning this year?
 - a. How did it contribute to your professional life?
 - b. If you described it with one adjective, what would it be?
2. What did you learn in terms of:
 - a. practical knowledge (teaching)?
 - b. theoretical aspects (knowledge)?
3. What factors influenced your professional learning?
4. Has your learning influenced how you work with your colleagues and if so, how?

5. Has your learning influenced how you work with your students and if so, how?

To conclude, prior to the study, pilot studies were conducted to gain insight into whether interview questions are clear, whether they would harvest relevant answers, and whether aspects of questions are vague or confusing (Willis, 1999). Consulting subject matter experts, getting feedback on questions through think-aloud protocol and conducting pilot interviews provided valuable feedback in order to refine and finalize the interview questions prior to use of the instrument. Data gathered from pilot interviews were not included in data analysis.

3.5 Data analysis techniques

The data was analyzed to understand how EFL instructors participated in the learning process, what factors and conditions were more likely to contribute to an expansive learning environment and which tend to be more restrictive (Engeström, 2001; Fuller & Unwin, 2003, 2004) and what changes occurred in instructors' learning.

After collecting the data, the next step was to interpret the data in a meaningful way (Patton, 2002). Given the two-phase-sequential-explanatory-research design, analyzing the quantitative data was prioritized and qualitative data collection began only after the first phase had ended. The analysis performed on the data included survey results and interview responses. The analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data in this study was done through the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences 20 (SPSS20) and NVivo 12 software, respectively.

The integration of qualitative data and quantitative data were guided by Onwuegbuzie and Collins' (2007) rationale for mixing both sets of data in ways that enhance the significance of the study by "facilitating thickness and richness of data;

augmenting interpretation and usefulness of findings” (Onwuegbzie & Johnson, 2006, p. 54). The main motivation for following mixed design in this research was triangulation and expansion. That is, quantitative data was more heavily weighted in this particular mixed-method case study and qualitative data obtained from one-on-one semi-structured interviews was mainly used to support the quantitative results (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2006).

Next section, gives a detailed description of how the data was analyzed in the following order: (i) quantitative data analysis and (ii) qualitative data analysis.

3.5.1 Quantitative analysis

The survey questionnaire consisted of three separate parts as: (a) demographics, (b) teachers’ value and practice of professional learning and (c) influences, barriers, and supports of professional learning.

To analyze the data obtained from part A of the survey, descriptive statistics for continuous variables and frequencies for categorical variables (Pallant, 2010, p. 55) were computed to outline the demographics of the participants and results were displayed in tables. The data gathered on teachers’ values and practices in part B were ordinal in nature, as the survey instrument mostly comprised of Likert type questions. For each item in part B, participants were asked to indicate the range that best described:

- a) the value of the degree of importance they placed on each learning activity, on the scale from “1 = Unimportant”, “2 = Of Little Importance”, “3 = Moderately Important”, “4 = Important” to “5 = Very Important”

- b) their perception of the extent to which each practice was happening or not happening in the school, on the scale from “1 = Never”, “2 = Rarely”, “3 = Sometimes”, “4 = Often” to “5 = Always”.

The statistics used for analyzing the quantitative data in this mixed-method case study are summarized in Table 13 below.

Table 13. Summary of Quantitative Statistics

Statistics	Purpose
Mean	To calculate the average of all self-reported scores
Standard Deviation	To measure the variability of mean scores
Percentages	To provide descriptive statistics for categorical variables
Dichotomy groups	To analyze multiple response sets
Cronbach’s α (alpha) reliability coefficient	To measure the internal consistency or reliability of the questionnaire items
Paired Samples <i>T</i> -test	To compare factor means of two samples of scores obtained from the same sample
Fisher <i>r</i> -to- <i>z</i> Transformation	To test the significance of the difference between two correlation coefficients
Effect size: <i>d</i>	To measure the strength of the difference between two mean ranks
Wilcoxon Paired Samples Signed Rank Test	To test the mean difference between discrete items

To analyze the data obtained from Part B of the survey and to decide if the mean difference between factor scores of attributed-values and perceived-practices was significant, paired samples *t*-tests (Stern, 2010, p. 131) were calculated, using SPSS 20. Based on the outputs of paired samples *t*-tests, effect size (*d*) was calculated following the formula $d = t / \sqrt{N}$ on an excel sheet by “dividing the *t*-value by the square root of N (N referring the number of observations over the two

response points, but not the number of cases)” (Pallant, 2010, p.232). The effect sizes are used to “observe the size of the mean differences and judge the relative importance of those differences” (Cronk, 2010, p.115), using “Cohen’s (1998) criteria of .1=small effect, .3=medium effect and .5=large effect” (Pallant, 2010, p.232).

Twenty-nine items in part B of the survey were divided into five different subscales related to the types of learning activity: “learning in relation to instructional practice, consulting different sources of knowledge, sharing collaborative activity, talking about and valuing learning and exploring teacher’s role in the learning process” (Feeney, 2011, p. 95). The very same items in part B of the survey were further divided into four subscales of teachers’ orientation to learning as: “internal orientations to learning, external orientations to learning, research orientations to learning, and collaborative orientations to learning” (Opfer et al., 2011, p. 444). To calculate total scores for these subscales, new variables were created using “transform- compute” menu of SPSS 20, following the item categories previously studied (Appendix F). “Cronbach’s Alpha reliability coefficient” (Cronbach, 1951) was calculated and described for each subscale and the data was displayed through tables as an analysis strategy to compare and contrast with other qualitative data (Madison, 2005).

Paired samples *t*-tests on subscales were completed in two steps. Initially, analysis was run including all the participants regardless of the type of school they were employed at, to observe the general professional learning values of EFL instructors and what they reported they actually practice. In the second step, analysis was rerun based on split responses, categorizing the instructors into two groups depending on the type of school they were employed at, namely; state schools and

foundation schools, to observe if the work place brings a notable effect on EFL instructors' professional learning values and actual practices. Both results are displayed in separate tables.

Data analysis for part B of the survey continued with inferential statistics. To decide if there is a relationship between instructors' value and practice of professional learning activities, a bivariate regression analysis was carried out and Pearson's r values (the correlation coefficient) were calculated (Stern, 2010, p. 151). Firstly, to decide if the mean difference between factor scores for attributed-values and perceived-practices were significant, the regression analysis was done for all participants regardless of the type of school they were employed at. In the second step, to decide if such a significant correlation was true for each subscale in two different types of schools, correlation analysis was rerun based on split data where participants were categorized according to the type of school they were employed at. Later, each Pearson's r value was transformed into a Z -score so that they become normally distributed. In the third step, to test the significance of the difference between two correlation coefficients, a value of Z_{observed} was calculated, using the Fisher r -to- z transformation formula of " $Z_{\text{observed}} = (z_1 - z_2) / (\sqrt{[(1 / N_1 - 3) + (1 / N_2 - 3)]})$ " (SAS, 2014, p.24).

In part C of the survey, the participants were asked to choose the greatest influences, most important factors, and most challenging barriers for their professional learning among the items given as multiple response sets. To analyze the data obtained from Part C of the survey, the items of each multiple response set were coded as dichotomies (IBM, 2019). That is, a separate variable was created for each item in multiple response sets. Each variable had two possible values as 0 and 1, which indicated whether the response was selected by the participants or not. Items

were grouped under a multiple response set and frequencies were computed. Results were rank-ordered and put in a table from the most frequent to the least cited one for each of the influences, supports, and barriers to professional learning. To compare split responses, categorizing the instructors into two groups depending on the type of school they were employed at, namely; state schools and foundation schools, cross tabulation tables were provided.

3.5.2 Qualitative analysis

All interviews were digitally recorded and transcribed verbatim for data analysis. Transcripts were checked for accuracy by comparing them to the digital recordings after the transcription process. Next, the transcriptions were imported into NVivo 12 to discover common themes, codes, and categories (Creswell, 2014). Interview responses in this study were analyzed using “a constant comparative approach”, which is defined as “comparing one segment of data with one found in the same or another data set for the purpose of identifying possible patterns and categories that may lead to theory formulation” (Merriam, 2009, p.142).

The verbatim analysis of interview transcriptions started with emphasizing important information, detecting codes and then merging such codes into main themes or patterns (Madison, 2005). To illustrate, talking about what supported their professional learning, instructors used certain expressions such as “sharing, colleagues feeding them professionally, partnering, building relationships, supporting and inspiring each other”, all of which denoted the theme and idea of collegiality. Therefore, such codes were merged into the main theme of “collaborative environment”.

To give another example, talking about what hindered their professional learning, instructors used certain expressions such as “colleagues having habits set-in-stone and fixed routines, colleagues showing resistance to novelties, colleagues not cooperating or helping each other, all of which indicated the lack of support from colleagues. Therefore, such codes were merged into the main theme of “lack of collaborative culture”.

As a final example, while talking about how their own professional learning affected their work with students, instructors used expressions such as “being a facilitator rather than the direct source of knowledge, trying to make their students independent learners, giving students options to shape the classes, and conducting more student-centered classes”, all of which denoted the idea of students having an active role in their own learning process. That is why such codes were merged into the main theme of “promoting student autonomy”.

Common themes emerging from teachers’ interview responses were ranked and demonstrated as list to be compared with quantitative data later. Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) refer to this process of data transformation as quantitizing qualitative data.

3.6 Merging pilot data into the main data analysis

Most authorities recommend EFA requires a sample size of at least 10 participants per item in the scale (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), which would be 290 participants for instructors’ orientation to learning questionnaire. Hence, in this thesis study, pilot data was included in main analysis after certain analysis. Firstly, based on piloting procedures (factor and reliability analysis) completed in the first stage, the teachers’ value and practice of professional learning scale was determined to be used as it is

with its twenty-nine items. Having confirmed that the pilot data obtained from EFL instructors' working at schools of languages does not violate factorability and reliability of the original subscales, the pilot data then was compared and contrasted with the main data in two respects: i) the similarity of samples and ii) the similarity of subscale Cronbach's α values two samples.

The comparison of sample demographics, detailed in Appendix G, revealed that pilot sample did not differ from the main sample and Cronbach's α values for subscales across two samples were approximate as given in Table 14.

Table 14. Cronbach's α Values for Pilot and Main Data

Subscales	Cronbach's α	
	Pilot Data	Main Data
A) Learning in relation to instructional practice	.883	.864
B) Consulting different sources of knowledge	.801	.797
C) Sharing collaborative activity	.890	.847
D) Talking about and valuing learning	.905	.874
E) Exploring teacher's role in the learning process	.855	.869

Therefore, the pilot data was merged into the main data and the subsequent analysis were performed on the factor scores.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

This chapter presents the results of the analyses performed on the data collected in this mixed-method study. The chapter starts with the demographics and then it is organized around the answers to the research question (comprised of (QUAN+ qual) questions). A summary of results will be provided at the end of the chapter. Each of the four sub-research question is presented, accompanied by an analysis of the relevant data belonging to the results presented. The following research question, with four sub-questions will be addressed: What are EFL instructors' orientations towards professional learning in their workplace?

- a) What forms of learning they value and practice?
- b) What are the differences between instructors' perceptions of self-reported learning practices and beliefs about these practices? (QUAN)
- c) What factors do they believe affect their professional learning (QUAN+qual)
- d) How do they believe their professional learning affect the way they work with; (QUAL)
 - i. their colleagues,
 - ii. their students?

Research Question: What are EFL instructors' orientations towards professional learning in their workplace?

- a) What forms of professional learning do they value and practice?

In order to answer sub-research question (a), both quantitative results obtained from teacher learning self-evaluation survey, parts B and C, and results obtained from

relevant interview questions are discussed below. The discussion of results starts with the quantitative findings, which is later supported with qualitative ones. The interview question related to sub-research question (a) is as below:

Interview question 1: Can you describe your professional learning this year?

- a) How did it contribute to your professional life?
- b) If you described it with one adjective, what would it be?

To analyze EFL instructors' orientations towards professional learning in their workplace and decide if there is a meaningful difference between the means of their attributed-value to and perceived-practice of such orientations, *t*-test for paired samples (Stern, 2010, p. 258) were calculated by SPSS 20. Later, the effect size was measured by Cohen's *d* (1998), which was obtained by dividing *t* by \sqrt{N} . The effect sizes are used to "observe the size of the mean differences and judge the relative importance of those differences" (Cronk, 2010, p.115), using "Cohen's (1998) criteria of .1=small effect, .3=medium effect and .5=large effect" (Pallant, 2010, p.232).

T-test for paired samples (Stern, 2010, p. 258) were calculated in two steps. Initially, to understand EFL instructors' professional learning tendencies regardless of the type of school they were employed at, *t*-tests for paired samples were calculated including all participants separately for four types of learning orientations, namely; internal, external, collaborative and research (Opfer et al., 2011, p. 444). Results showed that the mean difference between instructors' attributed-values and perceived-practices was significant for each type of learning orientation as given in Table 15.

Table 15. Paired Samples *T*-Test for Orientations to Learning: All Participants

The Difference between Values and Practices of Orientations to Learning	M	SD	Paired Differences			t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	d
			Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference					
				Lower	Upper				
Internal	.740	.736	.043	.657	.824	17.420	299	.000	1.01
External	.556	.654	.038	.482	.631	14.738	299	.000	0.85
Research	.810	.939	.054	.703	.917	14.945	299	.000	0.86
Collaborative	.478	.750	.043	.393	.563	11.032	299	.000	0.64

The results of paired samples *t*-test showed that the difference between instructors' attributed-values to and perceived-practices of internal orientation to learning was significant, $t(299) = 17.42, p < .001$, with a large effect size of $d=1.01$. Results also showed that the difference between instructors' attributed-values to and perceived-practices of external orientation to learning was significant, $t(299) = 14.74, p < .001$, with a large effect size of $d = .85$. Similarly, the difference between instructors' attributed-values to and perceived-practices of research orientation to learning was significant, $t(299) = 14.95, p < .001$, with a large effect size of $d= .86$. Finally, the difference between instructors' attributed-values to and perceived-practices of collaborative orientation to learning was also significant, $t(299) = 11.03, p < .001$, with a large effect size of $d = .64$. That is, regardless of what type of school instructors were employed at, there was a statistically significant mean difference between their attributed-values to and perceived-practices of learning orientations.

In the second step, *t*-tests for paired samples were rerun based on split responses where the instructors were categorized into two depending on the type of school they were employed at. The mean differences between attributed-values and perceived-practices for each type of orientation to learning are given in Table 16 for both type of schools.

Table 16. Paired Samples *T*-Test for Orientations to Learning: Schools Compared

Type of school employed at	Orientations to Learning Values-Practices	Paired Differences						t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	<i>d</i>
		M	SD	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference						
					Lower	Upper					
State Schools	Internal	.934	.823	.069	.797	1.070	13.562	142	.000	1.13	
	External	.759	.725	.061	.639	.879	12.519	142	.000	1.05	
	Research	1.114	1.015	.085	.946	1.282	13.129	142	.000	1.10	
	Collaborative	.738	.861	.072	.595	.880	10.247	142	.000	0.86	
Foundation Schools	Internal	.564	.597	.048	.470	.658	11.844	156	.000	0.95	
	External	.372	.519	.041	.290	.454	8.979	156	.000	0.72	
	Research	.533	.768	.061	.412	.654	8.697	156	.000	0.69	
	Collaborative	.241	.535	.043	.157	.326	5.651	156	.000	0.45	

The results showed that the mean differences between instructors' attributed-values to and perceived-practices of each type of orientation to learning was significant for both instructors working at state and foundation universities. The difference between attributed-values to and perceived-practices of internal orientation to learning was significant for both groups as $t_{stateschools} (142) = 13.57, p < .001$ with a large effect size of $d = 1.13$ and $t_{foundationschools} (156) = 11.84, p < .001$ with a large effect size of $d = .95$. Similarly, the difference between attributed-values to and perceived-practices of external orientation to learning was significant for both groups as $t_{stateschools} (142) = 12.51, p < .001$ with a large effect size of $d = 1.05$ and $t_{foundationschools} (156) = 8.98, p < .001$ with a large effect size of $d = .72$. Likewise, the difference between attributed-values to and perceived-practices of research orientation to learning was significant for both groups as $t_{stateschools} (142) = 13.13, p < .001$ with a large effect size of $d = 1.10$ and $t_{foundationschools} (156) = 8.70, p < .001$ with a large effect size of $d = .69$. Finally, the difference between attributed-values to and perceived-practices of collaborative orientation to learning was also significant for

both groups as $t_{\text{stateschools}} (142) = 10.25, p < .001$ with a large effect size of $d = .86$ and $t_{\text{foundationschools}} (156) = 5.66, p < .001$ with a medium effect size of $d = .45$.

