



University of  
**Southern  
Queensland**

**INTERNATIONALISATION AND TESOL  
ACADEMICS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT:  
TOWARDS AN INTERCULTURAL MODEL**

A thesis submitted by

**Mst Momena Khatun**

B. A. (Honours) in English

M. A. in Applied Linguistics and ELT

MPhil (Coursework)

For the award of

Doctor of Philosophy

2023

## ABSTRACT

The study set out to investigate TESOL academics' contemporary professional development (PD) landscape in Australia and Bangladesh. The overarching objective is to investigate TESOL academics' intercultural paradigms and the contemporary PD provisions that enable them to engage in intercultural praxis. This study implemented a sequential multimodal paradigm in which an anonymous questionnaire was adapted from the Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS, 2018). This study's theoretical foundation consisted of three mutually compatible epistemological lenses: social constructivism, intercultural theory, and reflective practice. It also adapted the INSPIRE (in-practice, needs-based, sustained, peer-collaborative, impactful, reflective, evaluated) PD model to examine its efficacy as a PD model for the TESOL context and as an analytical framework. The raw data were managed using SPSS (v. 28) and NVivo (v. 16). The findings revealed that Australian universities offered abundant generic PD provisions, however, the academics desired to have discipline-specific PD provisions. Bangladeshi academics, on the other hand, expressed dissatisfaction about the dearth of both general and subject-specific PD. Nonetheless, in both countries' settings, academics showed concerns over the lack of professional agency in weaving their own PD experiences. Concerning PD mechanisms contributing to the development of academic mindsets and intercultural skills, Australian and Bangladeshi academics appeared to select comparable universally popular activities: collegial interactions, collaboration, online resources, reading and research. Regarding intercultural paradigms, Australian academics appeared to integrate intercultural awareness into their instructions; however, their practice dimension seemed to be below par. On the contrary, Bangladeshi academics appeared to incorporate cultural awareness in their lessons instead of fostering intercultural competency among student populations. When it came to the critical appraisal of the existing PD conditions and subsequent improvements, Australian and Bangladeshi academics both emphasised: limited interculturality, self-initiated PD, and lack of discipline-specific PD and they proposed support towards intercultural praxis, joint responsibility, and discipline-specific PD. Contextual subtleties and nuances were perceived when Bangladeshi academics critiqued unstructured PD and lack of financial support and recommended for regular PD and increased incentives and research funds. The initial INSPIRE PD model is modified by integrating key findings of this study as intercultural, subject-specific, and institutional-personal for transnational applications, thereby making an original and crucial contribution to pertinent TESOL PD literature and Applied Linguistics discourse.

# CERTIFICATION OF THESIS

Unless otherwise specified, I confirm that the accompanying thesis entitled *Internationalisation and TESOL Academics' Professional Development: Towards an Intercultural Model* is my original work and has not been previously submitted to the University of Southern Queensland (UniSQ) or any other institution for an award or other educational degree qualifications.



Mst Momena Khatun

Date: [May 03, 2023]

Endorsed by:



Associate Professor Jonathan Green, PhD

Principal Supervisor

Graham Wise, PhD

Director, International

Associate Supervisor

Student and supervisors' signatures of endorsement are held at the University.

# ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

**“In the name of Allah, the benevolent and the merciful”**

This research effort would not have been feasible without the assistance of a large number of people, particularly each participant in the study, to whom I am immensely grateful. Numerous others have made significant contributions to this thesis.

First, I am indebted to my supervisory team Associate Professor Ann Dashwood, PhD, Associate Professor Jonathan Green, PhD, and Graham Wise, PhD for their ongoing support, commitment to detail, words of wisdom, and generous appreciation of my work and progress throughout my PhD journey. They have been an incredible source of strength and inspiration. I am particularly thankful to Dr. Graham Wise for his consistent and kind support through every obstacle I have encountered, his enormous generosity concerning time-sharing and knowledge dissemination, and his assistance in putting me on different networks. My supervisors have impacted my life, altered my perspectives, and instilled confidence in my capabilities.

I owe my sincerest appreciation to Prof. Fakrul Alam, PhD—a legendary professor at Dhaka University and my MPhil supervisor for consistently encouraging me to pursue foreign degrees, for leading me to accomplish that goal in my life and for being a true touch-stone mentor demonstrating that a great teacher can change and create a student’s fate and fortune.

My special thanks go to Mr. Mike MacDermott, Dr. Obaidul Hamid, Dr. Raqib Chowdhury, Mr. Edward Pember, Professor Begum Shahnaz Sinha, Professor Himadri Sekhar Roy, PhD, Dr. Munibur Rahman, Dr. Mohsina Ahsan, Dr. Musarrat Shameem, Mr. Mohammad Tanvir Kaiser, Mr. Ali Rezwana Talukdar and Ms. Sumya Alam for introducing me to connections and recruiting participants for my research in Australia and Bangladesh.

My sincere appreciation to all of my elementary, secondary, and university instructors for their invaluable guidance and inspiration. Prof. Begum Shahnaz Sinha, Prof. Sadrul Amin, PhD, Prof. Khondakar Ashraf Hossain, PhD, Brigadier General and Dean (former), Centre for Higher Studies and Research (CHSR) Syed Mofazzel Mawla, Prof. Mohammad Mozahid, PhD, Prof. ASM Ali Ashraf, PhD, and Prof. Abdus Salam Akanda, PhD for believing in me and providing me with the finest student experience. I cannot forget my countless students, who deemed me the best instructor, my friends, and my MPhil classmates (particularly Hira, Shazeed, Hannan, Horaira, Evita, and Habib) who encouraged me to pursue higher education.

Mr. Monoranjan Basu deserves my deepest gratitude as my ‘spiritual guru’ along with Mr. Lutfor Rahman as I am proud to be their disciple. I have similar gratitude to my colleague and guide Mr. A.H.M. Abu Sayeed. My friends, Dr. Bijoy Lal Basu, Ms. Nusrat Nilufer, and my local guardian in Australia Ms. Tazmary Khan have been my constant pillars of support throughout the completion of my dissertation work.

I would like to recognise the assistance of my UniSQ workstation colleagues on a personal level. I would like to thank Dr. Palash, Dr. Daniel, Dr. Bidhan, Dr. Gail, and Ms. Lolita for bolstering my spirits and supporting me. I would also like to thank the numerous academic staff at UniSQ who conducted training for our personal, intellectual, and professional development. My appreciation goes to the entire ICT team, particularly Mr. Michael, Mr. Stuart and Mr. Harvey, Mr. Damien of student support, and Mr. Kenneth for his assistance with SPSS.

I am especially grateful to my parents Din Mohammed and Jhosna Ara Begum, my brother Masud, my daughter Ariana, my husband Enamul, and my nephew Iftekhar for being a source of perennial encouragement and standing by my side in times of need.

Last but not least, I would like to thank the UniSQ fee waiver support and my family and friends for their financial assistance in pursuing a doctoral degree.

## DEDICATION

*This work is dedicated to the dearest memory of my father, Din Mohammed. In his words, “Politeness is the best ornament that makes individual beautiful and hard work is like the fragrance of flowers spreads far and wide”.*

*And to the loving memory of my spiritual guru, Mr. Monoranjan Basu. In his effort to enlighten us, he indicated, “Our souls are like the fraction of light; after emancipation, those sparks transcend to be united with the bigger light-our creator. The light is inside you, find the path of emancipation to break all the bondages to life, to earth and experience ultimate freedom”.*

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	i
CERTIFICATION OF THESIS .....	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....	iii
DEDICATION .....	v
ACRONYMS .....	xvi
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.0. Introduction .....	1
1.1. Focus of the study.....	1
1.2. Background and problem statement.....	3
1.3. Rationale for the study.....	5
1.4. Research questions .....	11
1.5. Overview of the study.....	11
1.6. Conclusions .....	12
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW .....	14
1.0. Literature review .....	14
2.1. Methods.....	15
2.2. Glossary of terms.....	16
2.2.1. <i>Professional development</i> .....	16
2.2.2. <i>Internationalisation</i> .....	16
2.3. Theoretical framework leading to conceptualisation.....	17
2.3.1. <i>Reasoning for selecting social constructivism theory</i> .....	18
2.3.2. <i>Social constructivism</i> .....	20
2.3.3. <i>Justification for choosing Byram’s intercultural theory</i> .....	22
2.3.4. <i>Intercultural theory</i> .....	31
2.3.5. <i>Reflective practice</i> .....	40
2.3.6. <i>Rationale for selecting the initial INSPIRE PD model</i> .....	43
2.3.7. <i>Initial INSPIRE PD model</i> .....	46
2.4. Internationalisation and TESOL academics’ professional development .....	47
2.4.1. <i>Internationalisation and professional development in Australia</i> .....	47
2.4.2. <i>Internationalisation and professional development in Bangladesh</i> .....	49
2.5. Provisions and needs.....	50
2.5.1. <i>Provisions</i> .....	50

2.5.1.1. Provisions during the pandemic.....	52
2.5.2. Needs .....	53
2.6. Incentives and reward structures .....	57
2.7. Professional development challenges.....	59
2.8. Professional development for academic growth.....	63
2.9. Critical evaluations (micro-level) and proposed improvements .....	71
2.10. Intercultural practice .....	75
2.11. Critical evaluations (meso-level) of existing literature on interculturality.....	80
2.12. Summary .....	88
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY .....	90
3.0. Introduction .....	90
3.1. Research design .....	91
3.2. Selection of Universities and participants .....	93
3.2.1. Questionnaire survey participants .....	95
3.2.2. Narrative inquiry participants .....	96
3.2.3. Semi-structured interview participants .....	97
3.3. Sample.....	98
3.3.1. Purposive sampling .....	98
3.3.2. Convenience sampling .....	98
3.4. Data collection methods and instruments.....	99
3.4.1. Questionnaire survey.....	99
3.4.2. Narrative inquiry .....	101
3.4.3. Semi-structured interviews.....	101
3.5. Validity and reliability .....	104
3.5.1. Expert's opinion.....	104
3.5.2. Pilot questionnaire.....	104
3.5.3. Reliability test (Cronbach alpha).....	105
3.5.4. Pilot semi-structured interviews.....	106
3.5.5. Pilot narratives' question prompts.....	106
3.5.6. Member check.....	106
3.5.7. Data triangulation .....	107
3.6. Administering data collection instruments.....	107
3.6.1. Transcription of audio files.....	108
3.7. Difficulties faced during the data collection procedure.....	109



3.8. Data analysis and presentation tools .....	109
3.8.1. <i>Descriptive statistics</i> .....	109
3.8.2. <i>Thematic analysis</i> .....	110
3.9. Ethical considerations .....	111
3.10. Summary .....	114
CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS .....	115
4.0. Introduction .....	115
4.1. Quantitative data on professional development provisions (academics' questionnaire)...	116
4.1.1. <i>Induction provisions</i> .....	116
4.1.2. <i>Task-based professional development provisions</i> .....	117
4.1.3. <i>Professional development activities</i> .....	118
4.2. Qualitative data on professional development provisions (academics' narratives and interviews with administrators).....	121
4.2.1. <i>Inductive and deductive themes of professional development provisions</i> .....	121
4.2.1.1. <i>Professional development opportunities</i> .....	121
4.2.1.2. <i>Limited professional development opportunities</i> .....	124
4.2.1.3. <i>Institutional professional development provisions during the pandemic</i> .....	126
4.2.1.3.1. <i>PD for hybrid pedagogy</i> .....	126
4.2.1.3.2. <i>Devices and other support</i> .....	128
4.2.1.3.3. <i>Health and well-being support</i> .....	129
4.3. Quantitative data on professional development needs (academics' questionnaire) .....	131
4.4. Qualitative data on professional development needs (academics' narratives and interviews with administrators).....	134
4.4.1. <i>Inductive and deductive themes on professional development needs</i> .....	135
4.4.1.1. <i>Needs are assessed</i> .....	135
4.4.1.2. <i>No needs assessment</i> .....	137
4.4.1.3. <i>Voices are heard</i> .....	138
4.4.1.4. <i>Voices are not heard</i> .....	139
4.5. Quantitative data on professional development mechanisms for academics' growth (academics' questionnaire) .....	139
4.6. Qualitative data on professional development for academics' growth (academics' narratives and interviews with administrators).....	141
4.6.1. <i>Inductive and deductive themes on professional development mechanisms and resources</i> .....	143