That is, the groups slightly differed from each other only in terms of their collaborative orientation to learning; the mean difference between the value instructors working at foundation schools attribute to collaborative professional learning and their perceived practice of such types of learning activities was not as large as that of instructors working at state schools. Therefore, descriptively speaking, instructors working at state schools seem not to practice collaborative professional learning activities as much as they value them. Analysis continued with inferential statistics. To determine if there is a relationship between instructors' attributed-values to and perceived-practices of orientations to learning, a bivariate regression analysis was carried out and Pearson's r values (the correlation coefficient) were calculated (Stern, 2010, p. 151). To decide if there is a relationship between attributed-values to and perceived-practices of orientations to learning, the correlation analysis was done categorizing the participants into two based on the type of school they were employed at as in Table 17.

Table 17. Summary of Intercorrelations, Means and Standard Deviations for Value and Practice Scores: Schools Compared

		1	2	M	SD
State School	1. Values Total	-	.191*	3.95	.471
	2. Practices Total	.191*	-	3.09	.664
Foundation School	1. Values Total	-	.532**	4.03	.412
	2. Practices Total	.532**	-	3.60	.547

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The initial correlation test results showed that the Pearson's r value for foundation schools ($r_{\text{foundationschools}} = .532^{**}$) was larger than the Pearson's r value for state schools ($r_{\text{stateschools}} = .191^*$).

In the second step of the correlation test, each Pearson's r value was transformed into a "Z-score so that they become normally distributed" (SAS, 2014, p. 158). As a result of the analysis $r_{\text{stateschools}} = .191^*$ corresponded to $Z_{\text{stateschools}} = .1923$ and $r_{\text{foundationschools}} = .532^{**}$ corresponded to $Z_{\text{foundationschools}} = .5901$.

In the third step of the correlation test, to assess the significance of the difference between two correlation coefficients, namely $r_{\text{stateschools}}$ and $r_{\text{foundationschools}}$, a value of Z_{observed} was calculated, "using the *Fisher r-to-z transformation* formula of $Z_{\text{observed}} = (z_1 - z_2) / (\text{square root of } [(1 / N_1 - 3) + (1 / N_2 - 3)])$ " (SAS, 2014, p.26). The results provided $Z_{\text{observed}} = 3.41$ with $p_{\text{one-tailed}} = .0003$ and $p_{\text{two-tailed}} = .0006$. Therefore, the difference between $r_{\text{foundationschools}} = .532^{**}$ and $r_{\text{stateschools}} = .191^*$ was found to be statistically significant.

The results suggested that there is a stronger relationship between the attributed-values and perceived-practices of professional learning of instructors working at foundation schools. That is, compared to the instructors working at state schools, in foundation schools, the more instructors value a certain type of orientation to learning, the more they are likely to practice it, or equally, the more they practice a certain type of orientation to learning, the more they are likely to value it.

Another source of data pertaining to instructors professional learning was part C of the survey where instructors reported on top three professional development activities that they engaged in the last academic year. The results were analyzed in two steps. In the first step, the results were aggregated for all the participants

regardless of the school they are employed at, to analyze the general tendencies across school types, namely; state schools and foundation schools. Top three professional development activities that all the participants engaged in were: attending workshops (42.3 %), reading professional publications (36.3 %) and attending a conference (34 %) as given in Table 18.

In the second step, the results were split into two groups. While the first group consisted of instructors working at a state school, the second group was composed of instructors employed at a foundation school. Instructors working at state schools did not differ from the whole group as they rated reading professional publications (46.9 %), attending workshops (40.6 %), and attending a conference (38.5 %) as top three professional development activities they engaged in. However, instructors working at foundation schools deviated from the general tendency in their choice of top three professional development activities as they rated attending workshops (43.9%), receiving feedback on teaching (32.5%) and being observed by a mentor (31.8%) or equally by a colleague (31.8%) as the top three forms of professional development activities they participated in.

That is, while instructors working in state schools seem to adopt an external (seeking) orientation to learning primarily, instructors working in foundation schools seem to value an internal (reflective) one. While the former group has a common tendency to consult external professional resources and draw on good practice from other schools and institutions; the latter group is likely to both reflect on teaching practice, experiment new ideas, consult students and participate in external/internal workshops.

Table 18. Top Three Professional Development Activity: Quantitative Results

Quantitative- Top Three PD Activities ^a	All Participants		State	Schools	Foundation Schools	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
attending workshops	127	42.3%	58	40.6%	69	43.9%
reading professional publications	109	36.3%	67	46.9%	42	26.8%
attending a conference	102	34.0%	55	38.5%	47	29.9%
doing academic studies	85	28.3%	54	37.8%	31	19.7%
receiving feedback on teaching	77	25.7%	26	18.2%	51	32.5%
learning from students	75	25.0%	43	30.1%	32	20.4%
being observed by a colleague	72	24.0%	22	15.4%	50	31.8%
being observed by a mentor	65	21.7%	15	10.5%	50	31.8%
taking short courses	41	13.7%	19	13.3%	22	14.0%
presenting at a conference	39	13.0%	18	12.6%	21	13.4%
conducting workshops	36	12.0%	12	8.4%	24	15.3%
carrying out teacher research	36	12.0%	19	13.3%	17	10.8%
attending webinars	23	7.7%	11	7.7%	12	7.6%
observing a mentor	10	3.3%	2	1.4%	8	5.1%
participating in discussion boards	9	3.0%	7	4.9%	2	1.3%
participating in a professional book club	2	0.7%	1	0.7%	1	0.6%
TOTAL	908		429		479	

a. Dichotomy group tabulated at value 1.

The results of the qualitative interview data supported the quantitative survey results in the sense that instructors working at state schools differed from instructors working at foundation schools in terms of professional development activities they joined in. The results are presented in Table 19 as a list of professional development activities based on the answers to the interview questions below:

- Interview question 1: Can you describe your professional learning this year?
 - a) How did it contribute to your professional life?
 - b) If you described it with one adjective, what would it be?

Table 19. Top Three Professional Development Activity: Qualitative Results

Qualitative - Top Three PD Activities	Total	Type Of School Employed			
		State		Foundation	
		n	%	n	%
classroom observations of and by colleagues	7	2	29%	5	71%
attending seminars and conferences	6	4	57%	2	29%
reading	6	4	57%	2	29%
collaborating with colleagues	5	1	14%	4	57%
getting internationally-recognized certificates/diplomas	4	3	43%	1	14%
talking about teaching and learning	4	1	14%	3	43%
personal experience of teaching	4	2	29%	2	29%
following online courses and-or webinars	3	3	43%	0	0%
graduate study	3	2	29%	1	14%
attending workshops	2	1	14%	1	14%
boundary-crossing	2	1	14%	1	14%
in-house development sessions	2	0	0%	2	29%
mentoring	2	1	14%	1	14%
team-teaching	2	0	0%	2	29%
being in touch with other people	1	1	14%	0	0%
learning other languages	1	0	0%	1	14%
peer-coaching	1	0	0%	1	14%
publishing	1	1	14%	0	0%
pursuing further roles in academia	1	1	14%	0	0%
sharing materials	1	0	0%	1	14%
Total (unique)	14	7		7	

The analysis of the interview results confirmed that instructors working at state schools mostly attended seminars and conferences (57%), engaged in reading (57%), got internationally-recognized certificates or diplomas (43%) and followed online courses and-or webinars (43%) while instructors working at foundation schools mostly engaged in observations (71%), collaborated with their colleagues (57%) and talked about teaching and learning (43%).

To gain further insight into why instructors working at a state or foundation university possess different orientations towards professional learning, direct quotations from the interviews are cited below without any interpretations:

Instructors working in state schools:

Workshops is very interesting because again that's a higher authority; somebody coming in from another university or institution and saying "Look! This is what we do for reading; try it out". When you do a workshop with instructors, they say "Yeah! It actually works." So I think higher-authority-led workshops would definitely be effective ... I guess, to learn that I should go to a CELTA [Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages offered by Cambridge Assessment] course or something like that. I mean, we cannot do that here as we don't have a lot of people here who can help us learn those kind of things. (Participant 6)

All of the sessions have been organized by EF Schools and the practitioners were from UK. (Participant 4)

I learn all those from online platforms... Somebody did something so I can tailor it to my classroom... I can get a part and make it a part of the idea that I have already so of course the materials that we have, we use in the classroom they also shape how I shape a lesson. (Participant 11)

I prefer to read some articles especially in certain fields. I tried to keep reading articles and their implications for English language classes. So hopefully, such attempts could help me to keep my theoretical knowledge at a certain level. (Participant 13)

I think it was two years ago. There was these guys from Oxford but of course they just come here and explain us theoretical things all the time! What I want is more like having a workshop... prepare something... do it... apply it... and test the results, etc. The best place for that is a CELTA [Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages offered by Cambridge Assessment] or DELTA [Diploma in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages offered by Cambridge Assessment] course with some practical implications. I don't believe in-service training here is very very successful. Of course, they contribute to our learning but they can be done in a better way. (Participant 12)

Basically, I can say that there is not much close cooperation among the staff members here. (Participant 14)

Instructors working in foundation schools:

As a part of this induction period, we were observed by some experienced teachers and we are going to be observed again soon, in 2 weeks, I think. This time, there are going to be two observers. After each observation, we have some post-observation meetings, we will talk about the points again we are free to share our ideas and if there are some questions we can justify or explain our actions so it is not a kind of an observation that someone comes to

your class, observes you and goes. You have a chance to have a dialogue actually. This was about the being observed. About observing other classes.... We were supposed to focus on one area that we thought we need more input on or more practice on and I chose a target or focus action point. I went to one of the classes with that focus in my mind. I observed the class and after that I wrote a detail report on what I observed, what I learned and what was the outcome of this observation; what I can add to my classes or what I can avoid in my classes. (Participant 10)

TTDU members also visit classes impromptu sometimes; they come and watch the lesson. (Participant 2)

Our head of teaching units, they come to our classes and observe one blog of lesson and they give us some feedback in the end. So it is a source of professional development as well. [...] I want to mention the colleague part... Since we are working in teams here, that's another chance to have collaborations with the other members of the team. I used to work in teams but the teams were smaller than these, so the communication was limited. Now, I have more chance to share my ideas, and also in the classes, in that sessions, we can share our ideas. (Participant 3)

You have the opportunity to observe your partners' teaching style. I watched colleagues conducting lessons, took notes and wrote reports on them. (Participant 8)

It has been very rewarding to share ideas and knowledge with other teachers, with my colleagues, so to speak, we learn from each other. (Participant 1)

I am very glad that we have colleagues in this institution that share their perspectives and experiences or even the you know their education they get from their own institutions and I think that really contributes a lot to my teaching. (Participant 9)

Here in the office, I have a native-speaker colleague from Canada and her being here really feeds me in terms of both personal development, professional development and general knowledge. We share ideas and we talk about different things so I can look at things from a different perspective as a result of our interaction. (Participant 7)

Yeah! I prefer team-teaching or peer observation because I know the person and we are close. It doesn't have to be that I have to know them very closely but at least I know that I can trust them and I know that they would be very honest with me. They wouldn't be looking for mistakes and react with "S/he

did this mistake. No! This cannot happen” attitude or behavior. Of course, this doesn’t always happen when there is authority but the attitude, this very cold and very distant attitude, it freaks me out, I just don’t like it. It is very inhuman, I would say. You need to have this kind of emotional set between two people. (Participant 3)

Maybe it’s because of the fact of interaction. I think to me the type of professional training should involve some interaction. Without any face-to-face interaction I don’t think it would be very effective. So I think it can be anything that involves face-to-face interaction and that allows me to respond to the content or experience the content. ... A trainer or another colleague... It could be anyone. I am not necessarily seeking to see any qualifications there; its more about...even if that person has less experience, I am more in favor of this exchange of the experience and maybe the applicability of that in a social environment. Because teaching is... I mean we are in a field where human factor is involved so instead of seeing it as a theory to memorize I want to see it where human factor is involved. (Participant 9)

Therefore, the results can be summarized to argue that although EFL instructors working in state schools value both internal and external resources, they tend to have some external foci of professional learning and depend mostly on outside experts when it comes down to their actual practice, while EFL instructors working in foundation schools are more likely to both value and practice exploiting internal resources within their schools and collaborating with their coworkers. Likewise, compared to that of instructors working at a state school, there is a stronger relationship between what instructors working at a foundation school value for their professional learning and what they actually practice.

Research Question: What are EFL instructors’ orientations towards professional learning in their workplace?

- b. What are the differences between instructors’ perceptions of self-reported learning practices and beliefs about these practices?

In order to answer sub-research question (b), quantitative results obtained from part B of the teacher learning self-evaluation survey are discussed. To reveal the mean differences between EFL instructors' self-reported practice of particular forms of learning activities and beliefs about these practices, *t*-test for paired samples (Stern, 2010, p. 258) were calculated by SPSS 20 in two steps.

Initially, to understand EFL instructors' attributed-values and perceived-practices of specific categories of professional learning activities, *t*-tests for paired samples were calculated pertaining to "a) learning in relation to instructional practice; b) consulting different sources of knowledge; c) sharing collaborative activity; d) talking about and valuing learning; and e) exploring teachers' role in the learning process" (Feeney, 2011, p. 95).

The results of *t*-tests for paired samples showed that the mean difference between attributed-values to and perceived-practices of professional learning activity was significant for each category as given in Table 20.

Table 20. Paired Samples *T*-Test for Learning Activities: All Participants

Types of Learning Activities Values-Practices	Paired Differences				<i>t</i>	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	<i>d</i>	
	M	SD	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference					
				Lower					Upper
a) Learning in relation to instructional practice	.768	.749	.043	.683	.853	17.762	299	.000	1.03
b) Consulting different sources of knowledge	.604	.699	.040	.525	.684	14.976	299	.000	0.86
c) Sharing collaborative activity	.636	.926	.053	.531	.741	11.900	299	.000	0.69
d) Talking about and valuing learning	.364	.695	.040	.285	.443	9.081	299	.000	0.52
e) Exploring teacher's role in the learning process	.774	.886	.051	.673	.875	15.133	299	.000	0.87

The mean difference between attributed-values to and perceived-practices of learning in relation to practice was significant, $t(299) = 17.77, p < .001$, with a large effect size of $d = 1.03$. The mean difference between attributed-values to and perceived-practices of consulting different sources of knowledge was also significant, $t(299) = 14.98, p < .001$, with a large effect size of $d = .86$. Likewise, the mean differences between attributed-values to and perceived-practices of sharing collaborative activity and talking about and valuing learning were significant, $t_{\text{sharingcollaborativeactivity}}(299) = 11.90, p < .001$ and $t_{\text{talkingaboutandvaluinglearning}}(299) = 9.08, p < .001$, with large effect sizes of $d = .69$ and $d = .52$, respectively. Finally, the mean difference between attributed-values to and perceived-practices of exploring teacher's role in the learning process was significant $t(299) = 15.13, p < .001$ with a large $d = .87$. Descriptively speaking, these results indicated that there is a statistically significant mean difference between instructors' attributed-values to and perceived-practices of professional learning activities.

Later, to decide if there is a relationship between instructors' attributed-value to and perceived-practice of certain types of professional learning activities, a bivariate regression analysis was carried out and Pearson's r values (the correlation coefficient) were calculated (Stern, 2010, p. 151). Firstly, to decide if the mean difference between factor scores of attributed-values and perceived-practices were significant, the regression analysis was done including all participants regardless of the type of school they were employed at. The results as given in Table 21 revealed a statistically significant correlation between instructors' attributed-values to and perceived-practices of professional learning activities with an $r = .350^{**}$.