4.6.1.1. Collegial discussion .....	143
4.6.1.2. Collaboration.....	144
4.6.1.3. Teaching experience .....	146
4.6.1.4. Online resources .....	147
4.6.1.5. Reading.....	148
4.6.1.6. Learning through research .....	149
4.6.1.7. Workshops, conferences, and seminars.....	149
4.6.1.8. Training programmes .....	150
4.6.1.9. PhD supervision.....	151
4.6.1.10. TESOL Associations .....	151
4.6.1.11. Learning from students .....	152
4.6.1.12. Reviewer in an academic journal.....	152
4.6.1.13. Mentoring experience .....	152
4.6.1.14. Role-modelling non-native teachers.....	152
4.6.1.15. Various roles in different organisations .....	153
4.6.1.16. Study abroad.....	153
4.6.1.17. Challenging situations .....	154
4.6.1.18. Link programme.....	154
4.6.1.19. Mentors.....	155
4.6.1.20. Peer-observation.....	155
4.6.1.21. Critical reflection.....	155
4.6.1.22. Open-minded personality.....	156
4.7. Quantitative data on intercultural practice (academics' questionnaire) .....	156
4.7.1. Teaching students from diverse cultures .....	156
4.7.2. Academics' intercultural paradigms .....	156
4.7.3. University's support towards interculturality .....	158
4.8. Qualitative data on academics' intercultural paradigms (academics' narratives and interviews with administrators).....	159
4.8.1. Inductive and deductive themes on intercultural paradigms .....	159
4.8.1.1. Evidence of intercultural practice.....	160
4.8.1.2. Administrators' perspectives on academics' IC.....	162
4.8.1.3. Administrators' attitudes towards interculturality .....	163
4.8.1.4. Administrators' intercultural practice .....	164
4.9. Quantitative data on critical evaluations (academics' questionnaire).....	165

4.10. Qualitative data on critical evaluations (academics’ narratives and interviews with administrators).....	166
4.10.1. <i>Critical evaluations (inductive and deductive themes)</i> .....	168
4.10.1.1. <i>Not mandatory</i> .....	168
4.10.1.2. <i>Limited interculturality</i> .....	169
4.10.1.3. <i>Self-initiated PD</i> .....	170
4.10.1.4. <i>Not discipline-specific</i> .....	172
4.10.1.5. <i>Not needs-based and top-down</i> .....	173
4.10.1.6. <i>Insufficient PD</i> .....	174
4.10.1.7. <i>Irregular, unstructured, informal, and outdated</i> .....	174
4.10.1.8. <i>Lack of financial support</i> .....	176
4.10.1.9. <i>Unsatisfactory PD</i> .....	178
4.10.1.10. <i>Lack of policy mandate</i> .....	179
4.11. Quantitative data on proposed improvements (academics’ questionnaire).....	179
4.12. Qualitative data on proposed improvements (academics’ narratives and interviews with administrators).....	181
4.12.1. <i>Inductive and deductive themes on proposed improvements</i> .....	182
4.12.1.1. <i>Support towards intercultural practice</i> .....	182
4.12.1.2. <i>Joint responsibility</i> .....	184
4.12.1.3. <i>Discipline-specific PD</i> .....	184
4.12.1.4. <i>Needs-based</i> .....	185
4.12.1.5. <i>In-service PD</i> .....	186
4.12.1.6. <i>Designated time</i> .....	187
4.12.1.7. <i>Increasing incentives and research funds</i> .....	188
4.12.1.8. <i>Systematic and regular</i> .....	189
4.12.1.9. <i>Peer observation and mentoring</i> .....	189
4.12.1.10. <i>University should support collaboration</i> .....	189
4.12.1.11. <i>Workshops, conferences, and seminars</i> .....	189
4.12.1.12. <i>Change of culture</i> .....	190
4.12.1.13. <i>Induction programme</i> .....	190
4.12.1.14. <i>Academic exchange</i> .....	190
4.12.1.15. <i>TESOL degree</i> .....	190
4.12.1.16. <i>Open access journals</i> .....	191
4.12.1.17. <i>Reducing workloads</i> .....	191

4.12.1.18. <i>Include IC in the curricula</i> .....	191
4.12.1.19. <i>External experts</i> .....	192
4.12.1.20. <i>Developing language proficiency</i> .....	192
4.12.1.21. <i>Raising awareness of needs</i> .....	192
4.12.1.23. <i>Policy mandate</i> .....	192
4.12.1.24. <i>Sparking the motivation</i> .....	193
4.12.1.25. <i>Setting up a community of practice</i> .....	193
4.12.1.26. <i>Mandatory PD</i> .....	194
4.12.1.27. <i>Monitoring is needed</i> .....	194
4.12.1.28. <i>Demolishing politics</i> .....	194
4.12.1.29. <i>Need TESOL experts</i> .....	194
4.12.1.30. <i>Mentoring facility</i> .....	194
4.12.1.31. <i>Regular and structured</i> .....	194
4.12.1.32. <i>More support to humanities departments</i> .....	195
4.13. <i>Summary</i> .....	195
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION .....	200
5.0. <i>Introduction</i> .....	200
5.1. <i>Addressing the research questions</i> .....	200
5.1.1. <i>Research question 1.</i> .....	200
5.1.2. <i>Quantitative data (academics' questionnaire on professional development provisions)</i> .....	200
5.1.3. <i>Qualitative data (academics' questionnaire on professional development provisions)</i> .	207
5.1.4. <i>Qualitative data (semi-structured interviews with administrators on professional development provisions)</i> .....	209
5.1.5. <i>Triangulation</i> .....	211
5.1.6. <i>Professional development during the pandemic</i> .....	211
5.1.6.1. <i>PD for hybrid pedagogy</i> .....	212
5.1.6.2. <i>Devices and other support</i> .....	213
5.1.6.3. <i>Health and well-being support</i> .....	214
5.1.7. <i>Quantitative data (academics' questionnaire on professional development needs)</i> .....	216
5.1.8. <i>Qualitative data (academics' narratives on professional development needs)</i> .....	218
5.1.9. <i>Qualitative data (semi-structured interviews with administrators on professional development needs)</i> .....	220
5.1.10. <i>Triangulation</i> .....	220

5.2. Research question 2 .....	223
5.2.1. <i>Quantitative data (academics' questionnaire on professional development mechanisms for growth)</i> .....	223
5.2.2. <i>Qualitative data (academics' narratives on professional development mechanisms for growth)</i> .....	226
5.2.3. <i>Qualitative data (semi-structured interviews with administrators on professional development mechanisms for growth)</i> .....	228
5.2.4. <i>Triangulation</i> .....	229
5.3. Research question 3. ....	235
5.3.1. <i>Quantitative data (academics' questionnaire on intercultural paradigms)</i> .....	235
5.3.2. <i>Qualitative data (academics' narratives on intercultural paradigms)</i> .....	236
5.3.3. <i>Qualitative data (semi-structured interviews with administrators on intercultural paradigms)</i> .....	237
5.3.4. <i>Triangulation</i> .....	240
5.3.5. <i>Universities support towards interculturality</i> .....	240
5.4. Critical evaluations .....	246
5.4.1. <i>Quantitative data (academics' questionnaire on critical evaluations)</i> .....	246
5.4.2. <i>Qualitative data (academics' narratives on critical evaluations)</i> .....	247
5.4.3. <i>Qualitative data (semi-structured interviews with administrators on critical evaluations)</i> .....	250
5.4.4. <i>Triangulation</i> .....	251
5.5. Proposed improvements.....	252
5.5.1. <i>Quantitative data (academics' questionnaire on proposed improvements)</i> .....	252
5.5.2. <i>Qualitative data (academics' narratives on proposed improvements)</i> .....	253
5.5.3. <i>Qualitative data (semi-structured interviews with administrators on proposed improvements)</i> .....	255
5.5.4. <i>Triangulation</i> .....	256
5.6. Intercultural model.....	257
5.7. Summary .....	262
CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION .....	264
6.0. Introduction .....	264
6.1. Summary of the main points .....	264
6.1.1. <i>Research Question 1</i> .....	264
6.1.2. <i>Research Question 2</i> .....	266

6.1.2. <i>Research Question 3</i> .....	267
6.2. Contributions to the knowledge .....	268
6.2.1. <i>Implications for methodology</i> .....	270
6.2.2. <i>Implications for theory</i> .....	271
6.2.3. <i>Implications for practice</i> .....	272
6.3. <i>Limitations of the study</i> .....	275
6.4. Future research directions .....	275
REFERENCES.....	278
APPENDICES.....	1
Appendix A: Ethics approval letter.....	1
Appendix B: Academics’ questionnaire.....	2
Appendix C: Academics’ narratives guidelines .....	14
Appendix D: Semi-structured interview question prompts for administrative staff .....	16
Appendix E: Participants’ information sheet for academics’ questionnaire .....	18
Appendix F: Participants’ information sheet for academics’ narratives .....	20
Appendix G: Participants’ information sheet for semi-structured interviews with administrators .....	22
Appendix H: Consent form for narratives’ participants .....	24
Appendix I: Consent form for semi-structured interview participants .....	25
Appendix J: Letter of invitation .....	26
Appendix K: Code sample extracted from NVivo .....	27

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1 <i>Alignment of the research questions, methods, and stages involved</i> .....	83
Table 3.2 <i>Questionnaire survey reflecting specifics of total respondents</i> .....	95
Table 3.3 <i>Questionnaire survey depicting particulars of Australian respondents</i> . ....	95
Table 3.4 <i>Questionnaire survey displaying details of Bangladeshi respondents</i> .....	96
Table 3.5 <i>Narrative inquiry participants</i> .....	97
Table 3.6 <i>Semi-structured interview participants</i> .....	97
Table 4.1 <i>Task-specific PD provisions in Australian and Bangladeshi universities</i> .....	118
Table 4.2 <i>PD activities with information on whether they were institutionally organised or self-driven</i> .....	120
Table 4.3 <i>Task-based PD needs of academics in Australia and Bangladesh</i> .....	133
Table 4.4 <i>PD resources and mechanisms contributing to academics' growth</i> .....	140
Table 4.5 <i>Australian and Bangladeshi TESOL academics' intercultural paradigms</i> .....	157
Table 4.6 <i>Australian and Bangladeshi universities' support towards interculturality</i> .....	158
Table 4.7 <i>Australian and Bangladeshi TESOL academics' critical evaluations of the current PD practices</i> .....	166
Table 4.8 <i>Australian and Bangladeshi TESOL academics' proposed improvements on the current PD practices</i> .....	180

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1. <i>Elements of intercultural competence and intercultural communicative competence</i> .....	32
Figure 2.2. <i>Five components of intercultural (communicative) competence</i> .....	37
Figure 2.3. <i>Surface and deep cultural elements for intercultural paradigms</i> .....	76
Figure 3.1. <i>Methodological framework implemented in this study</i> .....	90
Figure 3.2. <i>Five-phases of semi-structured interview design framework</i> .....	103
Figure 3.3. <i>Six-phase thematic analysis model</i> .....	110
Figure 3.4. <i>Ethical justifications implemented in this study</i> .....	112
Figure 4.1. <i>Induction programmes in Australia and Bangladesh</i> .....	117
Figure 4.2. <i>Comparative needs assessment from academics’ perspectives</i> .....	134
Figure 4.3. <i>Comparative needs assessment from administrators’ perspectives</i> .....	135
Figure 4.4: <i>Comparative insights of academics on effective professional development mechanisms</i> .....	142
Figure 4.5: <i>Comparative insights of administrators on effective professional development mechanisms</i> .....	142
Figure 4.6: <i>Administrators’ practice, perception, and attitude towards interculturality</i> .....	159
Figure 4.7: <i>Critical evaluations on the current PD status of Australian and Bangladeshi academics</i> .....	167
Figure 4.8: <i>Critical evaluations on the current PD status of Australian and Bangladeshi administrators</i> .....	168
Figure 4.9: <i>Proposed improvements offered by Australian and Bangladeshi academics</i> ....	181
Figure 4.10: <i>Proposed improvements offered by Australian and Bangladeshi administrators</i> .....	181
Figure 5.1. <i>A comparison between the initial and updated INSPIRE models for professional development</i> .....	261



## ACRONYMS

TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
PD	Professional Development
CPD	Continuous Professional Development
ESL	English as a Second Language
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
TALIS	Teaching and Learning International Survey
IQAC	Institutional Quality Assurance Cell
BELTA	Bangladesh English Language Teachers Association
NELTA	Nepal English Language Teachers Association
LOTE	Learning Other Language Than English
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
UGC	University Grants Commission
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
IC	Intercultural Competence
ICC	Intercultural Communicative Competence
DMIS	Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity
MMIC	Multidimensional Model for Intercultural Competence
PMIC	Process Model for Intercultural Competence
OBE	Outcome Based Education

## CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

### 1.0. Introduction

This chapter discusses the research's scope, objective, and broad themes. Following the purpose of the study is the justification for this new investigation. In addition, this section comprises an in-depth examination of the background information and problem description. It outlines the study's overview and concludes a chapter summary.