Table 21. Summary of Intercorrelations, Means and Standard Deviations for Instructors' Values and Practices of Professional Learning Activities: All Participants

	1	2	M	SD
Values Total	-	.350**	3.99	.442
Practices Total	.350**	-	3.36	.656

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

In the second step, to decide if such a significant correlation was true for each category of professional learning activity in two different types of schools, correlation analysis was rerun based on split data where participants were categorized according to the type of school they were employed at. Initially, to decide if the difference between factor scores of attributed-values and perceived-practices were significant, the regression analysis was rerun on split data. Later, each Pearson's r value was transformed into a Z -score so that they become normally distributed. In the third step, to assess the significance of the difference between two correlation coefficients, a value of Z_{observed} was calculated, using the *Fisher r -to- z transformation* formula of " $Z_{\text{observed}} = (z_1 - z_2) / (\sqrt{[(1 / N_1 - 3) + (1 / N_2 - 3)]})$ ". The results, given in Table 22, showed that, for both groups of instructors, there is a significant relationship between their attributed-values to and perceived-practices of four types of professional learning activities, namely a) learning in relation to instructional practice, $r_{\text{stateschools}} = .198^*$ and $r_{\text{foundationschools}} = .377^{**}$; b) consulting different sources of knowledge, $r_{\text{stateschools}} = .180^*$ and $r_{\text{foundationschools}} = .466^{**}$; d) talking about and valuing learning, $r_{\text{stateschools}} = .413^{**}$ and $r_{\text{foundationschools}} = .543^{**}$; and e) exploring teacher's role in the learning process, $r_{\text{stateschools}} = .170^*$ and $r_{\text{foundationschools}} = .308^{**}$.

Table 22. Summary of Intercorrelations, Means and Standard Deviations for Instructors' Values and Practices of Professional Learning Activities: Schools Compared

Types of Professional Learning Activities	Type of school	<i>r</i>		M	SD	<i>r</i> -to- <i>Z</i>	<i>Z</i> _{observed}
		between values and practices					
a) Learning in relation to instructional practice	State	.198*		4.15	.469	0.1923	1.68
	Foundation	.377**		4.09	.467	0.3884	
b) Consulting different sources of knowledge	State	.180*		3.94	.535	0.1820	2.70
	Foundation	.466**		4.01	.489	0.4973	
c) Sharing collaborative activity	State	.160		3.53	.745	0.1614	4.15
	Foundation	.569**		3.58	.648	0.6328	
d) Talking about and valuing learning	State	.413**		4.03	.650	0.4356	1.45
	Foundation	.543**		4.19	.492	0.6042	
e) Exploring teacher's role in the learning process	State	.170*		4.07	.604	0.1717	1.26
	Foundation	.308**		4.27	.528	0.3095	

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
 **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Participants differed from each other only in one category of professional learning activities, namely c) sharing collaborative activity. While there was a statistically significant relationship between the attributed-value of instructors working at foundation schools and their perceived-practices of sharing collaborative activity, $r_{\text{foundationschools}} = .569^{**}$, there was no such relationship for the instructors working in state schools, $r_{\text{stateschools}} = .160$.

Analysis was furthered by the exploration of data at item-level. After the calculation of the value and practice means, a standardized value-practice mean difference was computed for each of the twenty-nine items through non-parametric statistics, which was appropriate when analyzing ordinal (or discrete) data (Sprinthall, 2003). Item-level data was analyzed and given in Table 23 to specify

which specific type of activity instructors from two different work settings highly valued but not commonly practiced, with a standardized mean difference having a minimum effect size of $d = .3$.

Table 23. Summary of Learning Activities with High Value-Low Practice Scores
Learning Activities (High Value-Low Practice): $r \geq .3$

	State Schools	Foundation Schools
Survey Items (A)	A1, A2, A3, A4, A6	A2, A5
Survey Items (B)	B3, B4, B5	B4
Survey Items (C)	C2, C4, C5	-
Survey Items (D)	-	-
Survey Items (E)	E1, E2, E4, E5	E4, E5

The detailed comparison of item-level statistics is provided in the appendices (Appendix H). An initial analysis, comparing instructors from state and foundation schools, yielded the following outcomes:

State Schools

- The asymptomatic significance level is at $p < .05$ for each item in part two of the survey. The difference between attributed value to and actual practice of professional learning activities were significant for all twenty-nine items in the survey. That is, instructors working in state schools have higher attributed value towards professional learning activities compared to their actual practice.
- Values were noticeably high (above 4 out of 5) for instructors to “see how practices that work in one context might be adapted to their contexts” (A2); to “reflect on their practice as a way of identifying professional learning needs” (A3); “to experiment with their practice for improving teaching and learning”

(A4); “to modify their practice in the light of feedback from their students” (A5); “to consult students about how they learn most effectively” (B4); “to attend workshops or in-service classes to further their learning” (B5); “to ensure that themselves as well as their students learn in their school” (D1); “to suggest ideas or approaches for colleagues to try in class” (D3); “to offer one another reassurance and support” (D6); “to determine what and how they should learn for improving their practice” (E1); “to decide how to structure and use their time for improving their practice” (E2); and “to have the flexibility to change and reshape their professional learning plan, if an approach is not working” (E5).

- The smallest attributed high value to professional learning practices was related to “sharing collaborative activity”; none of the items in this category was rated as important in terms of instructors’ professional learning and development.
- Attributed values-actual practice gaps were apparent for items with a minimum medium effect size ($r \geq .3$); relating their practice to research findings (A1); adapting what works in their contexts into their own (A2, A6); reflecting on their practice (A3) and experimenting with it for improving teaching and learning (A4); consulting professional resources and students about how they learn most effectively (B3, B4); attending workshops or in-service classes to further their learning (B5); collaborating with their colleagues to carry out joint research, to co-teach and to regularly observe each other in the classroom and give each other feedback (C2, C4, C5); being consulted about how they learn most effectively and determining what, when and how to learn professionally with the flexibility to change and reshape their professional learning plan (E2, E1, E4, E5), if an approach is not working.

Foundation Schools:

- The asymptomatic significance level is at $p < .05$ for each item in part two of the survey. Every item in the categories of “learning in relation to instructional practice”, “exploring teacher’s role in the learning process” and “consulting different sources of knowledge” was significant. However, in the domain of “talking about and valuing learning”, only three items were significant; “ensuring that themselves as well as their students learn in their school” (D1); “suggesting ideas or approaches for colleagues to try in class” (D3); “discussing openly with colleagues what and how they are learning” (D4). Within the domain of “sharing collaborative activity” four out of six items were significant; “carrying out joint research with one or more colleagues” (C2); “regularly observing each other in the classroom and giving each other feedback” (C4); “engaging in co-teaching as a way of improving practice” (C5); “making collective agreements to test out new ideas” (C6).
- Values were noticeably high (above 4 out of 5) for instructors to “see how practices that work in one context might be adapted to their contexts” (A2); “to reflect on their practice as a way of identifying professional learning needs” (A3); “to experiment with their practice for improving teaching and learning” (A4); “to modify their practice in the light of feedback from their students” (A5); “to consult professional resources and students about how they learn most effectively” (B3, B4); “to attend workshops or in-service classes to further their learning” (B5).
- The smallest reported practice of professional learning practices was related to “carrying out joint research with one or more colleagues as a way of improving

their practice” (C2: $m = 2.6$) and “engaging in co-teaching as a way of improving practice” (C5: $m = 2.9$).

- Attributed values-actual practice gaps were apparent for items with a minimum medium effect size ($r \geq .3$); seeing “how practices that work in one context might be adapted to their contexts” (A2); “modifying their practice in the light of feedback from their students” (A5); “being consulted about how they learn most effectively” (E4) and “having the flexibility to change and reshape their professional learning plan, if an approach is not working” (E5).
- Each and every learning activity within the domains of “consulting different sources of knowledge”, “sharing collaborative activity” and “talking about and valuing learning” was rated high both in attributed values and actual practices; therefore, they all had a small effect sizes ($r < .29$). In other words, instructor-centered learning practices were constantly described not only as strongly-valued but also reported as actually taking place. Instructors working in foundation schools valued and practiced collaborating, consulting each other and engaging in collegial exchange with their coworkers.

Descriptively speaking, the results can be summarized to argue that instructors working in state schools are more limited in their actual practice of professional learning activities they value, compared to the ones working at foundation schools.

Research Question: What are EFL instructors’ orientations towards professional learning in their workplace?

- c. What factors do they believe affect their professional learning?

In order to answer sub-research question (c), both quantitative results obtained from teacher learning self-evaluation survey, part C, and results obtained from relevant interview questions are cited. The interview question related to research question c, is as below:

- Interview question 3: What factors influenced your professional learning?

The discussion of results starts with the quantitative findings, which are later supported with qualitative ones.

To identify the greatest influences pertaining to Turkish EFL instructors' workplace learning, in part C of the survey, instructors were asked to choose top three factors which had the greatest influence on their professional learning. Multiple response set were analyzed through SPSS 20 as a multiple dichotomy set and the results were displayed in a frequency table.

In the first step, the responses were analyzed for all the participants, regardless of the type of the school they work at as given in Table 24. Top three factors that Turkish EFL instructors reported as posing greatest influence on their professional learning were: personal experience of teaching (73.3%); students (41.3%); and colleagues (37.7%). Such factors directly pertain to day-to-day work of instructors, which indicates that their workplace learning relates to central elements situated in the context and structures of their workplace.

On the other hand, such a result does not cross out the role of outside influences on instructors' learning when other influences instructors reported are taken into consideration: professional development (36.3%); in-service classes (18.7%); and reading (15.7%).

Table 24. Top Three Influential Factors on Instructors' Professional Learning

Top Three Influential Factors on Professional Learning ^a	All Participants		State Schools		Foundation Schools	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Personal experience	220	73.3%	105	73.4%	115	73.2%
Students	124	41.3%	71	49.7%	53	33.8%
Colleagues	113	37.7%	42	29.4%	67	42.7%
Professional development process	109	36.3%	47	32.9%	66	42.0%
In -service activities/classes	56	18.7%	28	19.6%	28	17.8%
Reading	47	15.7%	26	18.2%	22	14.0%
Experience as a student	45	15.0%	25	17.5%	19	12.1%
Advanced degree coursework	42	14.0%	20	14.0%	22	14.0%
Reading Research	35	11.7%	22	15.4%	13	8.3%
Doing Research	30	10.0%	19	13.3%	11	7.0%
Working with consultants	25	8.3%	9	6.3%	16	10.2%
Training other teachers	23	7.7%	5	3.5%	18	11.5%
Former teacher	16	5.3%	8	5.6%	8	5.1%
Leader	10	3.3%	0	0.0%	10	6.4%
Family	4	1.3%	1	0.7%	3	1.9%
ELSE	1	0.3%	1	0.7%	0	0.0%
TOTAL	900		429		471	

a. Dichotomy group tabulated at value 1.

In the second step, multiple dichotomy set was reanalyzed based on split responses, categorizing the instructors into two groups depending on the type of school they were employed at to observe different factors, if there are any. Instructors working both at state (73.4%) and foundation (73.2%) schools rated their personal experience as the most influential factor on their professional learning. While the first group prioritized students (49.7%) over professional development process (32.9%), the latter group reported their colleagues (42.7%) as equally influential on their professional learning as the professional development process is (42 %).

Interview results supported the quantitative results since they commonly mentioned “personal experience of teaching”, “students” and “colleagues” as certain

key factors affecting their professional learning. To gain further insight into why instructors believe that such factors affect their professional learning, direct quotations from the interviews are cited below without any interpretations:

Personal experience of teaching

Well, we don't have a lot of in-service trainings here so we rarely have such occasions of you know collaborating and exchanging ideas. We don't often participate in training courses here but all our professional learning happens in the classroom, itself. That's limited to what we are doing in class. Of course, each year you have different students with different needs. Hmm... Every year, I have students from different socio-economic backgrounds. So... Hm... Yah! Every year, I just learn to fit in myself. (Participant 12 - working at a state school)

Basically, for the last two or three years, I do only teaching. My professional learning is limited with in-class teaching actually. I don't do much outside the classroom, except reading something... Other than that, it is really limited with the in-class teaching. I mean what I do in class is a kind of professional learning going on always ... I learnt how to teach what somehow, by trial and error, I know what to do in class by intuition somehow, it is not intuition, it is experience ... Real training comes as a result of real classroom experience. (Participant 13 - working at a state school)

It was educational, it was a totally new experience and it helped me to realize some things about my own teaching style, which I can apply to my own teaching in the future. It was good for my self-development so this personal experience is one of the factors. (Participant 8 - working at a foundation school)

Students

First, students... My main concern there is what students need. I mean their profile influenced my professional learning a lot. I mean, their expectations from me as a teacher and how I can make my classes more appealing to them... their concerns, their interests... that really leads me to certain ways... through those ways I professionally develop and improve myself. That is, I think, the most powerful influence and I feel it. That really helps for their motivation first and they really feel that this teacher is doing something for us; both for himself and us. They really respect you. They acknowledge it really. I mean among all those factors, the most important one is that. (Participant 4 - working at a state school)

My teaching is actually shaped by the qualities of the students in the classrooms I can say I learn more from the students than my colleagues. Yes,

we chit chat, yes we exchange materials, ideas, etc. We have a curriculum office preparing everything for us. Testing office creates all the tests for us but still whatever you get from anyone may not work in a particular situation or in a particular class. So my teaching is basically, practically, shaped by the people that I am teaching to. (Participant 13 - working at a state school)

I could say the interest of my students here... I realized that standard course books fail to meet the need of our students and this realization also influenced my professional learning. I noticed that I need to learn more about how to teach vocational English to this specific group. So I can say the interest of our students, the feedback that we elicit from them and their proficiency level, I think, plays a significant role in our professional learning. (Participant 14 - working at a state school)

I developed my awareness regarding all different needs of students and of course the conceptual framework of differentiated instruction. I learnt that students' needs have to affect the way I teach. *have to* [emphasis added], I need to highlight that. Those needs have to affect the way I teach, have to affect the materials I use and even the speed of my talk. [...] In a way, my students also affected my professional learning. They are one of the factors. Because I got these feedbacks from my students, now I know what to focus on and how to develop myself in which areas. (Participant 2 - working at a foundation school)

Student expectations might also be a factor. If the group of students are demanding, if they are different, you have to do something different as well to meet such expectations. ... So they are definitely one of the factors because you are with those students all the time and you have to do something in a different way. Every day, you observe their response and attitude because you spend a lot of time with them so it affects you as well. If they don't respond well, they cannot continue to do the things that you are doing. (Participant 3 - working at a foundation school)

I think the biggest factor for my professional learning is the class dynamic. ... So as I was saying in the class dynamics, needs, and what I observed from their performance should be a priority while choosing the type of activity in there. (Participant 9 - working at a foundation school)

Colleagues

Your colleagues is also a factor but not as strong as the others. After some time, you just start to resemble them; you just become very similar after some time. Like anything else, professionalism also spreads. If you see around yourself many people who are just very motivated and would like to do more to learn and improve themselves professionally through different types of

activities in different platforms, you look at them and flow with them. If you see many lazy, forget-about-it, that-doesn't-work, never-mind people, then you also start to be like them. (Participant 4 - working at a state school)

Since we are working in teams here, that's another chance to have collaborations with the other members of the team. I used to work in teams but the teams were smaller than these, so the communication was limited. Now, I have more chance to share my ideas, and also in the classes, in that sessions, we can share our ideas that is I think about the colleague part. (Participant 10 - working at a foundation school)

I experienced both types of observations; the TTDU visit and the peer observation one and I prefer the latter one. I think it is being more relaxed because they are teacher trainers and although we don't have a system of failing or passing in TTDU visits still that's more formal. You have your pre-observation conferences and post observation conferences, etc. I think although I accept their relevancy and I know that they are very important, I see them a little strict and stiff. I like the flexibility and I like the friendliness in the peer one. I think the TTDU observations are more structured because of that it is more school-like whereas peer observations are more like learning on the go. (Participant 2 - working at a foundation school)

I am very glad that we have colleagues in this institution that share their perspectives and experiences I think that really contributes a lot to my teaching. The most specific example comes from the you know we had a session by XXXX [referring to one of their colleagues whose name is covered by the researcher] about using the six different hats while evaluating a situation so upon her suggestion I thought that I could incorporate this speaking and writing because my current students have a real problem in producing the content. (Participant 9 - working at a foundation school)

Factors supporting professional learning

To identify the factors which supported Turkish EFL instructors' workplace learning, in part C of the survey, instructors were asked to choose top three factors which contributed to their professional learning. Multiple response set were analyzed through SPSS version 20 as a multiple dichotomy set and the results were displayed in a frequency table. In the first step, the responses were analyzed for all the participants, regardless of the type of the school they work at as given in Table 25.

Table 25. Factors Supporting Instructors' Professional Learning

Supporting Factors ^a	All		State	Schools	Foundation			
	Participants				N	%	Schools	
	N	%					N	%
Collaborative environment	182	60.7%	79	55.2%	103	65.6%		
Autonomy in decision making	152	50.7%	76	53.1%	76	48.4%		
Shared decision-making	94	31.3%	42	29.4%	52	33.1%		
Culture of trust	78	26.0%	30	21.0%	48	30.6%		
Professional development days	75	25.0%	40	28.0%	35	22.3%		
Teacher led initiatives e.g. Doing research	68	22.7%	30	21.0%	38	24.2%		
Regular instructors and team meetings	61	20.3%	32	22.4%	29	18.5%		
Study groups e.g. Teacher focus groups	48	16.0%	31	21.7%	17	10.8%		
Budget and resources	48	16.0%	27	18.9%	21	13.4%		
Open communication with principal	40	13.3%	15	10.5%	25	15.9%		
Opportunities to lead	31	10.3%	11	7.7%	20	12.7%		
Strong principal	12	4.0%	5	3.5%	7	4.5%		
None of the supporting factors listed	2	0.7%	2	1.4%	0	0.0%		
TOTAL	891		420		471			

a. Dichotomy group tabulated at value 1.

In the second step, multiple dichotomy set was reanalyzed based on split responses, categorizing the instructors into two groups depending on the type of school they were employed at. Results did not reveal any difference in the ranking of supporting factors between instructors working at state or foundation schools; as both groups reported the very same items as the top three supporting factors with minor differences in statistics respectively; “collaborative environment” (55,2% - 65,6%), “autonomy in decision making” (53,1% - 48,4%) and “shared decision-making” (29,4% - 33,1%).

Interview results supported the quantitative results since instructors mainly mentioned “collaborative environment” as the key factor developing their professional learning. However, the other themes (“autonomy in decision making” and “shared decision-making”) did not emerge from the analysis of interview

content. To gain further insight into why instructors “collaborative environment” as the key factor supporting their professional learning, direct quotations from the interviews are cited below without any interpretations:

Collaborative Environment

I mean obviously sharing with the coworkers... That’s something really important and something that I do on a daily basis. So sharing your different techniques with the team is something definitely positive (Participant 6 - working at a state school)

Well, it has always been intrinsic for me so and some outside effects might also have an impact on my professional learning because you see other people around you sharing ideas and you say “Aha! This guy is doing something really fun and useful so how I can do that in my classroom? I should go and ask.” It doesn’t happen very often but sometimes this happens. So colleagues is one of them. (Participant 11 - working at a state school)

My colleagues also play a role in my professional learning. It is important with whom you share a room and with whom you are partnering a class. It really depends on your partner; if your partner is a strong body, you also get that strength and you improve yourself because you need to reach the same level. However, if that body is a never-mind-person, then you also don’t pay much attention. Here in the office, I have a native-speaker colleague and her being here really feeds me in terms of both personal development, professional development and general knowledge. We share ideas, we collaborate and we talk about different things so I can look at things from a different perspective as a result of our interaction. (Participant 4 - working at a state school)

Institutional culture has a serious impact on your teaching as well as it influences your personality so that in-service training helped us to you know build relationships not only within new teachers but also senior teachers and other colleagues and even with the administrative people (Participant 2 - working at a foundation school)

So when you have so many responsibilities, on top of all these, how would you improve yourself even if you wanted to do that? That becomes overwhelming and unrealistic in these conditions. Colleagues may help, of course. If you have supportive colleagues, if you have colleagues who can inspire you, I think it would be another source of motivation. In the school that I am just currently working, I am surrounded by a lot of colleagues who are trying to improve themselves because I think it is a common feature of us in the school; we always try to improve what we have been doing. Even if you are experienced, you want to change. I think colleagues are very

important. They should support and inspire you. (Participant 3 - working at a foundation school)

Collaboration... Hearing their experiences or ideas or you know intellectual discussions. Any activity they carry out as a way of... even a type of activity they carried out in the classroom. They can be, I can be a part this too, as I am participating either as part of audience or as a student that activity, I am directly experiencing it and then having a follow-up discussion after that. I really think these kind of stuff remain more in the memory and help us more to become selective about what to choose from the whole process of professional learning. Because in the other way, you are just exposed to something and you say “ok! It sounds nice, let me try” you don’t really know if it fits because you haven’t tried it. If it is in the form of a social interaction, there is this part where you are allowed to try it yourself as a student maybe. There is like a small test-run of it and you can give your reflection on it and your feelings as a student. So I think any type of agency... there agency could be taking the role of a learner or being empathetic with the learner... it strengthens the context and content of the session... (Participant 9 - working at a foundation school)

I can say it is a combination of factors helping my professional learning one of them is my colleagues, I learn from them, depends on the communication that I have with my colleagues. Sometimes it is just checking the materials sometimes it is talking about the ideas of teaching or something like that... (Participant 10 - working at a foundation school)

These results suggest that collaborative environment facilitates instructors’ decisions to engage in professional learning practices and therefore influences their learning. Such factors highlight the importance of social and collegial interactions in the context of a school for professional learning. Likewise, the recurrent idea of co-participation indicates that instructors’ professional learning is situated in the school.

Factors hindering professional learning (Barriers)

To identify the factors which supported Turkish EFL instructors’ workplace learning, in part C of the survey, instructors were asked to choose top three factors which hindered their professional learning. Multiple response set were analyzed through

SPSS 20 as a multiple dichotomy set and the results were displayed in a frequency table.

In the first step, the responses were analyzed for all the participants, regardless of the type of the school they work at as given in Table 26. The top three factors that EFL instructors rated as hindering their professional learning were: lack of time (56 %); lack of money/budget (37.3%); and lack of collaborative culture (36.3%).

Table 26. Factors Hindering Instructors’ Professional Learning (Barriers)

Barriers ^a	All Participants		State Schools		Foundation Schools	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Lack of time	168	56.0%	67	46.9%	101	64.3%
No budget money	112	37.3%	48	33.6%	64	40.8%
Lack of collaborative culture	109	36.3%	66	46.2%	43	27.4%
Lack of a shared vision and values	95	31.7%	62	43.4%	33	21.0%
Diverse challenging student population	84	28.0%	27	18.9%	57	36.3%
No administrative support	73	24.3%	42	29.4%	31	19.7%
Teacher attitudes	65	21.7%	31	21.7%	34	21.7%
Lack of communication	55	18.3%	32	22.4%	23	14.6%
Lack of trust with instructors	40	13.3%	17	11.9%	23	14.6%
Lack of leadership skills	27	9.0%	13	9.1%	14	8.9%
Lack of experience	22	7.3%	8	5.6%	14	8.9%
No leadership opportunities	21	7.0%	9	6.3%	12	7.6%
ELSE Barriers	10	3.3%	3	2.1%	7	4.5%
None of the barriers listed	1	0.3%	0	0.0%	1	0.6%
TOTAL	882		425		457	

a. Dichotomy group tabulated at value 1.

In the second step, multiple dichotomy set was reanalyzed based on split responses, categorizing the instructors into two groups depending on the type of school they were employed at to observe different factors, if there are any.

Instructors working both at state (46.9%) and foundation (64.3%) schools rated “lack

of time” as the most challenging barrier impeding their professional learning. While the first group was challenged by “lack of collaborative culture” (46,2%) and “lack of a shared vision and values” (43,4%), the latter group reported “lack of budget/money” (40.8%) and “diverse challenging student population” (36.3%) as the common factors blocking their professional learning.

Interview results supported the quantitative results since instructors commonly mentioned “lack of time”, “lack of collaborative culture”, “lack of a shared vision and values”, and “diverse challenging student population” as the common factors blocking their professional learning. To gain further insight into why instructors believe that such factors affect their professional learning, direct quotations from the interviews are cited below without any interpretations:

Lack of time

First of all, we don't have much time and we just teach and leave. Secondly, there is no teacher training unit. This means no obligation to do anything. No follow-up mechanism. (Participant 13- working at a state school)

Time. It is just time [laughter]. The sad thing is that all of the conferences were done in September and that is very interesting because what happened is we finished the semester, everybody went on holiday, we came back from the holiday in September there was this conference about the wonderful developments that you can do and then just two days later the usual program started [laughter]. So there was no change! (Participant 6- working at a state school)

To be more specific, I think the teaching time...if you have a lot of hours of up-front teaching every week, if it is too many, how can you improve yourself? How can you find the time to do some research and discover yourself? You need to think about your teaching at the end of every day and if there is no time and if you get exhausted each and every day, you just want to get out of class and forget about everything. The number of teaching hours per week should be less. Right now it is around 20-25 hours and it is too much because you need to prepare before and you need to do a lot of paperwork afterwards; marking, preparing exams, keeping track of everything, too many documentations to follow (attendance, grade sheets, etc.). So when you have so many responsibilities, on top of all these, when

would you improve yourself even if you wanted to do that? (Participant 3- working at a foundation school)

Lack of collaborative culture and shared vision/values (State Schools)

Here it is a state school and people have habits. Every new thing is like an extra burden on them and they feel that what is going to happen what are we going to do more so if they believe that something is really good then they do it. But it takes a long time. We have some older, I actually don't want to use this old word, more experienced teachers, let's say. Usually I just don't share anything with them because when you start to talk about that issue, they just look down on you and they say "You know, I have this much time of experience in teaching and I know more" so I don't share those things with them. (Participant 4)

Here I did a very big change actually about the whole curriculum. But again in that step, the most resistant group were my colleagues. We used to have a full-year track program and changed it into a modular curricula program and our programs were very flexible as we had the quarters system. Just after one year, all the instructors were complaining about that because it brought extra burden on them such as some administrative paperwork and portfolio system, etc. they were protesting against that change. (Participant 5)

Now I speak as a foreigner not as a Turk, I find it that Turks tend to take things more personally, which is a bit unfortunate because it means whenever you want to talk about different techniques or different things that you do in the classroom, the reaction is "Why are you telling me this? Do you think I don't know how to do my job?" That's the reaction that I get. Whenever I try to share something very often not all the time in some cases I have very good relationships with my coworkers but sometimes I feel there is some attrition because other teachers take it very personally ... The easiest way is to go directly to my coordinator. Instead of sharing with my coworkers, I just go straight to my coordinator and say "I have done this in class and this worked well but this was not very good; maybe we should do these things here". That is easier than sharing with my coworkers because of that negative reaction I get from my colleagues "I have my own method and my own technique, I don't care!" but if I tell my coordinator, that's great. (Participant 6)

Right people? Not all of them but some. Some people are not very open to sharing ideas or you know professional learning, so to speak. So it might be some people. It is about to be able to see that most of us are on the same page when it comes to teaching and learning. Then, you have this culture and you don't say "That teacher is doing this and that's wrong" instead of saying "We are doing the same thing and its right". (Participant 11)

A lot of teachers that I see don't think that there is anything to learn. So readiness is important plus your paradigm as a teacher. Your paradigm should be flexible if you have a paradigm just set in stone or learning philosophy just set in stone, which I frequently observe in this institution -some teachers have those beliefs which are really hard to change- and if you have that paradigm which is so hard to change, then professional learning doesn't do much!

(Participant 12)

But when it was with colleagues who are not open to new ideas or that were feeling insecure about using these ideas then it actually inhibited both my motivation and performance. Because sometimes it can be an issue... I remember I had this colleague... I was strictly told by this colleague of mine that I shouldn't be using some, you know, fun ways of teaching or these innovative ways that I learnt from elsewhere because that partner of mine said that this makes him/her look bad in the eye of the students and it increases student expectations. So I was already feeling some sort of psychological pressure in that case. (Participant 13)

Basically, I can say that there is not much close cooperation among the staff members here. So I think this is something upsetting for us. Maybe we need to think about how we can increase cooperation among us, among the lecturers who give English classes here. Somehow we try to maintain cooperation at a certain level and I think our leaning may have helped us to be open to suggestion but I haven't observed a direct influence of my professional learning on our cooperation with our colleagues. (Participant 14)

Diverse challenging student population (Foundation Schools)

The classes are intense, a lot of things going on in class and they have to learn a lot of things and high school education... You know, they are not ready for... preparatory school is like a foundation year and they are not ready after high school. Lots of concepts and everything... So I just ask them like whatever you need before... if you know this, if not I have a backup plan...

(Participant 2)

Exams are a big source of anxiety for students so they always worry about you know high stake exams so they question: "If we do things differently, would it affect us in the exams?". It is not about their learning but about their exam scores, unfortunately. There are some students they feel that they are learning something and if they feel it. If I focus on writing an essay for a very long time, they understand that they need it and if they improve themselves, if they feel more confident on top of that if they receive a better grade in the exam, then they appreciate you. If they get a low grade, things can change in a negative way. "Hocam, shall we do it in a different way? Shall we do more writing?" (Participant 3)

Because of the needs of the students, the needs of the departments, the institution here and there is a certain track and you cannot go outside of that track. So, you are limited in your choice of different strategies and methods because they don't appeal to the students even. Even if the institution supports you, sometimes students don't want to do such "stupid" things in the classes because they are exam-oriented and they just want to pass the proficiency exam. In that sense, those professional courses, conferences and symposiums stay there. This proficiency exam is a big limitation actually because if you teach students how to do well in a test, you are a perfect teacher. However, if you do some hands-on-things, for example, if you try creative drama with one of your classes and ask them "What did we do today? What did you learn?", there is no answer. So they would like to learn or see some concrete things in their hand, that's difficult. (Participant 7)

There are also other students who just resist. But usually, maybe it is weird to tell this but, they usually acknowledge your effort more when they compare you with other teachers in the following semesters when that group of students are not in my class anymore and have a new instructor. They always talk with their peers and friends in other classes and they exchange ideas and feelings. They compare and contrast the teachers, the qualities they have. "Are you doing just whatever on the document or are you doing something different?" They might somehow panic when you do something different because they say "Hocam! the other classes did unit 5, are we going to do it? We are a little bit behind." They might say that first but in time, they understand what you are trying to do because each teacher has a different way of doing things, depending on their class you have your own priorities, etc. they trust you... I mean, if they trust you, they respond well to the changes you made otherwise they may just resist. (Participant 9)

Obviously I learn a lot from my students but how I work with my students I mean one sad thing is that I found it Turkish students are so task-oriented. I mean because they have been trained to as they say in Turkish "sınav çözmek" they want to resolve the exam they want to solve these questions and that is very odd from a European point of view. Of course we have students who approach exams in that way but there is a focus on learning. I mean the reason why you go to school or university is because you are learning something and the object of the exam is to see how much you learnt. But in Turkey, that's not the concept. I mean with all these dersane [private teaching institution] and stuff like, the focus is you pass the exam. That's the end that's not the means. exam is not a means; it is the end. (Participant 10)

The results can be summarized to suggest that EFL instructors working at both state and foundation schools were challenged by the lack of time in terms of their professional learning and their active participation to such learning activities.

The results showed that different workplace settings imposed different barriers to instructors' professional learning; while instructors working at state schools suffered from the lack of collaborative culture within their institutions, instructors working at foundation schools were challenged by diverse student population.

Research Question: What are EFL instructors' orientations towards professional learning in their workplace?

- d) How do they believe their professional learning affect the way they work with;
- i. their colleagues,
 - ii. their students?

In order to answer sub-research question (d), results obtained from relevant interview questions are analyzed separately. The interview question related to research question d, is as below:

- Interview Question 4. Has your learning influenced how you work with your colleagues and if so, how?
- Interview Question 5. Has your learning influenced how you work with your students and if so, how?

The results of instructors' interview responses were analyzed through constant comparative analysis method using NVivo version 12, *quantitized* based on the number of instructors' responses and presented in separate frequency tables. This process allowed for global categories or themes to emerge. Direct quotes from the interviews were provided right after relevant frequency tables to support the initial numbers and further reveal instructors' perspectives.