### 1.1. Focus of the study

Professional development (PD) is widely acknowledged as a precondition to meaningful teaching-learning phenomena. It is inextricably connected to the development of teachers' professional and academic mindsets and eventually has an impact on the learning experiences of student populations (Ravandpour, 2019). According to Howe (2013), "Teacher education and professional development are at the heart of the effective curriculum, teaching and learning" (p. 60). Along a similar line, Darling-Hammond (2017) articulated, "Teacher preparation and development are key building blocks in developing effective teachers" (p. 291). Consequently, continuous learning opportunities through PD are essential for effective pedagogical practice.

Internationalisation and globalisation have diversified the linguistic, cultural, and ethnic backgrounds of students in today's classrooms. Conventional multilingual and multiethnic classrooms necessitated intercultural intelligence on the part of teachers in order to appropriately address the diverse student populations (Mansilla & Jackson, 2011). Hence, contemporary internationalised and multicultural learning environments pose a greater challenge to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) academic staff (from now onwards academics) in relation to fostering intercultural awareness and subsequently building global citizens. Nearly a decade ago, Canagarajah (2013) emphasised the importance of strengthening professional learning with a view to embrace intercultural dimension as a way ahead in the burgeoning popularity of digital communication and World Englishes:

The development of intercultural communication skills is vital as people from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds interact and engage in 'the intercultural negotiation of agency and power in the translocal spaces of contemporary globalisation'. (p. 222)

Furthermore, communicative competence and intercultural competence (IC) are aspects of transnational, transcultural, and global employment opportunities that apply to TESOL academics as well as their students. Again, the popularity of English as a language for communication is driving up the demand for qualified TESOL teachers around the world

(Liyanage, Walker & Singh, 2015; Moussu & Lurda, 2008) not only for learning globally and teaching locally but also for teaching globally.

TESOL academics, therefore, need more specialised PD opportunities to encounter the additional demands made by contemporary educational milieus. Liyanage et al. (2015) argued that globalisation, internationalisation, and marketisation of TESOL education set high credibility and quality expectation in university education reform. As a result, TESOL academics have to be equipped with modern, culturally accomplished pedagogical knowledge with an aim to provide for future generations through consistent and continuous professional development (CPD).

This study focuses on TESOL academics' PD in an Asian developing country, Bangladesh and in a Western-developed country, Australia-as an appealing destination for Asian students to study TESOL. Due to the internationalisation of TESOL education, both Western and non-Western universities are incorporating international best practices to reflect a radical change that has occurred. As a popular destination for cross-border migrations, Australia has a largely multicultural social structure. As a result, TESOL practitioners may view cross-national experiences in combination with national experiences as pertinent and become more culturally sensitive. In contrast, non-Western countries are actively embracing internationalisation by sending their academics to Australia and other countries to collaborate with Western academics to enhance the development of world-class standards in their domestic education (Kaowiwattanakul, 2016). Similarly, integrating an international benchmark into local environments may lead to creating a balance in the present inter-connected and interdependent world.

Thus, the objective of this study is to depict a clear, systematic, and data-driven comparative picture of TESOL academics' PD realities, acknowledging the 'voices' from a sample of TESOL professionals in Australian and Bangladeshi university contexts. In addition, the study examines the relevant PDs that are currently available to university TESOL academics that enable their development as interculturally competent academics in the university sector. This results in the proposal of a set of guidelines for a contemporary intercultural model with international applications.

## 1.2. Background and problem statement

Over the past two decades, Australia has strengthened its top four global ranking as an exporter of international education. Prior to the COVID-19 pandemic, Harman stated (2005, p. 122), “Today Australia is the third largest exporter of higher education services internally, coming in rank order after the United States and the United Kingdom”. Against the backdrop of digital communication, international discourses, and global interactions among nations, Moussu and Lurda (2008) documented “escalating demands in English instruction” (p. 319). However, Singh and Doherty (2004) emphasised Australia in particular to highlight the potential growth of the ESL industry. They observed that “The status of English as the emerging lingua franca of the global networked economy has guaranteed Australia a competitive education export position in the Asia-Pacific region” (p. 10). After the global pandemic and more recently, Howard (2021) in his seminal work expressed confidence about the sustainable increase in the number of overseas students coming to Australia. According to him, “...we may be confident that the international education business will grow over the medium to longer term – but in a way that may be more ordered and less speculative than in the past” (p. 12). As such, it is clearly discernible that Australia’s market for TESOL students will expand in the years to come.

Despite this anticipated expansion, several studies presented an unsatisfactory PD state of Australian TESOL education and teachers’ PD. In their scholarly work, Liyanage et al. (2015) that the role of professional standards in TESOL teachers’ PD lacks clarity. Oliver, Rochecouste and Nguyen emphasised the same level of vagueness and remarked “A historical perspective of English as a second language in Australia reveals the field as in a constant state of flux, in spite of Australia’s status as a nation of immigrants” (2017, p. 7). Thus, this research acknowledges the problematic nature of TESOL PD contexts and suggests a research-based course of action that could scaffold Australia in better preparing its TESOL workforce. The evidence from the literature regarding Australian TESOL PD is noteworthy given that Bangladeshi universities emphasise a comparable PD expansion, the concomitant heightened need for TESOL professionals, and the problematic PD condition as follows.

PD in Bangladesh is complicated by the exponential growth in the number of universities (currently 153 in a country as young as about 42 years old, UGC, 2020) under one supervising institution. University Grants Commission (UGC) was established as an independent administrative agency for the quality assurance of the nation’s higher education institutions and the distribution of funds to public universities. In addition, it manages and

oversees public and private universities' compliance with predetermined quality standards (Islam, 2021, p. 65). Bangladesh had only nine public universities before the 1992 parliament passed the Private University Act. Since then, the government has endorsed 107 private and 46 public universities (UGC, 2020), all of which are governed by the UGC- indicating that Bangladesh's issues with high-quality education have finally found a safe haven.

It is important to note that, with the exception of a few engineering institutes, most universities offer both bachelor's and master's degrees in English. Universities also operate remedial English programmes of various sizes and durations. Thus, it is evident that the scope of TESOL professionals' jobs is undoubtedly broad and extensive. There is an increased demand for TESOL teaching in the new universities, yet no licensing or registration test is mandatory or available for them. In this regard, Khan (2008) observed, "Traditionally teacher training colleges provide in-service training programmes for secondary and higher secondary school and college teachers. However, at the university level, this kind of training is not available" (p. 7).

As such, the condition of the TESOL academics' PD manifestations is completely different and subpar. With the limited availability of PD in TESOL, the quality of Bangladeshi graduates in the disciplines and employability in the global workforce is likely to be in jeopardy. Funding provision for PD needs to be made known in advance of proposing more networked, international, intercultural continuous PD in TESOL.

In countries where English was merely a foreign language less than two decades ago, it is now a prerequisite for higher jobs and career opportunities (Troudi, 2005). A similar trend is perceived in Bangladesh where good English communication skills are required to obtain even a low-level position. As universities function as a critical gateway for the graduates to the job market, university TESOL teachers are expected to shoulder this crucial responsibility for not only improving students' communicative competence but also boosting graduates' English knowledge. Hence, accomplished TESOL practitioners are in demand to perform effectively in furnishing future generations of human resources with appropriate English skills. Untrained TESOL teachers may fail to turn this enormous crowd of graduates into competitive global citizens.

Thus, while primary, secondary, and post-secondary TESOL teachers do need sign-up tests and training, university teachers also require screening tests and necessary education and training to emerging as effective TESOL and intercultural practitioners. Australian settings also seem to reflect a similar scenario. Australia requires all TESOL teachers to be registered and certified for compulsory education (Liyanage et al., 2015, p. 486). In this sense, Probert (2015)

stipulated, “There is now growing interest within the sector in structures for ‘professionalising’ university teaching, as well as more formal recognition of university academics as teachers, including a system of accreditation” (p. 10).

Apparently, the preceding debate shows that PD in Australian and Bangladeshi higher education settings lacks certification, accreditation, coherence, and uniformity. This may be a compelling argument for comparative research between Australia and Bangladesh, along with simultaneous expansion and problematic PD status, as previously noted in this section. The researcher became intrigued to explore how Australia, as a premier worldwide education provider, addressed PD issues and maintained international benchmark education in such a situation. Comparable PD challenges in the contexts of two widely diverged countries may be of enormous benefit, opening numerous avenues for contextual learning, which may aid in the improved design of PD paradigm promoting intercultural praxis.

Evidently, it is high time to identify the university TESOL academics’ PD needs in order to bring about a paradigm shift in their current PD practices, which is apparently below standard. Thus, this study recognises this overarching problem and proposes to provide a research-based way forward, which both the nominated nations immediately require.

### **1.3. Rationale for the study**

The current PD of teaching academics within Applied Linguistics, as specialists in TESOL, is problematic. In many non-Western countries, TESOL specialists in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) have fewer opportunities to develop as academics (Jacob et al., 2015; Joshi et al., 2018; Zein et al., 2020) in contrast to TESOL specialists in English in countries where English is the majority language. There are, however, contemporary transnational intercultural issues in the PD programmes of TESOL teaching that are similar between Western and non-Western countries (Oranje & Smith, 2018; Sercu, 2006; Young & Sachdev, 2011).

A systematic analysis of PD needs among ESL, EFL, and TESOL academics in international universities is overdue as intercultural demands on the academics themselves have increased (Moeller & Nugent, 2014), and the standard of their pedagogy in the industry is being questioned. A study is needed, therefore, to identify the current and future needs in higher education for TESOL academics to grow contextually in an intercultural world where English is the lingua franca with a plan for improvement. Thus, this comparative study aims to expose PD needs from the perspectives of TESOL academics where their mainstream language is not English and where English is the primary language and the managers of CPD in their institutions.

PD is a critical component scaffolding academics' professional and academic upskilling. Richardson and Diaz-Maggioli (2018, p. 6) found that English language teachers' engagement in CPD has "positive effects on the teacher's identity and agency, leading to increased levels of autonomous decision-making". A review of the principles and practices for effective PD revealed the implications of having institutional PD and its impact on the institution. Management which promoted and took an active part in support of CPD resulted in improved teacher morale and consequent student learning (Richardson & Diaz-Maggioli, 2018).

Recent empirical research suggests a correlation between Iranian EFL professionals' meaningful participation in PD and their sense of self-efficacy. The findings concentrated on the development of multiple pedagogical and academic competencies: collaborating, decision-making, reflecting, and updating (Ravandpour, 2019, p. 1). Simultaneously, culture plays a vital role in enriching the educational experiences of learner populations and facilitating the internalisation of learning.

Perceiving this productive association between culture and language pedagogy (Byram & Wagner, 2018; Liddicoat, 2002; Sercu, 2002), Green (2015) advocated a pedagogical practice merged with cultural components by illustrating "an approach that supplements existing classroom-specific pedagogical methods with school-wide cultural management initiatives in order to better effect transfer of learning" (p. i).