The influence of instructors' professional learning on working with colleagues

The results as given in Table 27 showed that less than half of fourteen instructors (43%) who participated in the interviews believed that their professional learning affected the way they work with their colleagues. While a limited number of them (14%) thought that such an effect was only true for a specific group of coworkers, the rest (57%) reported that their learning had an influence on: (a) the way they build relationships with their colleagues and collaborate; (b) the way they develop instructional practices and (c) the way they share ideas.

Table 27. The Perceived-Influence of Instructors' Professional Learning on Their Colleagues

Influence of professional learning on working with colleagues	State Schools		Foundation Schools		Total (14)	
	# of participants mentioned	%	# of participants mentioned	%	# of participants mentioned	%
No Influence	5	71%	1	14%	6	43%
People Specific	1	14%	1	14%	2	14%
Yes- Influence on:	3	43%	5	71%	8	57%
Building Relationships and Collaborating	1	14%	1	14%	2	14%
Developing Instructional Practices	0	0%	3	43%	3	21%
Sharing Ideas	2	29%	2	29%	4	29%
Total (unique)	7	100%	7	100%	14	100%

The results were cross-tabulated to observe differences in instructors working at state and foundation schools. While 71% of instructors working at state schools believed that their professional learning did not have any influence on the way they work with their colleagues, only 14% of those employed at foundation schools did

so. Those instructors who believed that their learning had no influence on how they work with their colleagues stated their perceptions as below:

So I wouldn't say that how my learning influenced how I work with my colleagues: zero, neutral, nothing. (Participant 13 – working at a state school)
I haven't observed a direct influence of my professional learning on our cooperation with our colleagues. (Participant 14 – working at a state school)
I don't spend a lot of time with the teachers here, colleagues here. So I don't really know a lot about them but if I share a class with one of the teachers here, of course, I need to be in touch with them all the time. So I don't think it has changed since I started working here... We've always been like that. So, I cannot say anything changed in this sense. (Participant 12 – working at a state school)

When you start to talk about that issue, experienced colleagues just look down on you and they say "You know, I have this much time of experience in teaching and I know more" so I don't share those things with them. So no! Nothing has changed with my professional learning. (Participant 4 – working at a state school)

Actually it hasn't changed or it hasn't influenced me much because the work atmosphere is very positive here so it was still positive and after that it is still positive. The thing is that you are learning together but we always do it so we always help each other. Even though we don't share a class or go to a class and teach together, we always share our materials and give our colleagues ideas so it was not very different for me actually. The different thing was just going to the same class together and teach there. And after than that the other process is just the same. (Participant 7– working at a foundation school)

Those instructors, working both at state (14%) and foundation schools (14%), who believed that their learning influenced how they work with only for a specific group of coworkers, shared their reasons as below:

If I feel those people are close to me, especially those from my generation, people whose ages are close to mine, I share what I learn with them saying "Do you know what? There is something like this, maybe you want to use this in your class" or I include them in my research group when I need a control group for an experimental design. I directly go and ask my close colleagues and most of them are at the same age with me. However, we have some older, I actually don't want to use this old word, more experienced teachers, let's say. Usually I just don't share anything with them because they give such an image that they are not so good at technology and with new things and innovations. When you start to talk about that issue, they just look down on you and they say "You know, I have this much time of experience in teaching and I know more" so I don't share those things with them. I get support from my close friends, I get support from them if I try something new. For example, I wanted to do debate in other groups as well. Some of

them supported me some of them said that they didn't want to do it with their class. (Participant 4 – working at a state school)

To some extent yes, to some extent no! It depends on the type of colleague we are talking about. Some colleagues... You know, we have different attitudes in teaching and in every institution we have different kinds of people who have different understanding of teaching some of us are more traditional and they like to go by the book, some of them are more flexible and they like to adapt different things, some of them are not motivated maybe due to their daily life issues or something like that. So with colleagues that are more flexible and adaptive, I think that has influenced my collaboration with them very positively. But when it was with colleagues who are not open to new ideas or that were feeling insecure about using these ideas then it actually inhibited both my motivation and performance. (Participant 9 – working at a foundation school)

The results of cross-tabulation showed that while 43% of instructors working at state schools believed that their professional learning actually affected the way they work with their colleagues, 71% of those employed at foundation schools did so. 14% of both groups believed that their learning had a positive influence on “building relationships and collaborating” while 29% thought that their learning had a positive influence on “sharing ideas”. Instructors working at foundation schools (43%) differed from those working in state schools (0%) in their belief that their professional learning affected the way “they develop instructional practice” together. Those instructors who believed that their professional learning positively affected how they work with their colleagues stated their perceptions as below:

Sharing Ideas

That's another chance to have collaborations with the other members of the team. I used to work in teams but the teams were smaller than these, so the communication was limited. Now, I have more chance to share my ideas, and also in the classes, in that sessions, we can share our ideas that is I think about the colleague part. (Participant 10- working at a foundation school)

Hmmm... Yeah! I think I share more than I did before and maybe because I am more self-confident now. I know that some people are having difficulty in

dealing with some issues in the classroom and they don't want to talk about it or share... sometimes it is just very informal settings for us to get together and share ideas and so on... We discuss the bad and the good of our teaching practices... What goes well and what doesn't go so well. I think it has a positive impact on how I work with them, too because we understand each other better now than ever. (Participant 11- working at a state school)

After each observation, we have some post-observation meetings, we will talk about the points again we are free to share our ideas and if there are some questions we can justify or explain our actions so it is not a kind of an observation that someone comes to your class, observes you and goes. You have a chance to have a dialogue actually. (Participant 10- working at a foundation school)

Maybe for one term, we can try it out; not one lesson but the whole term maybe we can share one class with another teacher, I would love to experience that. It would be good to work with another colleague; I would love to do that. You have the opportunity to share your opinions and observe your partners' teaching style. (Participant 8- working at a foundation school)

Building Relationships and Collaborating

And it of course changed how I work with my colleagues and of course while receiving the training as a group of people because you suffer from the challenges you get close to those people and build relationships and you learn how they think, their way of acting, responding, whether they are suitable for team work or can they work better individually. You see everything about them just like in a class and it was a valuable experience as well. (Participant 5 working at a state school)

I should ask my colleagues [laughter]. I think it should influence the way I work with my colleagues because while you learn you also become more understanding after going through that stage of development because you spend a certain period of time to receive some courses or because you have been through that intense observation cycle. After being through those stages, you become more alert and understanding towards the other colleagues as well because we might share the same class or maybe we are sharing the same office we are in the same school so we can understand each other better. We can help each other in a more constructive way. I think that's one of the most important benefits. (Participant 3- working at a foundation school)

Developing Instructional Practices

Actually I can use my knowledge in such ways that influence my work with my colleagues especially in the curriculum development unit. We work as four people and both my theoretical and practical knowledge may influence the work here. Maybe for the completion of tasks. Because in our office, we have lots of tasks to complete regarding the accreditation process we have so maybe they can benefit from me. (Participant 1- working at a foundation school)

It kind of did. I started learning more about differentiated instruction and focusing on it and because of that I started preparing different materials, for example. And other teachers started questioning what I was doing, when I explained them differentiated instruction, some of them said that they liked that idea and they would give it a try in their classes. Of course, some others said that definitely wouldn't work with their students. So my learning maybe didn't directly influence how I work with my colleagues but it definitely influenced their professional learning because they saw that there is something new and some of my students frequently came to the room that I live in to be honest [laughter] and they expressed their gratitude and other teachers also saw these things happening and get interested, of course. (Participant 2- working at a foundation school)

Particularly, I can say the issue this colleague was afraid of was using technology in different ways and this person was absolutely technologically unfriendly, was even rejecting using the simplest things. Because I was using technology all the time, this person come to the realization that it was actually making my work easier. Maybe this fitted into this person's interests maybe this was the motivation of that person. Maybe this person already wanted to spend less time or ... to save time and to make something easier. It could also gather students' attention easily in some ways or make your lessons more fun. so this person came to the realization upon some time that these things that this person felt insecure about were not necessarily something of harm but sometimes could end up being time saving. I saw some improvement in there. (Participant 9- working at a foundation school)

The influence of professional learning on working with students

The results, given in Table 28, showed that all fourteen instructors (100%) who participated in the interviews believed that their professional learning affected the way they work with their students.

Table 28. The Perceived-Influence of Instructors' Professional Learning on Their Students

Influence of professional learning on working with students	State Schools		Foundation Schools		Total	
	# of participants mentioned	%	# of participants mentioned	%	# of participants mentioned	%
No Influence	0		0		0	
Yes	7	100%	7	100%	14	100%
Yes - Negative Influence	1	14%	0	0%	1	7%
Yes - Positive Influence on:	7	100%	7	100%	14	100%
Acknowledging Differences and Addressing Individual Needs	4	57%	3	43%	7	50%
Adjusting their Expectations from Students	4	57%	2	29%	6	43%
Promoting Student Autonomy	3	43%	3	43%	6	43%
Total (unique)	7	100%	7	100%	14	100%

While all the instructors (100%) thought that such an effect was positive, just one of them (7%) reported that such an effect was not only positive but also negative. The instructors commented that their professional learning influenced the way they work with their students positively in terms of: (a) acknowledging differences and addressing individual needs (50%); (b) adapting their expectations from students (43%) and (c) promoting student autonomy (43%).

Those instructors who believed that their professional learning positively affected how they work with their students explained their opinions as below:

Acknowledging Differences and Addressing Individual Needs

For example, you come to realize that each individual has their specific way of learning so I have to adapt myself and you know towards their learning so they can get the most out of their learning and my teaching, so to speak.
(Participant 11- working at a state school)

Oh yeah! I noticed that students are very very different; each of them has very different learning styles and abilities. While some of them do very well, some of them can write very well, some of them are good at listening, some of them are very good at grammar but they always suck in writing. So this is another thing I noticed and I am trying to feed them with different types of activities... I need to give them listening, speaking... because some of them learn... If you push them to speak or if you have a conversation on an interesting topic, they learn a lot of things. Some of them ... But some of them just want to read and learn so you, kind of, notice these differences among students and you try to address to their needs, like all of them, you try to include all of them. So your teaching should be in a way that no one should be left behind. So everybody should be included and of course weaker students every year disconnect themselves from the class after a while so I need to find a way to solve that problem. (Participant 12- working at a state school)

This has and changes every year because every group is a different group and their needs are different, their age range, background, level... Every level is a different group of students. Sometimes I have high achievers, sometimes I have low achievers. And this definitely shapes and changes the way I work with my students. My attendance policy, lesson preparation like how much time I allocate to listening, reading, writing, the materials, type of the materials, quality of the materials. (Participant 13- working at a state school)

And theoretically, I developed my awareness regarding all different needs of students and of course the conceptual framework of differentiated instruction. I started working with students keeping those things in mind and respecting their needs, listening to them and as my students told me they really liked it. So, I think if you are not willing to reach every student, then you are not doing much, to be honest. Otherwise, you just say "OK! This is my professional knowledge, I am going to go by this; if you don't like it, I don't have anything else to do". (Participant 2- working at a foundation school)

Because I change the way I am doing things according to their needs, they understand the link because I am not trying to prove something by myself but I am trying to help them so if I am doing something different, it means there is a different need in the class. Sometimes, I explain that in the class directly to the students. I explain that we don't follow the schedule in the same way, we might prioritize, change the order of activities, etc. because you have different needs. We may play around the course so don't worry; you won't be falling behind or having problems in the exams. If you feel that their needs are different or maybe they are too challenging, too demanding for you as a teacher so you change yourself to keep up with those expectations. (Participant 3- working at a foundation school)

Before doing that [creative writing task], I didn't know that my students have such a wide background in terms of their social life, family life, their mind, their thinking and beliefs. I can never understand such craziness let's say only through opinion essays or cause-effect essays or argumentative essays as they are very structured and academic and simple to follow. With creative writing, I noticed that they actually can think out of the box and they had certain talents; one of my students wrote a poem and it was so wonderful that I was shocked. Our students are really different coming from very different backgrounds but here we just try to put them in the same shape. That's sad! (Participant 4- working at a foundation school)

I think students feel whether you are doing something for the sake of doing it or for the sake of addressing to their needs. And it was like you go out to shop and you see this brand new dress but you know that is not going to fit your sister but you still buy it just because you liked the dress. The moment you show it to your sister, she doesn't like it and doesn't wear it. Just because it is new, it would not address to the need of your sister you just do it for yourself then. It is the same thing when it comes to the classroom; I think with some classes this new thing that I learned from a training or a session would absolutely not work because it wasn't addressing to any need of theirs. (Participant 9- working at a foundation school)

Adjusting Their Expectations from Students

Yeah! Of course! It is on a personal level, I would say. I have been reading a lot of books on psychology especially when it comes to dealing with relationships and learning, human learning. I have been practicing mindfulness so it has a positive effect on my optimism and you know you need a very good psychology to deliver a very good lesson and to be able to communicate with students better. From that point of view, I can say I am more tolerant towards mistakes and correcting them. (Participant 11- working at a state school)

One thing I have learned so far is that I noticed myself pushing them too hard and it didn't work really so I noticed that ... yeah ... instead of pushing them a lot because I was kind of like dictator in the class, you know. I always knew the right and they were supposed to do it without questioning. Now, I am spending more time on explaining them the logic behind my actions or the tasks in class, etc. In a way, I am trying to include them. I am trying to have them understand why we are doing something in class. (Participant 12- working at a state school)

I can give the answer "Yes!" directly to this question. I think when we give more importance to our professional learning, I think, the way we perceive their errors and mistakes also changes. So we also, I mean, have the opportunity to bring different and novel activities to our classrooms. The once

we have witnessed or the ones we have participated in those professional development workshops. I believe that this positively influence their motivation towards the lessons. Definitely, there is a very close link between our learning and the cooperation we have with our students. For example, one of the presenter in those workshops shares a very practical suggestion, we try to put it in practice in our classes and our students, most of them, find it interesting sometimes amazing and they become much more motivated, I guess. (Participant 14- working at a state school)

So what has changed in this year with my approach to students is I need to way to use the exam as bait to push them towards learning. So basically, it is very sad because some way I am pretending to give them what they want but I am not giving them what they want. But that's the only technique because I have tried bottom-up in a sense that I have tried to raise students' awareness on learning and get them to the activities which were very learning focused but not exam focused and they just didn't respond. When the exam changes and this is why I am so thankful with the administration because they changed the way the testing works. Once the testing works, the students respond. It is very sad but it seems to work. (Participant 6- working at a state school)

When I first came Turkey, I had some Turkish students. I was surprised to see some kind of problems that I couldn't categorize because I had never experienced them before but when I was doing my CELTA [Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages offered by Cambridge Assessment] course, we came across a chapter in a book about Turkish learner mistakes, everything was classified and documented and it made it easier for me because I was ready for those kind of mistakes or problems as I knew that background reason. Since I don't speak Turkish, I didn't know that this is the of the influence of L1, this is the translation effect, this is the same structure in Turkish, or something like that but after reading that chapter, for example, I think it changed how I looked at student mistakes or their achievement, even. (Participant 10- working at a foundation school)

The discussions we had in faculty reading club for example. I remember somebody gave a factual knowledge about how long these new generation students can focus on... or the extent of the area... that it was limited to mobile phone screen area size so I didn't know that and this actually changed my expectations of student behavior. In the past, I used to get really angry when a student couldn't locate the answer on this textbook. I used to think that it was right in front of them but now I came to the realization that their sense of focusing is different from what I used to have. So my expectations became lower for example. Maybe, you know, I started to tolerate their mistakes more. (Participant 9- working at a foundation school)

Promoting Student Autonomy

On the other hand, I can also safely say that it made me a better facilitator or guide rather than the direct source of knowledge because I changed the way I

practiced teaching. During that time, I carefully monitored them of course and at the end I gave feedback and asked each group to give feedback to one another on their performances, which was more student centered than what I did before and it was task-based originally. So I think an entire deviation from my major or from my general routine let's say and this of course influenced how I work with my students because they are the center now. (Participant 5- working at a state school)

I have been practicing mindfulness so it has a positive effect on my optimism and you know you need a very good psychology to deliver a very good lesson and to be able to communicate with students better. From that point of view, I can say I am more tolerant towards mistakes and correcting them. I think I am more open to communication with the students. You become one of them... Rather than the provider of knowledge, you become more of a facilitator. Well, I also try to make them more self-aware as I did for myself. I try to help them reflect on their own learning. So that how my learning influenced how I work with my students. I try to make them more aware and self-confident. (Participant 11- working at a state school)

So as I said, I basically let the students take control we have really clever people here. So... They have all the program; every material we would be doing so I usually ask them. What would you like to do? Here are the options. What would you like to choose? Yeah! I give them the options, I have a frame, I give them the options and I just ask them when you'd like... this is the staff we need to do... When you'd like to do it how you'd like to do it. And these are the options... I let them shape it. They decide on the context; role-play, story writing, whatever... They decide on the context... When the time allows, if the time allows, I just ask them to learn the same thing from different perspectives. (Participant 13- working at a state school)

Exactly. I engage them more because can you imagine I got feedback like "Hocam, in the past, I didn't come to class.". Now because I learnt all those teaching tips although they don't come from this school's professional development department, I tried to do different things in the classroom out of my comfort zone. Students told me "Hocam, because of that we were curious; we started to think what we would do on that day" and as I said things became unexpected for them and the predictability was less. Students liked it and that was my learning point. (Participant 2- working at a foundation school)

They are adult learners and maybe they can be informed about those objectives. When they have questions such as "Why am I doing this activity?" "What is the focus of this activity?", if I share the objectives they can realize the purpose of in-class activities. (Participant 1- working at a foundation school)

Yes, it influences my teaching a lot! I don't want my students to you know be the passive participants. I know that they get bored when they are not mentally involved in something! Because I want to have that agency of learning, I actually want my students to have that at the same time. So, although at times it makes me very reluctant to you know ask them to do everything because I told them to do so, I was actually relieved to see at times when they are doing their own thing. It's only small guidance. (Participant 9- working at a foundation school)

The only instructor who believed that her professional learning negatively affected how she work with their students explained her opinion as below:

Yes, definitely! Number one, let me begin with the negative one because I am very unhappy about this because of this year's learning process, it was a very challenging process, although I am an experienced teacher and I know what I am doing in my class, you are trying to meet some expectations that are externally imposed. Dealing with them sometimes I ran out of patience really. At the same time, trying to build a balance between student needs, the program's needs and the DELTA [Diploma in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages offered by Cambridge Assessment] needs on top of all put a lot of strain on me. It, sort of negatively, influenced... I may be sometimes breaking their heart, to be honest. This brings about some sort of stress and strain on your shoulders. This burden actually made me a tenser person in the classroom. Normally, I am a much more relaxed teacher but of course I got some sort of bitter-sweet sort of attitude with the students; it's always the case. (Participant 5- working at a state school)

The results can be summarized to argue that all instructors believe that their professional learning contribute to the way they work with their students, irrespective of the type of school they are employed at. However, it should be noted that the atmosphere existent in a workplace setting affected whether instructors' professional learning affected the way they work with their colleagues. While the majority of instructors working at a foundation school thought that their own professional learning actually contributed to the way they work with their colleagues, only a small number of those working at state school did so.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In this section, the findings of the research are summarized and discussed within the frame of research question of the study, accompanied by relevant literature. The discussion of the findings is followed by the limitations of the study. Finally, the chapter is concluded with recommendations directed towards; (i) practicing instructors, (ii) professional development developers and providers, and (iii) school administrators.

5.1 Discussion

In this particular study, sub-research question (a) was aimed to understand the learning orientations of EFL instructors working at state and foundation schools and reveal what forms of learning activities they value and practice within their immediate workplace. The main finding of the analysis was that, regardless of what type of school instructors were employed at, there was a statistically significant mean difference between their attributed-values to and perceived-practices of learning orientations. Instructors' attributed-value scores were higher than their perceived-practice scores for each type of learning orientation. This finding is important in the sense that instructors, regardless of the type of school they are working at, do not practice professional learning activities as much as they value them, which makes the analysis of restrictive barriers pertaining to professional learning important. The regression analysis results also suggested that there is a stronger relationship between the attributed-values and perceived-practices of professional learning of instructors working at foundation schools. That is, compared to the instructors working at state

schools, in foundation schools, the more instructors value a certain type of orientation to learning, the more they are likely to practice it, or equally, the more they practice a certain type of orientation to learning, the more they are likely to value it.

Instructors working at both type of schools bring mainly an internal orientation to learning; instructors not only value but also practice reflecting on their teaching, modifying their practices, and experimenting new ideas. One main difference between the instructors working at state and foundation schools was that the former group reported lower level of practice regarding their research orientation although both groups reported moderate levels of value. That is, although instructors working at state schools value carrying out research and relating their practice to research findings, they reported limited actual practice of such professional development activities within their schools.

Although instructors working at state and foundation schools were both found to have an internal orientation to learning, they were also observed to follow different forms of activities to further their professional learning based on their responses to interview questions. Instructors working at state schools mainly read professional publications, attended workshops and conferences while instructors working at foundation schools generally attended workshops, received feedback on their teaching practices by being observed by a mentor or equally by a colleague.

That is, while instructors working in state schools practice an external (seeking) orientation to learning in reality, instructors working in foundation schools practiced an internal (reflective) one. Instructors working at state schools had a common tendency to consult external professional resources and draw on good practice from other schools and institutions by attending seminars and conferences,

reading, getting internationally-recognized certificates or diplomas and following online courses and-or webinars. On the other hand, instructors working at state schools did not merely rely on external resources to further their professional learning because they mostly collaborated with their co-workers to engage in observations and to talk about teaching and learning within their immediate work environment. That is, the latter group not only reflected on their teaching practice based on feedback provided by their colleagues but also participated in external and internal workshops. Such a result confirms the proposal that, to a great extent, learning orientations depend on the context in which teachers work as Opfer and his colleagues (2001) assume that while a part of teachers' orientations to learning may persist the same, "the influence of the context, the stage of career development, previous teaching experiences and the pupils a teacher has at any given time, are primary determinants in the orientation to what, how and why teachers learn as professionals" (p.444).

Descriptively speaking, the notable difference between instructors working at state schools and foundation schools was lower levels of perceived practices pertaining to collaborative activity; the former group reported very limited practice of conducting peer observations, co-teaching and conducting joint research. Therefore, it can be concluded that while EFL instructors working in state schools tend to depend mostly on outside experts and have some external foci of professional learning, EFL instructors working in foundation schools are more likely to function as a community of practice, exploiting internal resources within their schools, collaborating with their coworkers and engaging in a set of relationships over time (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 98). Such an outcome supports the findings of previous research in the sense that "teacher learning is shaped through a combination of

reciprocity between the context of the particular school setting, and an individual teacher's interest and disposition to learn about practice" (Wilson & Demetriou, 2007, p. 214).

Furthering the discussion, Fuller and Unwin (2004) also focus on organizational restraints and inequalities prevalent in the workplace which are more restrictive to learning in nature; the researchers proposed that organizations, as learning environments, are different in nature pertaining to how they create and manage learning. Billet (2001) also identified that what determines the opportunities for workers to learn are workplace hierarchies, group affiliations, personal relationships and cultural practices. Fuller and Unwin (2003) suggested that while expansive environments create opportunities for learning in the workplace, restrictive environments impose more barriers to learning; it was concluded that expansive learning environments not only foster learning in the workplace but also facilitate the integration of individual and organizational improvement (Fuller et al., 2007, p. 744). Based on this premise and the outcomes of this particular study, a general conclusion can be drawn that while state schools of languages are restrictive in providing their instructors for learning opportunities, foundation schools of languages have certain expansive features.

In this specific study, sub-research question (b) was aimed to reveal the difference between EFL instructors' attributed-values and perceived-practices of learning activities under five certain categories namely, "a) learning in relation to instructional practice; b) consulting different sources of knowledge; c) sharing collaborative activity; d) talking about and valuing learning; and e) exploring teachers' role in the learning process" (Feeney, 2011, p. 95).

The results of *t*-tests for paired samples showed that the mean difference between attributed-values to and perceived-practices of professional learning activity was significant for each category. Descriptively speaking, both in state and foundation schools, EFL instructors tend to value professional learning activities more than their actual practice of such activities. For both groups of instructors, there was a significant relationship between their attributed-values to and perceived-practices of four types of professional learning activities, namely a) learning in relation to instructional practice, b) consulting different sources of knowledge, d) talking about and valuing learning, and e) exploring teacher's role in the learning process.

However, participants differed from each other in sharing collaborative activity. While there was a statistically significant relationship between the attributed-value of and perceived-practices of sharing collaborative activity for instructors working at foundation schools, such relationship was not true for the instructors working in state schools. Such lack of relationship between their attributed-values to and perceived-practices of professional learning activities can be attributed to the restrictive dynamics of their workplace settings because instructors working at foundation universities were challenged by “the lack of collaborative culture” and “the lack of a shared vision and values” the most in terms of their professional learning.

Another significant outcome is the existence of possible expansive learning activities that were highly valued but practiced at a limited level by instructors. It is important to identify the difference between instructors' values and actual practices because such a difference might serve as the “change-provoking disequilibrium” (Woolfolk Hoy et al, 2009). The provision of professional learning activities with

high attributed-value but with limited perceived-practice may result in a change-provoking disequilibrium, and therefore, create an expansive learning environment for the instructors as Opfer et al (2011) propose that the dissonance existent in an individual teacher's learning orientation system may "serve as a catalyst to seek change and new learning" (p. 389).

Such learning activities are itemized and given separately for instructors working in state schools in Table 29 and for instructors working at foundation schools in Table 30:

Table 29. Expansive Learning Activities: Dissonance between Values and Practices of Learning for Instructors Working at a State School

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- A1. "Instructors relate what works in their practice to research findings."
 - A2. "Instructors are able to see how practices that work in one context might be adapted to other contexts."
 - A3. "Instructors reflect on their practice as a way of identifying professional learning needs."
 - A4. "Instructors experiment with their practice as a conscious strategy for improving teaching and learning."
 - A6. "Instructors modify their practice in the light of research-based evidence."
 - B3. "Instructors consult professional resources for improving their practice."
 - B4. "Instructors consult students about how they learn most effectively."
 - B5. "Instructors attend workshops or in-service classes to further their learning."
 - C2. "Instructors carry out joint research with one or more colleagues as a way of improving their practice."
 - C4. "Instructors regularly observe each other in the classroom and give each other feedback."
 - C5. "Instructors engage in co-teaching as a way of improving practice."
 - E1. "Instructors determine what and how they should learn for improving their practice."
 - E2. "Instructors decide how to structure and use their time for improving their practice."
 - E4. "Instructors are consulted about how they learn most effectively."
 - E5. "If an approach is not working, instructors have the flexibility to change and reshape their professional learning plan."
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Table 30. Expansive Learning Activities: Dissonance between Values and Practices of Learning for Instructors Working at a Foundation School

A2. “Instructors are able to see how practices that work in one context might be adapted to other contexts.”
A5. “Instructors modify their practice in the light of feedback from their students.”
B4. “Instructors consult students about how they learn most effectively.”
E4. “Instructors are consulted about how they learn most effectively.”
E5. “If an approach is not working, instructors have the flexibility to change and reshape their professional learning plan.”

The important outcome to be discussed is that instructors working at different types of schools are surrounded by different workplace dynamics, which reflects itself in instructors’ orientations to learning and valued learning practices. Such a finding corresponds with the findings of earlier studies related to teacher learning, individual and workplace activities. The study run by Evans et al. (2006) revealed that individual teachers varied in the extent that they engaged in learning due in part to opportunities to learn in the workplace shaped by personal backgrounds and prior learning experiences.

In this study, sub-research question (c) was aimed to identify factors affecting instructors’ learning in the workplace. Therefore, one of the important findings of this study is that instructors were able to identify specific factors that either supported or hindered their professional learning. They commonly mentioned “personal experience of teaching”, “students” and “colleagues” as certain key factors affecting their professional learning. While “collaborative environment”, “autonomy in decision making” and “shared decision-making” were accepted as supportive factors, “lack of time” was regarded as the most common restrictive barrier by most of the instructors working both at state and foundation schools. While the first group

was challenged by “lack of collaborative culture” and “lack of a shared vision and values”, the latter group reported “lack of budget/money” and “diverse challenging student population” as two other challenges related to their professional learning.

Therefore, findings of this study confirm that the availability of learning structures (e.g., time in the day, learning groups, other tools) in workplace, in addition to a prevailing culture of trust and collegial support, reinforces the expansive nature of learning in the workplace (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009; Fuller et al., 2007; Kwakman, 1999; Van Eekelen et al., 2005).

It was again obvious that work environment is a strong element of instructors’ professional learning because it shapes which factors would either strengthen an expansive learning environment or would lead to a more restrictive learning environment. The results indicated that not only individual but also context factors contributed to the expansive nature of the learning environment as previously stated by Fuller et al. (2007) and Kwakman (2003).

In this study, research question d was asked to observe whether and how instructors believed that their professional learning lead to any change in the way they work with their colleagues and students. Analysis of interview results showed that all instructors thought that their professional learning definitely affected how they work with their students and the majority thought that such an effect was a positive one. Instructors reported that their professional learning helped them to amend the way they work with their students in terms of: “acknowledging differences among students and addressing individual needs”, “adapting their expectations from students” and “promoting student autonomy”.

This finding aligns with the previous research result, the continuing professional development (CPD) has widely been acknowledged as *modus operandi*

for reforming schools for the better, enhancing teacher quality, and therefore, improving student learning (Day, 1999; Hargreaves, 2000; Opfer & Pedder, 2011; Yates, 2007). Professional development efforts frequently aim to alter teachers' beliefs about particular features of teaching or the appeal of a curriculum or instructional invention. It is supposed that such changes in teachers' attitudes and beliefs will cause changes in their instructional behaviors and classroom practices, which in turn will give rise to enriched student learning (Guskey, 2002). That is, although teachers are the direct recipients of professional development, the ultimate beneficiaries of such development are indeed the students, which was also confirmed with the findings of this study.

Another important finding of the study was that instructors working at foundation schools differed from those working in state schools in the way they perceive the effect of their learning on their relations with their colleagues. Unlike the instructors working at a state school, almost half of the instructors working at a foundation school believed that their professional learning positively affected the way "they develop instructional practice" together with their colleagues. As discussed earlier, while state schools had certain dynamics which restricted instructors' professional learning such as "the lack of collaborative culture", foundation schools provided a more expansive learning environment. Such an outcome highlighted the obvious impact of expansive-restrictive nature of workplace environment on the outcomes of instructors' professional learning as Hodkinson and Hodkinson (2005) classified "close collaborative working" and "colleagues mutually supportive in enhancing teacher learning" as two of important characteristics of an expansive learning environment in an educational workplace setting.

5.2 Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to identify factors and forms of learning activities which seem to support an “expansive learning environment “along with those which result in a more “restrictive learning environment” (Fuller & Unwin, 2004; Fuller et al., 2007; Hodkinson & Hodkinson, 2005) and if they bring teacher change. The results of previous studies conducted on this matter and the results of this study have been compared and contrasted to identify the similar and different aspects. As a result, it has been concluded educational institutions, regardless of the grade they cater for, are to provide workplace atmosphere which is conducive to learning not only for the students but also for the teachers/instructors if they want promote student learning, and therefore to achieve desired outcomes.

In this respect, the provision of meaningful and effective professional development opportunities becomes essential as it is widely acknowledged that although the direct recipients of such opportunities are teachers/instructors, the final beneficiaries are definitely students. Since conventional, one-size-fits-all professional development programs are reported to fail to meet the diverse needs of educators working at varied institutions serving students with varied backgrounds, it is imperative for schools to provide tailor-made development opportunities. In this respect, identifying educators’ personal tendencies along with the dynamics of school settings may serve as an effective solution.