While the importance of PD for effective pedagogical contexts is recognised along with the possible barriers that the current internationalised and cross-cultural educational landscapes may present, research-based directions are seldom available in the mainstream literature. A new comparative study between Western and non-Western nations addressing TESOL academics' PD issues, in light of internationalisation is needed to close this gap. A variety of reasons highlight the importance of the present study, including the current PD landscape describing the provisions and needs of TESOL academics, as well as the opportunities and challenges that globalisation and internationalisation present.

To emphasise the need for a new comparative study, Yang (2003) reiterated that "The existing literature cannot suffice, and empirical research is urgently needed... Empirical comparative studies in the internationalisation of higher education, particularly in less developed countries, are badly needed" (p. 288). Harman (2005) stressed that although there was a hype of global networks, internationalisation, and teachers' collaboration in TESOL PD, a very limited number of research outputs were to be found. In line with Yang (2003), Howard et al. (2016) emphasised more topographic comparisons of Western and non-Western countries

to better design globalised TESOL teachers' PD. Finally, Klink et al. (2017, p. 163) reinforced, "Whilst much of that attention is being directed at teacher educators in different countries, international comparisons have been quite rare to date". Evidently, a comparative study like this could potentially establish a more meaningful connection between Western and non-Western country educational environments and foster a global standard while incorporating contextual intricacies and subtleties.

Joan Crandall made numerous contributions (1993, 2000, 2016) to drawing adult ESL practitioners' PD reality. One of her seminal publications written approximately three decades ago portrayed a realistic and thorough picture of ESL professionals' PD and their workforce milieu, which is particularly revealing and relevant to this study. As stated by Crandall (1993):

Adult ESL practitioners operate in a context in which full-time positions are rare, resources are scarce, and turnover is high..... Large, multilevel classes, limited resources, substandard facilities, intermittent funding, and limited contracts with few benefits. (p. 497)

Literally, this description captured the essence of the adult ESL workforce and ESL practitioners' PD predicament across a variety of contexts. Crandall reiterated that the funding provisions for the PD programmes depended on "shoestring budgets" (p. 498) and that also came from several sources and quite often the funding cycle was short. In addition, inadequate numbers of programmes scarcely met the demand and that also every so often came after a long wait. Furthermore, the programmes were not woven to accommodate ESL teachers' diverse needs and multi-level of proficiency. Thus, they were the least empowered workforce sending true calls for a comprehensive revamp in their PD paradigms.

Now, it is to determine how the TESOL practitioners' PD landscape has evolved over the past three decades. A comprehensive scrutiny of all the pertinent literature revealed a disconcerting PD status for TESOL professionals. Neilsen (2011) and Stanley (2017) both highlighted that TESOL educators lacked the status of established professions. Richardson and Diaz-Magioli (2018) demonstrated that TESOL teachers primarily relied on their own resources and those of the institutions they worked for. As for the institutions, "the workplace provides little and infrequent CPD, if at all" (p. 5). As a result, teachers organise their PD at the cost of their valuable money and time. Thus, it is evident that TESOL teachers are still grappling for support from all connected stakeholders for their PD in academia.

Not only was there inadequate PD, but in the present knowledge society, various cross-border economic and multicultural drivers also demand refurbishment in the PD of TESOL practitioners. Liyanage et al. (2015) affirmed that in the Asian century, the rise of free exchange of global discourses and commercialisation of education would create more demand for



university TESOL programmes both from domestic Australian students and international students from Asia and that could “challenge and change” (p. 487) in the identities of teachers, educators and researchers. Liyanage et al. (2015) stressed that “TESOL outside compulsory school education is largely marked by an absence of professional standards and industry regulation” (P. 488), hence, “...serious attention must be devoted to the complicated issue of TESOL professional standards” (P. 488).

In reference to the expectations of US TESOL students, Wagner and Lopez (2015) commented that “TESOL programmes have a responsibility to meet their needs” (p. 16). Previously, Howe (2013) reinforced that, “teachers need better training” (p. 60.) “because nationally determined citizenship education is no longer adequate in light of globalisation”. Their study necessitated a restructuring of university education with a view to conform to the criteria and credibility standards that globalisation, internationalisation, and commercialisation of TESOL education demand.

Globalisation and internalisation really broaden the world with no demarcation and offer endless opportunities to competent individuals. Larsen (2016) commented on the global mobility of students and teachers, “Some universities developed collaborative programmes to prepare their student teachers for teaching English as a second language” (p. 402). She continued that many student-teachers went to Hong Kong from mainland China “in order to better position themselves within the job market and compete in the global economy”. The world needs skilled, innovative, flexible, and mobile TESOL professionals who can go anywhere to work.

In the past, only native speakers had this prerogative to travel extensively and function as TESOL teachers (Moussu & Lurda, 2008). With a rapid decline in the number of native-born TESOL teachers and a sharp increase in non-native TESOL teachers, more opportunities are coming in line for accomplished non-native TESOL practitioners. Regarding non-native EFL teachers’ global job prospects, Moussu and Lurda (2008, p. 319) observed, “These teachers are used to provide English instruction exclusively in EFL contexts, but now are found occupying teaching positions in English-speaking countries as well”.

Along a similar line to Moussu and Lurda (2008), Ahmad et al. (2017) provided further specific observations about the global nature of Asian TESOL teachers and how they operate in multicultural classrooms. The fact that these instructors are constructing global images and worldwide networks, earning foreign currency, and developing their professional character through multicultural encounters and partnerships is a source of tremendous pride for their home nations. When opportunities are available, culturally responsive PD may provide future

global TESOL teachers with a competitive edge by improving their current pedagogical skills, thereby promoting educational reform and mobility.

The rationale for this comparison was to fully investigate the cultural and linguistic context of the study: a comparison was made of PD environments prevalent in Australian and Bangladeshi higher education settings. To justify and encourage this type of comparison, Howe (2008) claimed that “while differences in educational milieu exist, there are commonalities relevant to education across the Pacific and everywhere” (p. 333). Likewise, Howard, Basurto-Santos, Gimenez, Gonzales, McMurray and Traish (2016) indicated remarkable similarities in PD condition, retention, and recruitment contexts between demographically and geographically heterogeneous countries through their research.

Along a similar line, many scholars and researchers spoke highly of comparative studies. Collaborative models for CPD, according to Collinson, Kozina, Lin, Ling, Matheson, Newcombe, and Zogla, (2009), “can contribute to better understandings, stronger policies, and improved implementation in schools” (p. 15). Larsen (2016) asserted comparative studies expand, “worldviews, deeper and more critical understanding of global interdependence, and awareness of different educational systems” (p. 400). Finally, Darling-Hammond (2017) confirmed,

The teaching challenges posed by higher expectations for learning and greater diversity of learners around the globe will likely be better met if nations can learn from each other about what matters and what works in different contexts. (p. 307)

It is, therefore, clear that comparative studies discuss critical issues that may eventually aid in the design and implementation of educational reforms in a variety of circumstances. Additionally, academics can benefit from collaborating with skilled practitioners from many different parts of the world. Furthermore, a universal skill standard is promoted due to the perception of greater mobility of skilled practitioners across national boundaries in today’s digitalised and small global village. Concerning the global benchmark of higher education, Probert (2015) perceived:

Australian higher education shares many characteristics with other national systems of higher education. Indeed, higher education is becoming an increasingly global system, with high levels of mobility among students and academics as well as international networks of research collaboration. The standards by which quality is judged have become international, with global rankings of universities becoming remarkably prominent over the past decade. (p. 6)

Thus, a comparative study, such as this can contribute to bridging the existing divergences between Western and non-Western, developing and developed country scenarios and create a universal benchmark while embracing contextual nuances and uniqueness.

Apparently, there could be several justifications behind selecting a comparative study between TESOL academics' existing PD conditions and intercultural paradigms in Australia and Bangladesh. This section presents a few but largely condenses the arguments put forward in the previous two sections due to their relevance and strength.

First, a gap was identified in the literature for a comparative study between Western and non-Western nations (Harman, 2005; Klink et al., 2017; Yang, 2003) considering internationalisations of higher education and to better design globalised TESOL teachers' PD. This cohort of investigations played a central role because they not only indicated the need for new research in a developing country situation but also highlighted the need for a new comparative study between Western and non-Western countries.

Second, a wide spectrum of researchers (Collinson, et al., 2009; Darling-Hammond, 2017; Howard et al., 2016; Howe, 2008; Larsen, 2016; Olmedo & Harbon, 2010) emphasised multiple benefits of international comparative studies entailing Western and non-Western countries. Howe (2008) and Howard et al. (2016) believed that some PD components may have universal values regarding their efficacy across cultures and contexts. Olmedo and Harbon (2010) and Darling-Hammond (2017) underlined cross-border comparative studies due to their potential for a profound understanding of global interconnectedness and knowledge of diverse educational systems thus gaining insights into various contexts may help tackle pedagogical challenges in a more meaningful way. Collinson et al. (2009) and Larsen (2016) highlighted multiple advantages of comparative studies involving Western and non-Western countries: a greater understanding of diverse policies and worldviews facilitated the formulation of more effective educational policies.

Third (apparently more cogent), the justification for choosing this comparative study was a parallel expansion of TESOL education in Australian and Bangladeshi universities culminating in increased demand for competent TESOL academics (Douglas & Rosvold, 2018; Howard, 2021; Moussu & Lurda, 2008; UGC, 2020). Despite this anticipated growth, Liyanage et al. (2015) and Oliver et al. (2017) presented an unsatisfactory TESOL education and teachers' PD status in Australia. This comparable expansion state in TESOL education seemingly created an association between Australia and Bangladesh and intrigued the researcher to investigate and find out the conventional PD conditions with a view to compare

Western and non-Western countries' techniques and strategies to deal with similar issues thereby creating a space for contextual learning.

Fourth (similarly or more compelling than that of expansion in TESOL education) Khan (2008) and Liyanage et al. (2015) highlighted comparable higher education conditions in entirely different contexts by demonstrating that there was no licencing or registration requirement for Australian and Bangladeshi TESOL academics. This similar PD environment directly influenced the decision to conduct a comparative study between Australia and Bangladesh with the objective of determining, in comparable higher education contexts, what PD status could facilitate optimal pedagogical and intercultural paradigms. There could be another argument favouring convenience sampling as the researcher being Bangladeshi went to Australia and chose to conduct a comparative study between her home and the host countries; this argument might not be entirely refuted.

Evidently, the discussion above justifies selecting a comparative study between TESOL academics' existing PD conditions in Australia and Bangladesh. Consequently, this study is a timely effort to listen to TESOL professionals' long-ignored voices and to recommend research-based way-forwards for the critical renovation of their PD status. This study will also report implications for TESOL PD with a view to making it relevant for globalised TESOL pedagogical contexts.

#### 1.4. Research questions

The research questions for this comparative study are as follows:

- i) What are the comparative provisions and needs for TESOL academics' professional development in Australia and Bangladesh?
- ii) What are the mechanisms and resources TESOL academics used for their professional development in Australia and Bangladesh?
- iii) How do TESOL academics integrate intercultural awareness into their teaching practices?

#### 1.5. Overview of the study

There are six chapters in this dissertation. The following is a concise outline of their organisational structure:

*Chapter One* provides an introduction to the thesis along with the focus of the study, the context, and the problem statement. It also explains rationale behind this comparative study and the research questions. It ends with a brief outline of the dissertation and a conclusion.

*Chapter Two* reviews the literature on the professional development of TESOL instructors and their intercultural paradigms. It examines both Western and non-Western contexts against the internationalisation of higher education. This chapter begins with a description of the methodologies used for literature searches and the conceptualisations of key terms. The discussion then shifted to the theoretical foundations of this investigation. In addition, it emphasises the six main themes of this research: PD provisions, PD needs, PD for academic growth, intercultural paradigms, critical evaluations of the current PD landscapes, and proposed improvements. It concludes with a chapter summary.

*Chapter Three* outlines the methodological approach as well as rationales for selecting each research instrument of this study. It describes sampling procedures and the research participants. This chapter also concentrates on various methods utilised for data collection, analyse, and presentation. In addition, it highlights the ethical considerations that have guided this comparative study.

*Chapter Four* reports the key findings of this study. As part of a sequential mixed-methods study, this chapter consistently presents quantitative data results first, followed by qualitative data results. Finally, a conclusion is offered by summing up all the major findings of this research.