By combining survey data and semi-structured interview results, this study analyzed EFL instructors’ values and professional learning practices by comparing two different workplace settings as state schools and foundation schools. As a result of analysis, it was observed that workplace settings affect (i) what kind of learning activities instructors value and practice, (ii) which factors they perceive as either

influencing, supporting or hindering their learning and (iii) whether they believe their professional learning affect the way they work with their colleagues and students. Instructors working at state schools rated reading professional publications, attending workshops and conferences as top three professional development activities they engaged in while instructors working at foundation schools rated attending workshops, receiving feedback on teaching, and being observed by a mentor or equally by a colleague as the top three forms of professional development activities they participated in. The notable difference between instructors working at state schools and foundation schools was lower levels of perceived practices pertaining to collaborative activity. Therefore, it can be concluded that while EFL instructors working in state schools tend to depend mostly on outside experts and have some external foci of professional learning, instructors working in foundation schools are more likely to function as a community of practice, exploiting internal resources and collaborating with their coworkers.

Another important finding was related to the factors that instructors perceive as either influencing, supporting or hindering their learning. They commonly mentioned “personal experience of teaching”, “students” and “colleagues” as certain key factors affecting their professional learning. While “collaborative environment”, “autonomy in decision making” and “shared decision-making” were accepted as supportive factors, “lack of time” was regarded as the most common restrictive barrier by most of the instructors working both at state and foundation schools. While the first group was challenged by “lack of collaborative culture” and “lack of a shared vision and values”, the latter group reported “lack of budget/money” and “diverse student population” as two other challenges related to their professional learning. The fact that instructors working at foundation schools are challenged by

diverse student population can be attributed to the college admission policy prevalent in Turkey, where state universities admit students based on a fixed cut-score obtained in the national university entrance exam while foundation universities also admit students with scholarship opportunities varying from offering a partial cash grant to offering full-scholarship or covering both tuition fee and living expenses. That is, compared to Turkish state universities, Turkish foundation universities are generally comprised of a more heterogeneous group of students. In other words, the results indicated that not only individual but also context factors contributed to the expansive or restrictive nature of the learning environment in terms of instructors' professional learning process.

Analysis of interview results showed that all instructors thought that their professional learning definitely affected how they work with their students and the majority thought that such an effect was a positive one. Instructors reported that their professional learning helped them to amend the way they work with their students in terms of: "acknowledging differences among students and addressing individual needs", "adapting their expectations from students" and "promoting student autonomy". However, instructors working at foundation schools differed from those working in state schools in the way they perceive the effect of their learning on their relations with their colleagues. Unlike the instructors working at a state school, almost half of the instructors working at a foundation school believed that their professional learning positively affected the way "they develop instructional practice" together with their colleagues. While state schools had certain restrictive dynamics such as "the lack of collaborative culture", foundation schools provided a more expansive learning environment. Such an outcome highlighted the obvious

impact of expansive-restrictive nature of workplace environment on the outcomes of instructors' professional learning.

All in all, the quality of professional development opportunities for educators can be improved to cater for their individual needs and tendencies by promoting expansive learning environments as it is not possible to amend educators' learning and development without considering their interaction with school environment and culture.

5.3 Limitations

One of the most important limitation of this study was related to the number of the participants and scale validity processes. Most authorities recommend that factor analyses requires a sample size of at least 10 participants per item in the scale which would be 290 participants for the instructors' orientation to learning questionnaire. However, it was possible to reach only 100 participants in the piloting stage. Due to the small number of participants, each pre-defined factor was tested for their factorability separately rather than testing twenty-nine items all together at once.

Another point to be developed in the study was the source of data and type of participants. That is, research data obtained from instructors both for their attributed-values and perceived-practices as well as their perception of how their learning affected the way they work with their colleagues and students. Instructors had varied professional roles in their schools, which lead to the inclusion of varied perspectives in to the analysis. However, to increase the validity of the results and relevant discussions, other parties or related documents could have been included in the research such as feedback from students, field-notes from classroom observations or inventories of professional development activities happening at schools.

5.4 Recommendations

Having reviewed the results of the present mixed-method study concerning instructors' values and professional learning practices situated in the workplace, there are some significant recommendations, which are divided into recommendations for practicing teachers, professional development providers, and school administrators.

5.4.1 Recommendations for practicing instructors

Results showed that instructors commonly mentioned “personal experience of teaching”, “students” and “colleagues” as certain key factors affecting their professional learning. That is why it is important for instructors to conceptualize their professional learning situated in the schools, as their workplace. In other words, perceiving on-going professional learning as a direct result of engaging in their work, rather than something that can be reached only through external experts and institutions, may facilitate instructors learning process, expand their collaborations with their colleagues, and therefore improve their practice.

Result also showed that while “collaborative environment”, “autonomy in decision making” and “shared decision-making” were accepted as supportive factors, “lack of time” was regarded as the most common restrictive barrier by most of the instructors working both at state and foundation schools. While the first group was challenged by “lack of collaborative culture” and “lack of a shared vision and values”, the latter group reported “lack of budget/money” and “diverse student population” as two other challenges related to their professional learning. For that reason, it is important for instructors to set the balance between their use of internal and external resources

to further their professional learning and compensate for the restrictive factors existent in their school environment.

5.4.2 Recommendations for professional development providers

Results showed that instructors commonly mentioned “personal experience of teaching” as the key factor affecting their professional learning. That is why, it is important for professional development providers to bear in mind that teacher learning is no longer seen as something transmitted or done to the teachers. Recent paradigm of teacher learning emphasizes the active role of teachers in their own learning process and highlights the issue of agency. That is why professional development efforts need to respect teachers’ beliefs, past experiences, learning orientations, motivations and readiness. To do so, program designers may consult teachers about the type of learning activities they value and want to practice. Starting with those kind of activities highly valued by teachers may motivate them to take an active role in the process. Such efforts should promote and create room for teacher-led initiatives and collaboration among staff members. They may look for ways of involving teachers in the process of professional learning in which teachers practice a more self-directed and teacher-led way with joint inquiry.

Analysis showed that all instructors thought that their professional learning definitely affected how they work with their students and the majority thought that such an effect was a positive one. Instructors reported that their professional learning helped them to amend the way they work with their students in terms of:

“acknowledging differences among students and addressing individual needs”,

“adapting their expectations from students” and “promoting student autonomy”.

However, instructors working at foundation schools differed from those working in

state schools in the way they perceive the effect of their learning on their relations with their colleagues. Unlike the instructors working at a state school, almost half of the instructors working at a foundation school believed that their professional learning positively affected the way “they develop instructional practice” together with their colleagues. While state schools had certain restrictive dynamics such as “the lack of collaborative culture”, foundation schools provided a more expansive learning environment. Such an outcome highlighted the obvious impact of expansive-restrictive nature of workplace environment on the outcomes of instructors’ professional learning. Therefore, in the processes of designing and delivering professional development activities, PD developers and providers may try to integrate the process of professional learning into the day-to-day activities of teachers rather than encouraging them to follow and attend one-time trainings or workshops, which are indeed separate from the workplace context.

5.4.3 Recommendations for further research

First of all, for further studies, there lies numerous opportunities to re-conduct this particular study by addressing the limitations discussed above. For instance, this study can be re-done in a way to include other stake holders’ observations regarding the actual practices of instructors and changes they claim to have experienced. Such data would help with the understanding and development of instructors’ professional learning situated in their workplace.

From another point of view, in order to have better understanding of the validity of “teachers’ value and practice scale”, piloting can be done with the participation of minimum 300 instructors so that all the items in the original data can be explored through exploratory factor analysis at once rather than running

confirmatory factor analysis for each sub-scale. Such a statistical procedure would provide better results to decide whether the scale is appropriate to use with instructors of English as it is or to decide which items need to be deleted for a more reliable scale.



APPENDIX A

TEACHER PROFESSIONAL LEARNING IN TURKEY 2009-2018

Area of Research	Studies
Factors affecting teachers' professional learning and participation	Bayar, A., 2013; İnceçay, V., 2007; İyidoğan, F., 2011; Özbek, M.C., 2014
Teacher perceptions of / attitudes and beliefs towards CPD	Adıbelli, E., 2015; Dervişoğulları, M., 2014; Karakaya, N., 2015; Mesutoğlu, C. 2017; Muyan, E., 2013; Önkol, P. E., 2011; Sadıç, F., 2015; Vural, D. Ö., 2015; Yılmaz, A., 2017
Teacher learning in/ from practice	Çelebi-İlhan, E.G. 2013; Karabuğa, 2018
Communities of practice and professional learning community	Günbay, E., B., 2016; Hünük, D. 2013; Kalkan, F., 2015; Öğdem, Z., 2015; Yılmaz, B. N., 2012
Burnout and participation in professional learning activities	Kılavuz, D. 2006
Effectivity of CPD program models (varied)	Akçay- Kızılkaya, H., 2012; Aydoğan-Yenmez, A., 2012; Baş, S., 2013; Başçı, K., 2015; Çelik, H., 2011; Çınkır, G., 2017; Erdaş, E., 2015; Yazgan, E., 2017
Team teaching and Peer Observation	Canaran, Ö., 2017; Çağlar, E., 2013
Reflective Practice	Özsoy, K., 2017; Savran-Gencer, A., 2008
Program Evaluation	Taş, S., 2011; Yılmaz, M., 2017
CPD Needs Analysis	Ekşi, G., 2010; Kabadayı, B., 2013; Korkmazgil, S., 2015
Teacher / Action Research	Akyazı, K. H., 2016; Çetin, M., 2013; Dikilitaş, K., 2015; Korucu, S., 2011; Özkan, Ö., 2011
School culture & supporting CPD	Doğan, C., 2016; Kocatürk, H.E., 2016
Impact / Effect of CPD on Classroom practices / Students	Balta, N., 2014; Oktay, Ö., 2015; Varol, F., 2009; Yağcı, H., 2014
Professional Learning for novice teachers / First in-service year	Karataş, P., 2015; Korkmaz, T., 2015
E-learning & CPD (Various Tools / Applications)	Ateşkan, A., 2008; Efe, M.D., 2014; Elçi, A., 2012; Erdem, G., 2017; Güneş, C., 2017; İşkeçeli, S., 2013; Tanış, H., 2014; Taşkın, E., 2013

APPENDIX B

APPROVAL OF BOĞAZIÇI UNIVERSITY- INAREK/SBB ETHICS SUB-
COMMITTEE

T.C.
BOĞAZIÇI ÜNİVERSİTESİ
İnsan Araştırmaları Kurumsal Değerlendirme Alt Kurulu

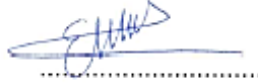
Sayı: 2018 - 07

21 Şubat 2018

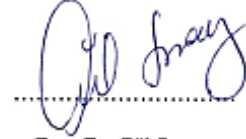
Kezban Altuntaş Özben
Eğitim Bilimleri

Sayın Araştırmacı,

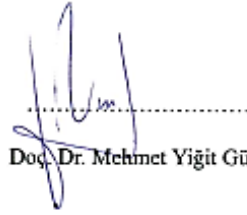
"Exploring Professional Learning Situated In A School of Languages Context: An Analysis of Instructors' Practice And Learning in The Workplace" başlıklı projeniz ile ilgili olarak yaptığımız SBB-EAK 2018/7 sayılı başvuru İNAREK/SBB Etik Alt Kurulu tarafından 21 Şubat 2018 tarihli toplantıda incelenmiş ve uygun bulunmuştur.



Doç. Dr. Ebru Kaya



Doç. Dr. Gül Sosay



Doç. Dr. Mehmet Yiğit Gürdal



Yrd. Doç. Dr. İnci Ayhan



Dr. Nur Yeniçeri

APPENDIX C

INFORMED CONSENT FORMS

Institution Supporting the Research: Boğaziçi University

Title of Project: Exploring Professional Learning Situated in a School of Languages Context:
An Analysis of Instructors' Practice and Learning in the Workplace

Research Coordinator: Assoc. Prof. Fatma Nevra Seggie

E-mail Address: nevra.seggie@boun.edu.tr

Phone: 0 90 212 359 4613

Name of Researcher: Kezban Altuntaş Özben

E-mail Address: kezbanaltuntas@gmail.com / kezban.altuntas@boun.edu.tr

Phone: 0 544 353 93 86

Dear Instructor,

Kezban Altuntaş Özben, as a student in Boğaziçi University Educational Sciences MA Program, is conducting an academic research named “Exploring Professional Learning Situated in a School of Languages Context: An Analysis of Instructors' Practice and Learning in the Workplace”.

The purpose of the study is to examine instructors' professional learning situated in a school of foreign languages context with the aim of revealing factors and conditions that both support and hinder how and what instructors learn in the workplace. Your school principal has approved this project to be conducted in your school so we kindly invite you to take part in this survey. Before your decision, we would like to inform you about the details of the research.

If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire consisting of 41 questions. Via this questionnaire, our aim is to better understand your orientations to professional learning and professional development activities happening in your school. We expect the questionnaire to last about 45 minutes.

In the second step of the research [based on voluntary participation], we will be conducting an unstructured interview to better learn professional learning process. The one-on-one interviews will be recorded and they are expected to last about 30 minutes.

This research is conducted for academic purposes only and protecting the confidentiality and privacy of participants is of paramount importance. The interviews will be recorded digitally and saved by numbers rather than names. The records will be kept in a password-protected laptop during the research and will be deleted permanently when the research is completed.

Participation to this study is voluntary and you have the right to withdraw from the research process at any stage without stating any reason.

If you wish to obtain further information about the research, you may contact the research coordinator Assoc. Prof. Fatma Nevra Seggie (Phone: + 90 212 359 4613, Address: Boğaziçi University, Educational Sciences Faculty Building, Room 215, 34342 Bebek, İstanbul). You may also consult Boğaziçi University, INAREK/SBB Ethics Sub-Committee to learn more about your rights as a participant.

Your participation to this study is voluntary. There will be no payment to your participation. You will not be asked to make a payment, either.

I have read the text below and fully understood its scope and purpose along with my responsibilities as a volunteer. I had the opportunity to ask questions about the study. I understand that I have the right to withdraw from the research process at any stage without stating any reason and any consequences.

Having read the terms below, I agree to participate in this research voluntarily, without any pressure or coercion.

I APPROVE.

APPENDIX D

INSTRUCTORS' SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Part A- Instructors Demographics

1. Please state your gender:
2. How old are you?
3. How many total years of experience do you have working in education?
4. What is your highest current level of education?
 - a. Associates Degree
 - b. Bachelor's Degree
 - c. Master's Degree
 - d. Doctorate
 - e. Other (please specify)
5. In what type of school are you employed?
 - a. Foundation
 - b. State
6. What is your employment status?
 - a. International Staff
 - b. Turkish Citizen
7. How long have you been working in the current institution?
8. Which of the following most closely describes the current role of your work?
 - a. Instructor
 - b. Assessment Specialist
 - c. Curriculum Developer
 - d. Teacher Development Unit Member (Trainer)
 - e. Team/Unit Leader
 - f. Other (please specify)
9. How many years of experience do you have working in your current role?
10. How many hours do you teach in a week?
11. How many hours do you stay at school in a week? (Including the teaching hours, office hours, meeting hours, etc.)?

Please choose top three professional development activities that you have been engaged in recently.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. taking short courses | 9. observing a mentor |
| 2. attending webinars | 10. receiving feedback on teaching |
| 3. attending a conference | 11. learning from students |
| 4. attending workshops | 12. participating in discussion boards |
| 5. reading professional publications | 13. presenting at a conference |
| 6. participating in a professional book club | 14. conducting workshops |
| 7. being observed by a mentor | 15. doing academic studies |
| 8. being observed by a colleague | 16. carrying out teacher research |

Part B- Instructors' Value and Practice of Professional Learning

For each item below, please indicate:

(a) How important is each learning practice for your professional learning?
“1 = Unimportant”, “2 = Of Little Importance”, “3 = Moderately Important”,
“4 = Important” to “5 = Very Important”

(b) To what extent do you believe each practice happens in your school?
“1 = Never”, “2 = Rarely”, “3 = Sometimes”, “4 = Often” to “5 = Always”.