*Chapter Five* interprets the findings from Chapter Four, analyses them critically, and draws multilayered comparisons through data triangulations. This chapter also contextualises the findings in the existing literature to demonstrate how they either extend the current state of knowledge or validate the existing knowledgebase.

*Chapter Six* draws a conclusion, summarises the main points, and answers the research questions. It discusses methodological, theoretical, and practical implications of the study. In addition, this chapter identifies the study's limitations and offers suggestions for future research.

## 1.6. Conclusions

To summarise, this study compares the current PD status of TESOL academics with a view to developing an intercultural model with broader applications. It adapted the INSPIRE PD model (Richardson & Diaz-Maggioli, 2018) to evaluate its applicability in the given research contexts. This research utilised a sequential mixed-methods paradigm with a quantitative questionnaire survey exploring the research arenas and the qualitative narratives and interviews augmenting the quantitative findings to answer the research questions fully. The

three compatible epistemological perspectives (social constructivism, intercultural theory, and reflective practice) functioned as theoretical and analytical frameworks.

The findings revealed that there were ample opportunities for generic PD in Australian universities; however, academics demanded subject-specific PD. In contrast, the academics in Bangladesh appeared dissatisfied with the lack of both general and discipline-specific PD. Concerning PD mechanisms enhancing their academic aptitude, both Australians and Bangladeshis tended to cite a wide spectrum of similar PD strategies, albeit with significant divergence in how they rated and in the percentage. Regarding intercultural praxis, Australian academics appeared to integrate IC, but their intercultural paradigms appeared deficient. In contrast, Bangladeshi academics seemed to be more concerned with promoting surface-level cultural awareness than IC among students.

When it came to critical evaluations, Australian academics emphasised *Limited interculturality, Self-initiated, and No discipline-specific PD*. Similarly, to their Australian counterparts, Bangladeshi academics stressed the absence of discipline-specific PD, as well as its being irregular and informal, not based on needs, and lacking financial support. Their suggested modifications appeared to address the PD complications identified in their critical evaluations. Both Australian and Bangladeshi academics prioritised universities' support towards interculturality, shared responsibility for PD, and subject-specific PD in their proposed recommendations. Bangladeshi academics also advocated systematic, regular, needs-based PD, and increased research funds.

Finally, based on Australian and Bangladeshi academics' appraisals and improvements, the previous INSPIRE model is reformulated to make it more effective and relevant for contemporary classrooms. This study made a crucial contribution by adding new insights to relevant discourse and literature, addressing methodological gaps, describing practical implications, relating them to contemporary global issues and PD practice, and finally restructuring the initial PD model for transnational applications.

## CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

### 1.0. Literature review

This literature review provides an overview of the current state of knowledge concerning TESOL educators' professional development and their fluency with intercultural paradigms. It commences with a description of literature review methods employed in this study. This review then concentrates on developing key terminology, followed by TESOL PD in internationalisation in Australian and Bangladeshi universities. Three congruent epistemological lenses: social constructivism, intercultural theory, and reflective practice for the major themes (for example, PD provisions and needs, PD for academic growth and intercultural paradigms) that serve as the cornerstones for enhancing professional upskilling among TESOL academics worldwide are provided. Additionally, this review critically addresses social constructivism, intercultural theory, and reflective practice as frameworks for analysis, conceptual evolution, and establishment of an extant PD foundation upon which a productive PD model may be situated.

The main components of the study questions relevant to PD provisions and needs, professional advancement, and intercultural praxis of TESOL professionals. This chapter's essential modules also include other related constructs that are in line with the overall investigation, such as critical analyses of the available PD opportunities and mechanisms and ideas for improvement. A wide range of contextual variations illustrates prevailing conditions and recent trends in professional enrichment and intercultural competency.

The micro-organisation of this review, however, is heavily impacted by the dynamics of Australia and Bangladesh because numerous current international and comparative articles relating to PD practice in Western and non-Western countries are included. As such, a combination of thematic and chronological structure is implemented.

The second part of the review scaffolds the current research framework, giving priority to the methodological framework incorporated in the evaluated empirical literature. The identification of methodological and knowledge gaps opens avenues for bettering the professional demands of TESOL academics and their intercultural paradigms globally and expanding the body of knowledge in the area. This review ends with a concise narrative reflecting the key outcomes of the whole Chapter.

## 2.1. Methods

According to Wise and Negrin (2019, p. 2), a five-stage literature search was conducted. The purpose of implementing a five-stage search was to establish inclusion and exclusion criteria that are transparent and ordered. In addition, it was intended to operate as a roadmap for the literature search methodologies. This search strategy had the advantage of narrowing the study's focus while conducting literature searches and constructing an available knowledge base. It conserves time by prohibiting aimless browsing and scanning and by extending concentrated study time. The use of an analogous search prototype by Lankveld et al. (2017) strengthened the case for adopting Wise and Negrin's (2019) five-tier literature search paradigm.

Following Wise and Negrin (2019, p. 2), a five-step search of the literature was performed. The five stages were as follows:

1. A search of the Web of Science indexed in Elsevier Scopus, Springer, Routledge online, and Eric Digest was run initially. The six research topics of this study (PD provisions, PD needs, PD for academic progress, intercultural praxis, critical evaluations, and proposed improvements) were used to search for publications on nominated countries' contexts first in all Website databases and then excluding affiliated national contexts. Until 2000, the key search phrases were used to conduct a search of most of the Scopus databases.
2. Comparable searches to those of the first stage were performed using Google Scholar.
3. The inclusion criteria implemented in this study were as follows: 1. research focusing on either PD components or intercultural dimensions 2. Peer-reviewed empirical research 3. reviews, books, book chapters, similar dissertation, and proceedings of conferences 4. studies that focused on TESOL tertiary and university settings.
4. The exclusion parameter included 1. non-peer-reviewed articles. 2. studies with minimal emphasis on PD components or intercultural skills 3. studies that concentrated on only primary and high school contexts.
5. On the basis of a full-text review, 96 documents were identified from the initial screening of search results and discarded 996 due to their sole focus on school, pre-service TESOL contexts, abstract ideas on intercultural awareness, and judging other exclusion benchmarks. This study included a total of approximately 249 publications.



## 2.2. Glossary of terms

This section commences with a brief outline to the definitions of professional development, followed by a synopsis of internationalisation, to establish the context for subsequent discussion more effectively. These conceptualisations have substantial ramifications not only for the critical interpretations of teacher education practice, but also for the likelihood of such a deployment. Professional development is central to conceptualising language education content.

### 2.2.1. *Professional development*

There are several definitions of PD available in the relevant literature. Cinarbas and Hos (2018, p. 42) demonstrated that “professional development programmes are a way of improving language teachers’ practices...and language teachers need to grow professionally throughout their academic career”. They illustrated individual professional development, continuing education, collaboration, study groups, peer coaching, and mentoring as PD activities. However, an old definition provided by Diaz-Maggioli (2003) is particularly effective in this research context:

Professional development is not a one-shot, one-size-fits-all event, but rather an evolving process of professional self-disclosure, reflection, and growth that yields the best results when sustained over time in communities of practice and when focused on job-embedded responsibilities. (p. 1)

Thus, in this project, professional development is broad and includes:

Up-skilling and upgrading professional credentials such as academic degrees to formal coursework, international teaching and study experience, international placements, teaching practicum, coaching, mentoring, intercultural and reflective practice, attending conferences, seminars, workshops, in-house contextualised training, online courses, webinars, collaborative professional activities & publications, and informal learning opportunities include reading journals, peer-discussion, individual professional inquiry, and action research. As an active, ongoing, and lifelong process, professional development provides a platform for transforming academic staff’s pedagogical approaches to better suit the demands of student populations.

### 2.2.2. *Internationalisation*

Drawing on the dynamics of internationalising higher education fundamentally, the researcher identified three useful definitions:

Internationalisation is defined as “the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions, or delivery of postsecondary

education at the national, sectoral, and institutional level” (Knight 2012, p. 14). While drawing on a classic model of a first-generation internationalised university, Knight reiterated some core designing concepts including international partnerships, multicultural students and staff, and multifarious intercultural and international collaborative activities reflecting both local and global contexts (Knight 2015, p. 107). Fabricious et al. (2017) captured European perspectives:

Ideally, the internationalisation of university education should be about designing study programmes that bring together, support and take nourishment from the knowledge, cultural practices, life experiences and linguistic resources of students and staff from diverse backgrounds, in order to develop new ways of studying familiar and not-yet-so-familiar subjects, topics and problems. (p. 592)

Another more recent definition is provided by Barili and Byram (2021):

Internationalisation of Higher Education means we need to prepare our students to enter into dialogue with people with other world views, whom they encounter personally or through the media on a daily basis in diverse communities in their own country, communities, and classrooms just as much as when they travel to others. (p. 3)

These conceptualisations of internationalisation underline the need for internationalising curricula incorporating intercultural, national, and global domains into higher education milieus. Including intercultural, local, and global dynamics into the focus of the TESOL paradigm leads to increasing demand on our teaching professionals for preparing future generations of learner populations. Yet another perspective of internationalisation in relation to the linkages between developed and developing nations espoused by Tight (2021) has relevance in the present research context.

### 2.3. Theoretical framework leading to conceptualisation

This research is driven by three reconcilable theoretical ideologies: social constructivism, intercultural theory, and reflective practice. It may be argued that there are no internal or external incongruities in the philosophical foundations of these theories because a strong bond of transformative principles combined these epistemological lenses (Kennedy, 2014; Aljohani, 2017). In addition, an existing PD model is adapted from Richardson & Diaz-Maggioli (2018) to evaluate its efficacy and serve as an analytical framework for beneficial PD components. They developed a comprehensive paradigm for ESL settings based on accessible publications.

### 2.3.1. Reasoning for selecting social constructivism theory

Justification for the selection of the social constructivism theory requires a discussion of the strengths and limitations of the three dominant theories of language acquisition: behaviourism, cognitivism, and social constructivism.

Behaviourists view language acquisition as a habit formation. Behaviourists argue that all behaviour stems from an individual's responses to outside factors or stimulants (Leeder, 2022; Skinner, 1953). In general, behaviourists perceive language acquisition as a shift in the frequency limit or reaction of a person's behaviours, which originates from a series of stimulus–response correlations (Schunk, 2012). Furthermore, emotional states, intentions, beliefs, and other psychological processes have no effect on human actions. Consequently, Weegar and Pacis (2012) argues that behavioural scientists have little interest in what may potentially happen in people's minds; they are merely concerned about behaviour changes (Boghossian, 2006).

Thus, language learning is deemed as a process with a focus on memorisation and the building up of factual information via exercises. According to Guey et al. (2010), behaviourists appear to have perceived language from a reductionist perspective, with no emphasis on the surrounding atmosphere or the interior processes of developing a language. In this theory of language acquisition, Skinner (1953) emphasises that external stimulus take precedence over internal processes, and reinforcement is achieved through repetitive cycles of action.

Guey et al. (2010) argue that these successive blends (from the most elementary to the most challenging) demonstrate the core of behaviourism. Because of this incremental increase in simple to difficult patterns of learning, some educators consider behaviourism to be functional in the early stages of the learning process. Another possible advantage of a simplistic perspective on language is that it facilitates an unbiased assessment of student performance. The strongest disadvantage may be discarding the influence of human psychology and social contexts. Another drawback may be language learning is seen as a habit formation through external recurrent input of stimulus and response process. Hence, this may not be a viable alternative for teachers' professional development atmosphere.

Cognitive theory is an educational theory of psychology that seeks to explain human behaviour by elucidating cognitive processes, such as information storage and retrieval. Before evaluating a student's performance, Weegar and Pacis (2012) observe that instructors should consider the students' prior practicum experiences in cognitivism. As stated in Piaget's theory of cognitive development, individuals lack the ability to readily assimilate and apply new

information because it must be integrated with what they already know. In line with cognitive theory, humans typically process information using pre-existing schemata to generate mental representations (Yilmaz, 2011).

In cognitive theory, when a person is exposed to stimuli, their minds will refer to the prior schema (or inner structures formed from their memory and beliefs) to help them comprehend the information (Yilmaz, 2011). Mental processes are indispensable for understanding how we learn. The cognitive theory acknowledges that internal and external factors can influence language acquisition by learners. Unlike behaviourism, cognitivism evidently considers both internal and external factors. The advantage of cognitive theory, therefore, lies in its emphasis on inner psychology, while its disadvantages may include its failure to recognise learners' agency and the influence of sociocultural and collaborative efforts on the educational process.

According to Vygotsky (1978), the key concepts in a collaborative approach to learning are Vygotsky's notions of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) and mediation. These two constructs present a view of learning as a process of apprenticeship where apprentices collaborate in social practices with teacher educators as well as mentors, critical friends, and peers to acquire and construct new forms of interaction and thinking.

In social constructivist environments, educational obligations are characterised by inquiry, active participation, and team-based problem-solving. In addition to cultivating dialogue and emphasising intellectual comprehension over rote memorisation, supplementary construction methods involve conveying others' perspectives. Instead of solely lounging and passively absorbing content, actively engage with it (Aljohani, 2017). The primary contribution of constructivism to educational psychology is the interactive, student-focused method that emphasises the autonomy of students throughout the learning process (Al-Johani, 2017). As a result, the educational process should not exist in isolation from the circumstances and contexts to which it pertains.

In constructivism, the teacher is a mediator and co-explorer who encourages students to query and shape their own unique thoughts, beliefs, and inferences. In a few instances, Vygotsky describes how students learn through independent investigation, knowledge acquisition, and collaboration. The constructivist approach is based on 1. the creation of knowledge, not its reception 2. reasoning and analysis, not accumulation and memorisation 3. comprehension and application, not repetition 4. Being involved rather than a passive recipient (Al-Johani, 2017).

Apparently, social constructivism possesses multiple strengths as the theory situates the teaching-learning in specific contexts and acknowledges the learners' agency in determining the materials for them. Another advantage is that the teachers' function as co-creators of knowledge alongside students. In terms of resolving problems that students may face, they seek out peer support and, through collaboration, generate innovative ideas and a path forward.

Guey et al. (2010) argue that, in contrast to behaviourism and cognitivism, social constructivism concentrates primarily on psychological requirements and values learners' autonomy than the learning process. Humanism concepts are philosophical and abstract and are therefore not easily impartially verifiable (Boghossian, 2006), which makes it challenging to evaluate the reliability of the humanistic viewpoint in education.

In comparison to other prevalent theories of language acquisition, social constructivism possesses more advantages than disadvantages. Moreover, the context of this study is the development of academics' professional knowledge where social constructivism concepts including, contexts-based, relevant, learners' agency, peer-dialogue, and collaboration may be of particular relevance. Furthermore, a series of education and TESOL scholars (Diaz-Maggioli, 2014; Johnson, 2009; Marginson & Dang, 2017; Richards, 2008) strongly advocates in favour of social constructivism in teacher education ambience. Diaz-Maggioli, (2014, p. 195) opines that "Sociocultural Learning Theory appears as a solid option". According to Johnson (2015),

By implication then, Vygotskian sociocultural theory functions as a powerful theoretical stance through which to both conceptualise and analyse the design, enactment, and outcomes of the practices of L2 teacher education. (p. 525)

Therefore, social constructivism may be a reliable paradigm for analysing the current PD landscapes prevailing in Australian and Bangladeshi universities.

### 2.3.2. *Social constructivism*

The key conceptualisation of Russian psychologist and educator Lev Semyonovich Vygotsky's (1978) social constructivism theory is social interactions. Due to the fact that people are continually communicating with their social environments, a person's social experience is essential to language development. Since early childhood, peoples' ideas, beliefs, meanings, and interpretations have social influences and subsequently, social contexts shape patterns of their language discourse. Language education is, therefore, fundamentally a social process. Vygotsky sees "the relationship between individual and society is dialectical, and his fundamental hypothesis is that the higher mental functions are socially formed and culturally transmitted (p. 126)". The socio-cultural paradigm of social competence takes account of

teachers' cognitive values in practising a pedagogical craft. Borg (2003, p. 1) refers to teacher cognition as, "The unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching – what teachers know, believe, and think". Johnson (2009) explains,

A sociocultural perspective assumes that human cognition is formed through engagement in social activities and that it is the social relationships and the culturally constructed materials, signs, and symbols, referred to as semiotic artefacts, that mediate those relationships that create uniquely human forms of higher-level thinking. Consequently, cognitive development is an interactive process, mediated by culture, context, language, and social interaction. (p. 1)

Thus, the social constructivism theoretical framework integrates teachers' knowledge, attitude, behaviour, and social surroundings as powerful determiners in any teaching-learning situation, be it students' learning or teachers' PD contexts where teachers become learners. Social constructivism also posits that meaning is not acquired in a vacuum, that it is formed and moulded by dominant cultural beliefs, and that theory and practice are not developed in a vacuum either. Vygotsky further believes that learning is essentially personal, but profoundly social, cultural, psychological, and human functions, in which collaboration fosters learners' critical aptitude and flair. Collaboration with more capable peers may function as a gateway to the development of critical problem-solving ability. According to Vygotsky (1978),

Learning as a profoundly social process emphasises dialogue and the varied roles that language plays in instruction and in mediated cognitive growth. The mere exposure of students to new materials through oral lectures neither allows for adult guidance nor for collaboration with peers. To implement the concept of the zone of proximal development in instruction, psychologists and educators must collaborate in the analysis of the internal ("subterranean") developmental processes which are stimulated by teaching, and which are needed for subsequent learning. (p. 131)

Hence, the conceptualisation of the constructivist paradigm includes social aspects, learners' beliefs, and attitudes, as well as collaboration. Constructivism further identifies an integral link between learners' agency and the internalisation of their knowledge. Thus, in this epistemological perspective, learners decide which knowledge is important. According to its proponents, the advantage of this concept is that when one creates a solution to a problem on one's own, the solution becomes a part of one's own experience (Mahmud, 2013, p. 239). Thus, social constructivism places great emphasis on self-directed learning, which is at the heart of adult teaching and andragogy (Khatun, 2013). Mahmud continues to demonstrate that social constructivism brings about the first breakthrough against conventional teaching and popularises the idea of learner-oriented teaching, and then reflective thoughts advance it, coming up with a wider vision of the role of the teacher and clearer strategies of development.

Further, Mahmud reports that the overall theoretical and practical constructivist assumptions lie in eight aspects that he considers critical in constructivist pedagogy: (1) learning should take place in authentic and real-world settings; (2) learning should include social negotiation and mediation; (3) content and skills should be made relevant to the learner; (4) content and skills should be understood in the context of the learner's prior knowledge; (5) students should be assessed formatively, informing future learning experiences; (6) students should be encouraged to become self-regulatory, self-mediated, and self-aware.

Hence, the broad conceptualisation of social constructivism theory acknowledges the connection between teachers' beliefs and past experiences as determiners for effective education, and particular teaching-learning context, collaborative learning, learners' autonomy, and agenda for a productive language learning landscape. The influence of social contexts, collaboration, and learners' voices in weaving their professional learning experience, however, is pertinent to the scope of this study.

### *2.3.3. Justification for choosing Byram's intercultural theory*

This section could benefit from a brief discussion of the three most influential models for developing intercultural competence: the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS), the Multidimensional Model of Intercultural Competence (MMIC), and the Process Model of Intercultural Competence (PMIC).

Bennet (1993) constructed one of the earliest intercultural models with his Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS). To foster IC, DMIS emphasises the internal transition from ethnocentrism to ethnorelativism. The foundation of this theoretical perspective lies in six concepts: denial, defence, minimalisation, acceptance, adaptation, and integration. Bennett categorises these six components under two broad umbrella terms: ethnocentric including denial, defence, and minimisation and ethnorelative including acceptance, adaptation, and integration per Bennett (2004). Bennett (2004 as cited in Moeller & Nugent, 2014) argues that a person's perspective must involve a transition from trying to avoid cultural divergences to actively seeking them.

The purpose of the DMIS model is to illustrate how an individual's initial reaction to cultural contrasts evolves over time. Garret-Rucks (2012) points out that during the ethnocentric phase, a person views other cultures and cultural contrasts through the lens of his or her current belief system. It is possible that the inquisitive will deny the existence of cultural others. The next step is to defend against other cultures that perceive it as a threat. By the time they reach minimisation, an individual may have begun to minimise the perceived threat from

other cultures. Individuals develop ethnorelativism by recognising that the perspectives of others are equally valid. The ethnorelative stage highlights rational acceptance of the other's worldviews and perspectives. Respecting cultural incongruences and adapting to them leads to integration, which is the incorporation of these worldviews into one's own.

Evidently, the strength of this model is the evolution of an ethnocentric viewpoint to an ethnorelative one, resulting in a presumptively sound state of liberal reasoning. The weakness may be characterised as the onset of ethnocentrism and the assumption that cultural others pose threats.

The second model is Byram's (1997) Multidimensional Model of Intercultural Competence (MMIC) where the initial step is the attitude. Byram (1997) identifies five components of intercultural competence: attitude, knowledge, skills of interpreting and relating, skills of discovery and interaction, and critical cultural awareness.

The benefits of MMIC are primarily focused on the fact that MMIC begins with an evaluation of existing preconceived notions and viewpoints in order to address these issues first. The development of knowledge may then lead to phases of meaningful interpretation and interaction with people of other cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Lastly, critical reflection on one's knowledge that has been streamlined and matured through various experiences of relating, interpreting, and interacting with varied cultures contributes to the development of critical cultural awareness (Byram, 1997). Therefore, the guidelines are transparent and applicable to various pedagogical contexts. The correlation between the development of intercultural competence and the advancement of language proficiency is yet another advantage of MMIC as a model for language education.

In spite of the profound influence that Byram's model of intercultural communicative competence has had on Applied Linguistics and ESL/EFL, the model has received approximately four criticisms: an abstract treatment of the language-culture nexus, an overreliance on intercultural speakers' critical cultural awareness in dealing with self and other, a lack of clarity surrounding IC assessment, and a list-like model. To obtain a sophisticated, comprehensive as well as state-of-the-art understanding of ICC as a contemporary theoretical and practical concern, one must investigate criticisms of this framework in conjunction with opposing viewpoints alongside Byram's more recent work.

Critical scholars claim that Byram's (1989, 1997) model depicts culture as simplified, monolithic, and static object. According to Risagar (2007), national identities are frequently thematised in the realm of foreign language education. And this presents the readers and practitioners with a conundrum as the contours of a high-level national identity – an obstacle



inherent to cultural pedagogy. Risagar (2007) indicates that “there is no theoretical problematising of the national as a cultural construction in Byram” (p. 138). Regarding the national paradigm, Byram’s model in 1997 appears ambiguous because he dissociates himself from it, despite the fact that this paradigm is occasionally evident in relation to linguaculture elsewhere.

Jack (2009) comes close to describing the inherent quandary that people are likely to face in relation to this partial and simplified understanding of culture as this form of intercultural conceptualisation is hegemonic. Dervin (2016) discussed the issues in relation to the culture conceptualisation in the “knowledge” component in Byram’s Model. These critiques mainly emanate from Byram’s association of the culture concept to the country concept in the description of his five principles underpinning his model. As a result, this has ultimately led Byram (1997) into the national-driven conceptualisation of culture. To illustrate, designating individuals based solely on their nationality is the determinism of the essentialist view that people have a single, fixed, and permanent identity, thereby overlooking the entrenched mosaic and vast diversity that modern societies may possess. This culturalist perspective can be damaging because individuals identify themselves in accordance with varying cultures, which are in constant flux.

Associating cultures with national cultures represents the consequence of perceiving cultures as “containers” i.e., as hermetically closed entities, Matsuo (2012, p. 4) continues. The concept of national cultures is an abstraction and therefore eliminates its dynamism, indicating that educational discourse with regard to such abstract concepts fails to appropriately represent the multiple factors that influence intercultural communication in the contemporary era (Dervin, 2010; Hoff, 2014; Orsini-Jones & Lee, 2018). Moreover, this leads to the conclusion that a nation’s culture is unified, identical, and a reflection of set principles and convictions (Dervin, 2016).