1. “Instructors relate what works in their practice to research findings.
2. Instructors are able to see how practices that work in one context might be adapted to other contexts.
3. Instructors reflect on their practice as a way of identifying professional learning needs.
4. Instructors experiment with their practice as a conscious strategy for improving teaching and learning.
5. Instructors modify their practice in the light of feedback from their students.
6. Instructors modify their practice in the light of research-based evidence.
7. Instructors consult student performance data to modify their practice.
8. Instructors draw on good practice from other schools as a means to further their own professional practice.
9. Instructors consult professional resources for improving their practice.
10. Instructors consult students about how they learn most effectively.
11. Instructors attend workshops or in-service classes to further their learning.
12. Instructors access online resources to support their learning (e.g. web, webinars, and videos).
13. Instructors modify their practice in light of evidence from evaluations of their classroom practice by administrators.
14. Instructors carry out joint research with one or more colleagues as a way of improving their practice.
15. Instructors regularly collaborate to plan their teaching.
16. Instructors regularly observe each other in the classroom and give each other feedback.
17. Instructors engage in co-teaching as a way of improving practice.
18. Instructors make collective agreements to test out new ideas.
19. Instructors as well as students learn in this school.
20. If instructors have a problem with their teaching, they usually turn to colleagues for help.
21. Instructors suggest ideas or approaches for colleagues to try in class.
22. Instructors discuss openly with colleagues what and how they are learning.
23. Instructors frequently use informal opportunities to discuss how students learn.
24. Instructors offer one another reassurance and support.
25. Instructors determine what and how they should learn for improving their practice.
26. Instructors decide how to structure and use their time for improving their practice.
27. Instructors take on a leadership role in making decisions about how to improve their practice.
28. Instructors are consulted about how they learn most effectively.
29. If an approach is not working, instructors have the flexibility to change and reshape their professional learning plan.”

Part C- Influences, Supports, and Barriers

Please state your ideas on the greatest influences, most important factors, and most challenging barriers for your learning.

Which of the following would you say has had the greatest influence on your professional learning? (Choose up to three)

- | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. Colleagues | 9. In-service activities (classes) |
| 2. Personal experience | 10. Family |
| 3. Reading | 11. Former teacher |
| 4. Working with consultants | 12. Doing Research |
| 5. Students | 13. Advanced degree/coursework |
| 6. Leader | 14. Professional development |
| 7. Training other teachers | 15. Experience as a student |
| 8. Reading Research | 16. Other (please specify) |

Which of the following factors do you perceive to be the most important in supporting your professional learning? (Choose up to three)

- | | |
|--|--------------------------------------|
| 1. Shared decision-making | 6. Open communication with principal |
| 2. Strong principal | 7. Collaborative environment |
| 3. Study Groups (e.g. Teacher focus groups) | 8. Budget and resources |
| 4. Teacher-led initiatives (e.g. Doing research) | 9. Culture of trust |
| 5. Regular instructors and team meetings | 10. Opportunities to lead |
| | 11. Autonomy in decision-making |
| | 12. Professional development days |
| | 13. Other (please specify) |

Which of the following factors do you perceive to be the most challenging barriers for teachers' professional learning at (School)? (Choose up to three)

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. Lack of collaborative culture | 8. Teacher attitudes |
| 2. No budget/money | 9. Lack of communication |
| 3. Lack of time | 10. Lack of a shared vision and values |
| 4. Lack of experience | 11. Lack of leadership skills |
| 5. Lack of trust with instructors | 12. No leadership opportunities |
| 6. Diverse/challenging student population | 13. Other (please specify) |
| 7. No administrative support | |

Adapted from: Feeney, E. J. (2011). *Examining Professional Learning Situated in an Elementary School Context: An Investigation into Teachers' Practice and Learning in the Workplace*. (PhD Thesis). University of Nevada, Reno.

APPENDIX E

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS PREVIOUS VERSIONS

Interview Questions- First Draft

1. What factors supported your learning?
2. What factors hindered your learning?
3. How has your professional learning this year differed from what you have traditionally experienced in previous years?
4. Has your learning contributed to you working differently with your colleagues and if so, how?
5. Has your learning contributed to you working differently with your students and if so, how?
6. What has been the most valuable experience for your professional learning this year, and what made it valuable for you?
7. What did you learn this year?

Interview Questions – Second Draft

- a. Can you describe your professional learning this year, and tell what made it valuable for you?
- b. What factors influenced your learning?
- c. Has your learning influenced you working differently with your colleagues and if so, how?
- d. Has your learning influenced you working differently with your students and if so, how?
- e. What did you learn in terms of:
 - a. practical knowledge (teaching)?
 - b. theoretical aspects (knowledge)?
- f. Please give an example of a time someone gave you constructive feedback. What was the feedback and how did you respond?
- g. Please tell me about a time you gave a colleague some feedback or recommendations. How did you deliver the feedback and how did your colleague respond?

Interview Questions – Third Draft

1. Can you describe your professional learning this year?
 - a. How did it contribute to your professional life?
 - b. If you described it with one adjective, what would it be?
2. What did you learn in terms of:?
 - a. practical knowledge (teaching)?
 - b. theoretical aspects (knowledge)?
3. What factors influenced your professional learning?
4. Has your learning influenced how you work with your colleagues and if so, how?
5. Has your learning influenced how you work with your students and if so, how?
6. Please give an example of a time someone gave you constructive feedback. What was the feedback and how did you respond?
7. Please tell me about a time you gave a colleague some feedback or recommendations. What was the feedback and how did your colleague respond?

APPENDIX F

ORIGINAL SUBSCALES

Table F1. Original Survey Subscales and Relevant Items

Forms of learning activities	Survey Items
A) Learning in relation to instructional practice	1. Instructors relate what works in their practice to research findings.
	2. Instructors are able to see how practices that work in one context might be adapted to other contexts.
	3. Instructors reflect on their practice as a way of identifying professional learning needs.
	4. Instructors experiment with their practice as a conscious strategy for improving teaching and learning.
	5. Instructors modify their practice in the light of feedback from their students.
	6. Instructors modify their practice in the light of research-based evidence.
B) Consulting different sources of knowledge	7. Instructors consult student performance data to modify their practice.
	8. Instructors draw on good practice from other schools as a means to further their own professional practice.
	9. Instructors consult professional resources for improving their practice.
	10. Instructors consult students about how they learn most effectively.
	11. Instructors attend workshops or in-service classes to further their learning.
	12. Instructors access online resources to support their learning (e.g. web, webinars, and videos).
C) Sharing collaborative activity	13. Instructors modify their practice in light of evidence from evaluations of their classroom practice by administrators.
	14. Instructors carry out joint research with one or more colleagues as a way of improving their practice.
	15. Instructors regularly collaborate to plan their teaching.
	16. Instructors regularly observe each other in the classroom and give each other feedback.
	17. Instructors engage in co-teaching as a way of improving practice.
	18. Instructors make collective agreements to test out new ideas.
D) Talking about and valuing learning	19. Instructors as well as students learn in this school.
	20. If instructors have a problem with their teaching, they usually turn to colleagues for help.
	21. Instructors suggest ideas or approaches for colleagues to try in class.
	22. Instructors discuss openly with colleagues what and how they are learning.
	23. Instructors frequently use informal opportunities to discuss how students learn.
	24. Instructors offer one another reassurance and support.
E) Exploring teacher's role in the learning process	25. Instructors determine what and how they should learn for improving their practice.
	26. Instructors decide how to structure and use their time for improving their practice.
	27. Instructors take on a leadership role in making decisions about how to improve their practice.
	28. Instructors are consulted about how they learn most effectively.
	29. If an approach is not working, instructors have the flexibility to change and reshape their professional learning plan.

APPENDIX G

COMPARISON OF PILOT AND MAIN DATA

Demographics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	100	25	63	39,41	9,713
Total_years_of_experience_in_education	100	2	42	15,91	9,335
Years_of_experience_in_current_institution	100	1	41	9,83	8,100
Years_of_experience_in_current_role	100	1	36	11,30	7,799
Hours_taught_per_week	100	5	25	17,61	5,071
Total_hours_spent_at_school	100	3	50	28,40	10,630
Valid N (listwise)	100				

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	200	27	63	37,62	7,016
Total_years_of_experience_in_education	200	2	37	14,47	6,949
Years_of_experience_in_current_institution	200	1	35	8,31	5,825
Years_of_experience_in_current_role	200	1	35	9,84	6,747
Hours_taught_per_week	200	1	38	17,44	6,371
Total_hours_spent_at_school	200	5	50	29,76	7,651
Valid N (listwise)	200				

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	25	25,0	25,0	25,0
	Female	75	75,0	75,0	100,0
	Total	100	100,0	100,0	

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	46	23,0	23,0	23,0
	Female	153	76,5	76,5	99,5
	Gay Male	1	,5	,5	100,0
	Total	200	100	100	

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	State School	43	43	43	43
	Foundation School	57	57	57	100
	Total	100	100	100	

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	State School	101	50	50	50
	Foundation School	99	49	49	100
	Total	200	100	100	

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Turkish Citizen	93	93	93	93
	International Staff	7	7	7	100
	Total	100	100	100	

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Turkish Citizen	180	90	90	90
	International Staff	20	10	10	100
	Total	200	100	100	

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Instructor	81	81	81	81
	Assessment Specialist	1	1	1	82
	Curriculum Developer	8	8	8	90
	Teacher Development Unit Member (Trainer)	3	3	3	93
	Team/Unit Leader	2	2	2	95
	Director	5	5	5	100
	Total	100	100	100	

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Instructor	158	79	79	79
	Assessment Specialist	9	4	4	83
	Curriculum Developer	6	3	3	86
	Teacher Development Unit Member (Trainer)	7	3	3	90
	Team/Unit Leader	14	7	7	97
	Director	2	1	1	98
	Vice/Deputy Director	2	1	1	99
	ELSE	2	1	1	100
	Total	200	100	100	

Reliability Analysis

Scale: Learning in relation to instructional practice

- Table G11. Pilot Data

Case Processing Summary			
		N	%
Cases	Valid	100	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	100	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.883	6

- Table G12. Main Data

Case Processing Summary			
		N	%
Cases	Valid	200	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	200	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.864	6

Scale: Consulting different sources of knowledge

- Table G13. Pilot Data

Case Processing Summary			
		N	%
Cases	Valid	100	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	100	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.801	6

- Table G14. Main Data

Case Processing Summary			
		N	%
Cases	Valid	200	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	200	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.797	6

Scale: Sharing collaborative activity

- Table G15. Pilot Data

Case Processing Summary			
		N	%
Cases	Valid	100	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	100	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.890	6

- Table G16. Main Data

Case Processing Summary		
	N	%
Cases		
Valid	200	100.0
Excluded ^a	0	.0
Total	200	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.847	6

Scale: Talking about and valuing learning

- Table G17. Pilot Data

Case Processing Summary		
	N	%
Cases		
Valid	100	100.0
Excluded ^a	0	.0
Total	100	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.905	6

- Table G18. Main Data

Case Processing Summary		
	N	%
Cases		
Valid	200	100.0
Excluded ^a	0	.0
Total	200	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.874	6

Scale: Exploring teacher's role in the learning process

- Table G19. Pilot Data

Case Processing Summary		
	N	%
Cases		
Valid	100	100.0
Excluded ^a	0	.0
Total	100	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.855	5

- Table G20. Main Data

Case Processing Summary			
		N	%
Cases	Valid	200	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	200	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.869	5

APPENDIX H

COMPARISON OF ITEM-LEVEL SURVEY RESULTS

Table H1. Item-Level Survey Results for State Schools							
Item no	Values		Practices b		Difference	Effect Size	
	M	SD	M	SD	<i>z</i>	Sig. Level <i>p</i> < .01	<i>r</i>
A4	4.46	0.6	3.3	0.9	-8.615b	.000*	.35
A3	4.29	0.7	3.3	0.9	-8.022b	.000*	.33
A1	3.80	0.9	2.8	0.9	-7.939b	.000*	.32
C2	3.59	1.0	2.4	1.1	-7.897b	.000*	.32
A6	3.85	0.9	2.7	1.0	-7.888b	.000*	.32
A2	4.12	0.7	3.3	0.9	-7.885b	.000*	.32
C4	3.38	1.1	2.2	1.1	-7.742b	.000*	.32
B4	4.27	0.9	3.3	1.0	-7.721b	.000*	.32
B3	3.92	0.8	3.1	0.9	-7.666b	.000*	.31
E5	4.41	0.8	3.3	1.2	-7.618b	.000*	.31
E4	3.87	0.9	2.7	1.2	-7.559b	.000*	.31
B5	4.05	0.8	3.1	0.9	-7.427b	.000*	.30
E2	4.15	0.7	3.3	1.0	-7.319b	.000*	.30
C5	3.35	1.1	2.2	1.3	-7.290b	.000*	.30
E1	4.08	0.7	3.3	1.0	-7.235b	.000*	.30
A5	4.38	0.7	3.5	1.0	-7.221b	.000*	.29
C6	3.70	0.9	2.8	1.1	-6.930b	.000*	.28
B2	3.63	0.9	2.8	1.0	-6.928b	.000*	.28
D1	4.24	0.8	3.4	1.0	-6.912b	.000*	.28
D4	3.91	0.9	3.2	1.0	-6.130b	.000*	.25
E3	3.85	0.9	3.1	1.1	-6.073b	.000*	.25
D3	4.06	0.8	3.5	0.9	-5.809b	.000*	.24
B1	3.96	0.7	3.3	1.0	-5.808b	.000*	.24
C3	3.83	1.0	3.1	1.1	-5.523b	.000*	.23
B6	3.80	0.9	3.2	0.9	-5.514b	.000*	.23
D6	4.08	0.9	3.6	1.0	-5.502b	.000*	.22
C1	3.32	0.9	2.7	1.2	-5.086b	.000*	.21
D2	3.96	0.9	3.5	1.0	-4.843b	.000*	.20
D5	3.96	0.9	3.6	1.0	-3.681b	.000*	.15

Table H2. Item-Level Survey Results for Foundation Schools

Item no	Values		Practices b		Difference	Effect Size	
	M	SD	M	SD	<i>z</i>	Sig. Level <i>p</i> < .01	<i>r</i>
E5	4.59	0.6	3.9	1.0	-7.376b	.000*	0.30
E4	4.07	0.8	3.2	1.1	-7.315b	.000*	0.30
A2	4.16	0.7	3.5	0.8	-7.289b	.000*	0.30
A5	4.29	0.8	3.7	0.9	-7.251b	.000*	0.30
B4	4.36	0.8	3.7	0.9	-7.026b	.000*	0.30
A4	4.44	0.6	3.8	0.8	-6.772b	.000*	0.28
A6	3.66	0.8	3.0	1.0	-6.666b	.000*	0.27
A3	4.42	0.6	3.9	0.8	-6.413b	.000*	0.26
A1	3.57	0.9	3.1	0.9	-6.195b	.000*	0.25
E3	4.11	0.8	3.6	1.0	-6.098b	.000*	0.25
C6	3.60	0.9	3.2	0.9	-5.919b	.000*	0.24
B2	3.52	0.9	3.0	1.0	-5.854b	.000*	0.24
E1	4.24	0.7	3.8	0.8	-5.830b	.000*	0.24
E2	4.34	0.7	3.8	0.9	-5.768b	.000*	0.24
C5	3.19	0.9	2.6	1.0	-5.742b	.000*	0.23
B3	4.11	0.7	3.7	0.8	-5.622b	.000*	0.23
D1	4.45	0.7	4.1	0.8	-5.023b	.000*	0.21
C2	3.39	0.9	2.9	1.0	-4.800b	.000*	0.20
B6	3.96	0.8	3.6	1.0	-4.418b	.000*	0.18
B1	3.97	0.8	3.6	1.0	-4.371b	.000*	0.18
D4	4.07	0.8	3.8	0.9	-3.755b	.000*	0.15
C4	3.61	0.9	3.3	1.0	-3.742b	.000*	0.15
D3	4.22	0.6	4.0	0.8	-3.625b	.000*	0.15
B5	4.13	0.8	3.9	0.8	-3.513b	.000*	0.14
D6	4.27	0.7	4.2	0.8	-1.720b	0.085	0.07
D2	4.06	0.7	4.0	0.8	-1.469b	.142	0.06
C3	3.83	1.0	3.7	1.0	-1.407b	0.159	0.06
C1	3.83	0.8	3.8	0.9	-.943b	0.346	0.04
D5	4.10	0.8	4.1	0.9	-.458b	.647	0.02

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