Essentially, culture is dynamic and diverse, and language and culture are inextricably intertwined (Porto, 2013). Holliday (2016) contends that communication requires the establishment of miniature communities of engagement wherein individuals gather collectively to converse, as well as in an effort to accomplish so, they have to create a standardised set of meaning-making conventions for their intent of communication. Hence, Byram’s emphasis on national, ethnic, and social identities frequently dominates the debates on interculturality. According to a number of intellectuals and researchers, these viewpoints are controversial because they tend to generate artificial and politically prompted distinctions and may lead to prejudice, ethnocentrism, and toxic treatment. According to Dervin (2016),

Such comparisons can create dichotomies between the ‘good’ and ‘bad’, the ‘civilised’ and ‘uncivilised’, and the ‘same’ and the ‘other’. They can contribute to ethnocentrism (believing that our culture is better than others), establish power imbalance, patronize the other, close doors to our environment, and hide and justify negative actions (attacks against freedom of speech, violation of human rights, misogyny, and so on). (p. 11)

Byram’s emphasis on the significance of critical cultural awareness and the role of intercultural speakers in constructing and perpetuating cross-cultural relationships is the subject of the second criticism. This view, according to Kramch (2011, p. 18), is contentious in the development of ICC since it places the primary focus on the awareness of the intercultural speaker, which concentrates on the cultural gap between self and others. In this way, this liability echoes Holliday’s (2011) elucidation of neo-essentialist intercultural inquiry, which is characterised by the notion of the cultural divide to examine the patterns underlying intercultural communication, thereby triggering a process of othering or the formation of a division between the individual and the cultural other.

As a result, excessive reliance on the intercultural speaker’s mediation is somewhat concerning as the model appears to mitigate the potential perceptions of dispute and discord (Ferri, 2014; Hoff, 2014). Indeed, the model is condemned as being prescriptive and for allegedly portraying the ICC as a global norm for mediating disagreements or confrontations (Matsuo, 2012). Hoff (2014) illustrates that the recurring emphasis on the mediator role of the intercultural speaker in every aspect of the framework indicates that Byram’s broader objective is to create a harmonious synthesis of diverse worldviews. In recent times, however, researchers have questioned whether harmony and conformity constitute a feasible or even constructive objective in intercultural communication. This uncertainty is attributable in part to the dispersion and heterogeneity that mark the vast majority of contemporary societies. This involves establishing communities of difference in the educational setting and perceiving controversy and opposition as potentially advantageous conditions for intercultural learning procedures, rather than as limitations on communication. This does not imply that all ideologies should be embraced without question in the classroom. According to Hoff (2014),

However, if the aim is to ‘adapt’ to the foreign culture and ‘adopt’ the values and behaviours of the Other, Byram’s model implies a passive, uncritical process of socialisation, rather than a view of the intercultural dialogue as a catalyst for active, personal engagement with different perspectives. (p. 512)

In a nutshell, Ferri (2014) elaborates that critical intercultural theory recognises and values cultural differences while endeavouring to uncover simplified truths that lie beneath

apparent philosophical deception and dominant explanations. Thus, intercultural discourse is positioned between contradictory assertions of legitimacy, each of which affirms a particular reality but is unable to choose between them. All of them must be supported in the name of universal compassion ideals. This also suggests that seemingly harmonious interactions may conceal latent notions of conflict, such as lies, internal misunderstandings, indecision, or lack of motivation (Dervin, 2016). Therefore, neither the statements of the intercultural speakers nor those of his interlocutors ought to be accepted at face value. Holiday (2016) recommends that “By far the better strategy is to take people as you find them while trying to put aside any cultural prejudices one has of them”. (p. 9).

Establishing a mutually considerate relationship by minimising possible differences between oneself and the other is central to ICC, as demonstrated by the preceding discussion. In this regard, one ought to embrace cultural diversity and relativise their own social and cultural norms. During the learning procedure, learners’ existing preconceptions and cultural prejudices need to be exposed before they may be deliberately scrutinised and questioned. Byram’s paradigm minimises the likelihood of bolstering otherness in its pursuit of cohesion. Holliday (2016) describes this phenomenon as an “ever-deepening spiral of Othering” (p. 13). Nevertheless, the idealised principles of critical interculturalism are predicated on the idea that intercultural communication will result in an amalgamation that broadens perspectives via the concept of general acceptance. Interculturalists with a critical perspective must contend with a variety of opposing viewpoints, such as those resulting from ethnic integrity beliefs that reinstate nationalistic ideals and polarising justification (Ferri, 2014).

The third contentious issue is whether or not ICC can and should be evaluated (Hoff, 2020). According to Dervin (2010), “If one introduces this competence in one’s teaching, one needs to develop ways of making sure that it is developed” (p. 2). Byram’s model is supplemented by a comprehensive list of objectives that instructors may use as criteria for assessing L2 (second language) learners’ ICC. Dervin (2010) stresses that Byram (2008) fails to identify this crucial component in his recent critiques and evaluations of his model of intercultural proficiency and its various facets. Being accessible to others, critical self-awareness, and self-examination are, as the scholar correctly asserts, fundamental educational values; however, there is no way to demonstrate or evaluate whether or not someone actually believes in them. Therefore, it is difficult to conduct a conclusive evaluation of these IC concepts established by Byram (1997). There appears to be insufficient evidence, as instructors frequently rely solely on inconsistent conversation.

Lastly, Matsuo (2012, p. 350) characterises Byram's (1997) schema as an "individual-oriented list-type model" that is didactically problematic to put into practice and contends that its implementation for language teachers is primarily awareness-raising as opposed to an effective instrument. Educators (e.g., Ayon, 2016; Hoff, 2013; Orsini-Jones et al., 2018) have integrated successfully Byram's (1997) model of ICC into their pedagogy. In addition, Byram's (1997) framework outlines an in-depth approach to the vital elements of ICC, as well as instructional goals and assessment recommendations for pedagogical implementation.

Byram (2014) also recognises partly the criticism directed at his model that the 1988/1989 model indicates that 'language' and 'culture' should be taught in an integrated fashion. Later, Risager (2007, p. 121), according to Byram, rightly criticises the lack of an explicit discussion of the 'relationship between language and culture' in his 1997 model, despite some small attempts to anticipate this criticism in the same book. Furthermore, Byram (2014) concedes that he has not pursued this line of thought more exhaustively in his publications, so his reference to 'the culture' presumably evokes charges of "essentialism". He has attempted to defend himself by referencing 'webs of significance' (Geertz, 1975, cited in Byram, 2014), where the multiplicity of 'webs' indicates that the essentialism accusation is unfounded.

Notably, Byram's conceptual position and the implementation of the model have undergone modifications as evidenced by multiple subsequent publications (e.g., Byram, 2008, 2014, 2021).

Byram revisited his classic intercultural pedagogical model book, *Teaching and Assessing Intercultural Communicative Competence (Multilingual Matters, 1997)*, in 2021. He reiterates that he has not altered his initial framework, but rather illustrated the five constituting components and a few key elements that he has partially refined in response to the criticisms. Regarding the above-mentioned first criticism, he highlights that the majority of countries are multicultural, multiethnic, and multilingual (Risagar, 2021) and thus the concept of national culture lacks an argumentative basis. Moreover, he has omitted the term "culture", opting instead of the phrase "beliefs, meanings, values, and behaviours" (p. 50). He has also defined culture as "shared meanings" so that he can establish a connection between language and culture. In addition, he warns people of the dangers of depicting 'a culture' as if it were immutable over time or as if it consists of a singular set of beliefs, ideas, and practises in a single country. He underlines that "it is a competence model, but not a reductive one" (p. 10).

To foster a clear understanding, Byram (2021) explains intercultural speaker and his reasoning behind particular focus on critical cultural awareness. He acknowledges that the

model is being prescribed, but not for the purpose of bringing language learners closer to becoming native speakers. The concept of a 'intercultural speaker' emerges, influenced by but distinct from the concept of a native speaker or someone who belongs to a (nationally dominant) social group with its own (nationally dominant) culture. The query then becomes if the framework is 'universal'. He has accentuated the significance of context, and because the model serves mainly as a guide for teaching and assessing, its applicability is contingent on the degree of congruence between its innate features and conventional methods of teaching and assessing in the setting in which it may potentially be used.

Byram (2021) continues to augment intercultural speaker and critical cultural awareness by reinforcing that when interacting in a society with a person from a different country, individuals bring their understanding of the world to the situation. This includes in some cases an extensive understanding of the country in question and in others a minimal understanding, such as its geographical location or current political state. Their knowledge of their native country is an important aspect of their cultural background, which they bring to the situation. For it is essential to remember that a discourse between two individuals cannot be fully comprehended unless the relationship between the 'host' and 'visitor' is taken into account. The interaction is determined by how the parties perceive one another's social identities. In an educational dialogue, for example, it is evident that both interlocutors have different social backgrounds and, as a result, engage in a different type of interaction than they would with a native speaker of the same language, regardless of their level of linguistic proficiency in the foreign language. In order to characterise individuals who, engage in intercultural communication and interaction, he has introduced the concept of the 'intercultural speaker' for this purpose.

Byram explains that assessment can be used to monitor students' development. Notably, Byram is opposed to the contemporary emphasis on the pragmatic and instrumental purposes of language assessment and learning. According to Risagar (2021),

Byram is explicitly critical of instrumental approaches to (language) teaching and learning. He warns of focusing only on measurable skills and proficiency. Without saying so directly, he is in opposition to neoliberal approaches to language teaching. He is also critical of prejudice and stereotypical thinking, as well as of inequality at large, which finds expression in his emphasis on human rights and democracy (in its many interpretations). (p. 255)

Despite this, he describes numerous methods for evaluating the objectives of each of the five components of intercultural competence, such as continuous assessment, simulations, coursework, and portfolios. Byram (2021) has precisely defined and deconstructed each of the five ICC objectives for the purposes of evaluation (for details, see pp. 131-141).

Evidently, MMIC is based on robust foundation and realisable components (Bickley, 2014; Young & Sachdev, 2011). Thus, this model is noticeably less frequently criticised and has maintained its persuasiveness (Huang, 2017).

This section's original intent was to evaluate all three models (DMIS, MMIC, and PMIC) for fostering intercultural competence. Given that so much discussion has been devoted to constructing an in-depth understanding of Byram's MMIC, this context is included because the readers may require some guidance before commencing the analysis of PMIC (the third model). Deardorff's (2006) Process Model of Intercultural Competence (PMIC) highlights an ongoing circular process for the development of attitudes, knowledge, internal, and external outcomes. According to Deardorff (2006), PMIC model contains four elements: (1) attitudes (respect: valuing other cultures; openness: withholding judgment, curiosity & discovery (tolerating ambiguity)); (2) knowledge & comprehension: cultural self-awareness, deep cultural knowledge, sociolinguistic awareness and skills (to listen, observe & evaluate; to analyse, interpret & relate); (3) internal outcome: informed frame of reference shift (adaptability, flexibility, ethnorelative view, empathy) and (4) external outcome: effective and appropriate communication & behaviour in an intercultural situation.

Following in the footsteps of Byram, Deardorff emphasises attitude as a fundamental preliminary step. Individuals can enter these frameworks at any time, but attitude is the essential starting point, just as Byram. Indeed, Deardorff believes that IC requires the attitudes of openness, respect (valuing all cultures), curiosity and exploration, as does Byram (tolerance of ambiguity). Consequently, Deardorff's PMIC is indebted to Byram's MMIC, and she frequently and generously acknowledges Byram in her work.

While describing her PMIC, Deardorff concentrates on the transition from the individual to the social level (intercultural interaction). It is possible to proceed straightforwardly from attitudes and/or attitudes and skills/knowledge to the external outcome, but the degree of suitability and effectiveness may be lower than when the entire cycle is repeated. Furthermore, the process model maintains the distinction between internal and external outcomes, allowing a person to accomplish the external outcome of functioning and interacting effectively in intercultural situations without fully embracing the internal outcome

of a shift in frame of reference. However, in relating to achieving the objective of IC, Deardorff (2006) stresses:

This process model also demonstrates the ongoing process of intercultural competence development, which means it is a continual process of improvement, and as such, one may never achieve ultimate intercultural competence. (p. 257)

Apparently, the PMIC reinforces several approaches of Byram's MMIC in addition to explicitly stating that the development of IC is an inexorable, enduring, and cyclical process of improvement.

The preceding discussion sheds light on the numerous strengths of Byram's MMIC as the various flexible phases, which is for students to begin by evaluating their preconceived notions before engaging in a methodical inquiry about the 'other' in an effort to become more receptive to seeking out and engaging with otherness to experience IC (Byram, 1997). The pragmatic principles for reaching IC and its emphasis on linguistic competence justify its inclusion in the theoretical paradigms of this study. Apparently, the fundamental outline of DMIS, especially the starting point presented as ethnocentrism, PMIC's adherence to the strategic value of each of its four aspects, and the interminable journey to IC, diminished their pedagogical potential in comparison to MMIC.

While extending pedagogical strengths of MMIC, Matsuo (2012) provides a number of reasons why Byram's model is more acceptable. Considering how frequently it is cited, Byram's ICC model is rarely criticised. Accepting the intercultural speaker as the norm, rather than the native speaker, makes the paradigm more politically and geographically benign than its predecessors. It appears more plausible in light of the fact that it is more likely that negotiation skills will be required. It is also unique because it incorporates a competence (intercultural competence) that is not theorised as a language competency, but rather as cognitive and affective dimensions of knowledge, attitudes, and skills. Furthermore, this non-linguistic competency is at the core of the framework which is a critical cultural awareness envisioned in clear political terms: no previous approaches mandated ethical behaviour or political activism in the pursuit of human rights. The following excerpt reflected Byram's (2021) broad and humanitarian approach to education:

Given favourable circumstances, societies benefit from more harmonious co-existence, and individuals gain an understanding of others and of themselves which makes them more conscious of their humanity and more able to reflect upon and question the social conditions in which they live. (p. 2)

Additionally, all the major critics (Dervin, 2016; Hoff, 2020; Kramch, 2011; Matsuo, 2012; Risagar, 2021) eventually recognises that Byram's model for intercultural pedagogy is exhaustive and influential. Hoff (2020) describes Byram's model as "...concrete and, for the most part coherent" (p. 68). Yonata (2022) indicated that "In general, Byram's book does an exceptional job discussing the implementation of teaching as well as assessment related to ICC and foreign language education" (p. 357).

The pragmatic principles for reaching IC and its emphasis on linguistic competence justify its inclusion in the theoretical paradigms of this study. Apparently, the fundamental outline of DMIS, especially the starting point presented as ethnocentrism, PMIC's adherence to the strategic value of each of its four aspects, and the interminable journey to IC, diminished their pedagogical potential in comparison to MMIC.

#### *2.3.4. Intercultural theory*

This section is based on Byram's 1997 and 2021 classic works. By discussing intercultural theory in light of Byram's (1997) work, the researcher can keep track of key milestones of intercultural theory. This also makes it easier to examine the contributions of other scholars and researchers to the advancement of the field. Byram provides additional justification in his book (2021) by stating that he did not transform the original framework, but rather expanded and augmented a few critical principles embedded in his theoretical paradigm.

Intercultural communication considers the social milieus in which it takes place. Fundamental cultural knowledge, which is essential for meaningful communication to occur, lies at the heart of intercultural thought. The basic tenet of the intercultural approach is that when communicating in English, the cultures of the interlocutors are engaged rather than the learners having to internalise the cultural prototype and interactional interface of native speakers. Thus, the intercultural theory does not specify any particular culture as it involves discourse patterns of all varieties of intelligible English.

Byram (1997), a pioneer and well-known theorist of intercultural competence defines it as an ability to interact meaningfully across cultures and intercultural communicative competence as an ability "to interact with people from another country and culture in a foreign language" (p. 71). This aspect of intercultural competence is defined by Byram (1997) as, "an ability to evaluate, critically and on the basis of explicit criteria, perspectives, practices and products in one's own and other cultures and countries" (p. 53).

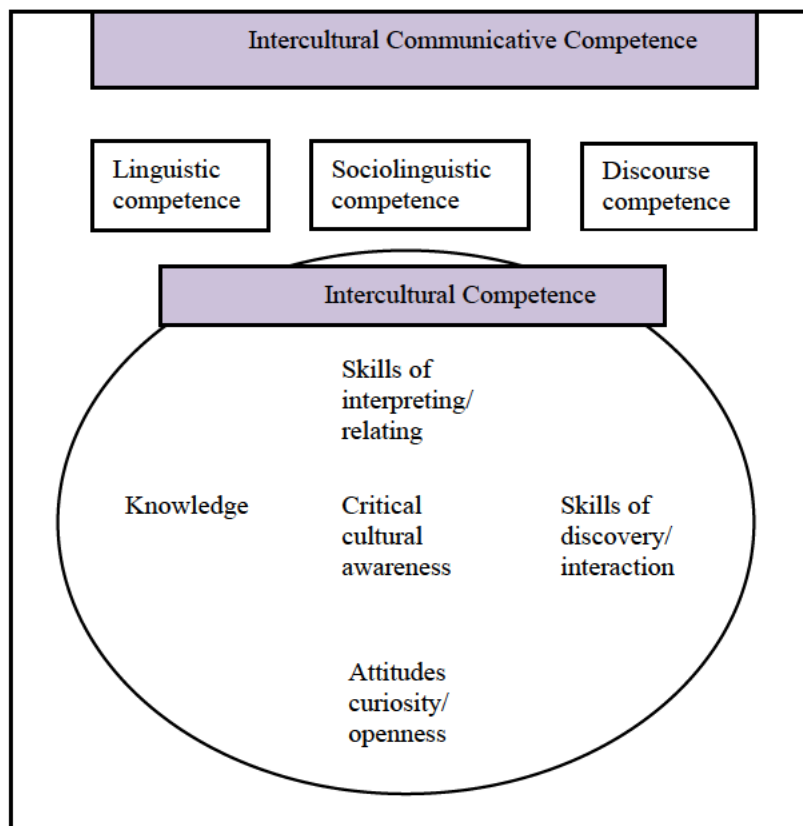
The conceptualisations of intercultural competence (IC) and intercultural communicative competence (ICC) are later strengthened by several scholars. The fundamental



conceptualisation of IC encompasses “knowledge of the speaker’s own culture and that of the other” and “a general knowledge of the relationships between language, culture, and communication and an ability to apply this to diverse situations” (Baker, 2011, p. 4). As a result, intercultural competence is defined as the attitudes, knowledge, and skills that enable individuals to interact appropriately and effectively with people from diverse linguistic and cultural origins. More recently, Barili and Byram (2021) observed that in IC:

The language teacher needs to focus not only on learners’ linguistic competence but also on their critical understanding of cultures and cultural identities and, grounded in this, the ability to collaborate with people from other cultural backgrounds. (p. 4)

While framing ICC, they stress the critical value of interaction and reflection. A wide spectrum of skill sets is also outlined including discovering, connecting, negotiating, and interpreting the construction of knowledge that is located in the interlocutors’ wider historical, sociological, and cultural situations. With ICC, a person also develops the ability to understand interaction, anticipate communication gaps or misunderstandings, and fashion adaptive behaviour. Hence, a much deeper insight into respective socio-cultural dimensions is warranted to emerge as an interculturally competent speaker.



**Figure 2.1: Elements of intercultural competence and intercultural communicative competence. Adapted from Wagner & Byram (2017).**

The intercultural theoretical framework employed in this study was the Multidimensional Model of Intercultural Competence (MMIC) proposed by Byram (2021). Byram emphasises that intercultural theory is based on the intercultural speaker. He then describes five aspects of intercultural competence including attitude, knowledge, skills of relativity and reflection, and critical cultural awareness (refer to Figure 2.2) across international borders. A short summary of each of the five IC components is deemed necessary.

### *Attitude*

“Curiosity and openness, readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures and belief about one’s own” (Byram, 2021, p. 62).

Byram believes that people should be willing to suspend their disbelief and pass judgement in regard to others’ beliefs, meanings and behaviours while nurturing broad cultural attitudes. Additionally, one must be willing to put their own interpretations and behaviours under scrutiny from the perspective of the people they are interacting with. An open and flexible attitude is, therefore, fundamental to understanding other cultures.

The relationship between the attitudes dimension and the remaining dimensions is interdependent. Without questioning one’s own experiences and valuing those of others, interpreting and relating them can become readily value-laden and biased. Despite the improbability of value-free perception and relationships, increasing one’s awareness of one’s own values enables deliberate oversight of biased interpretation. Byram et al. (1994 cited in Byram, 2021) maintains that the association between attitudes and knowledge is not a simple cause-and-effect relationship, as is commonly believed, i.e., that greater knowledge produces positive attitudes. Nonetheless, it is typically simpler to examine one’s own implications, convictions, principles, and behaviours by examining those of others than it is to degrade and disassociate oneself from what socialisation mechanisms have implied is normal, natural, and irreversible.

Furthermore, the skills of discovery and interaction are easier to execute and less likely to cause psychological tension if the individual involved has an open and inquisitive attitude. In an educational framework that aims to develop critical cultural awareness, questioning one’s own and respecting others’ meanings, beliefs, values, and behaviours cannot occur without a reflective and analytical challenge to how they were formed and the complex social forces within which they are experienced.

### *Knowledge*

“Specific knowledge of social groups and their products and practices in one’s own and in one’s interlocutor’s country, and of the general knowledge of processes of societal and individual interaction” (Byram, 2021, p. 63).

Byram discusses “knowledge”, stating that the capacities for interaction and discovery are ways to deepen and refine one’s understanding of the other and to determine how to respond to a particular feature of communication with a specific speaker in a discourse. People’s knowledge may be relational when they interact with someone from another culture. A foundation for effective communication can be established by understanding how an individual’s social identities have evolved, how they are a lens through which other cohorts of people view them, and how they observe their companion interlocutors from diverse groups of people.

Individuals’ knowledge that they contribute to a conversation with a person from their home country or another country can be divided into two broad categories. While the first category of knowledge pertains to the individual’s community and cultural heritage and comparable knowledge of the interlocutor’s social groups and background, the second category of knowledge pertains to an understanding of individual and social communication processes. The first group consists of knowledge that can be refined over time but remains to some extent, whereas the second group, which consists of knowledge about communication concepts and procedures, is essential for effective communication but is not instantaneously acquired.

By means of basic socialisation primarily in the family and subsequent socialisation typically in educational institutions, a person acquires knowledge of the social communities to which they belong and other social groups with which they interact, some of which is conscious and some of which is unconscious and commonly taken for granted. Knowledge on the part of a learner/intercultural speaker regarding other countries – or of their home country – along with the identities they represent brought to communication by an interlocutor is typically relational, i.e., it is knowledge acquired through socialisation in one’s native social network and is frequently expressed in contrast with the essential elements of an individual’s national group and identity. For example, one’s knowledge of another country’s history is derived from the narratives of a particular nation-state and, as a result, represents a completely different interpretation than what is narrated in the foreign country. Especially in informal socialisation processes – within families or in the media, for example – the stories told tend to be biased and stereotypical. The greater the proximity between a person’s country and the country of their interlocutor and the greater the number of encounters, the greater the mutual understanding that will result from the communication.

Obviously, in the modern world, proximity is not solely a question of geographical distance, which is readily circumvented by advanced communication infrastructure, but also of media and political dominance. Knowledge – either reliable or unreliable – of the United States seems to be universal, and knowledge of China continues to be so, even though it varies in accordance to the person’s country of origin and the dynamics of power between one’s country and the United States or China, whereas knowledge of a country such as Denmark varies considerably by region. The second category of knowledge in an interaction relates to the relational character of knowledge of other countries and the meanings, beliefs, values, and behaviours attributed to an interlocutor: knowledge of interaction processes at the individual and societal level.

If a person is cognizant of how their social selves have been formed, how they are the prism by which the members of their group are viewed, how they perceive their interlocutors from a different perspective, and how this method of interaction and communication itself revises earlier ideas and establishes new identities, this serves as the basis for effective conversation.

The theoretical understanding of interrelationships between groups and identities of groups, such as the effects of prejudice and stereotype on interactions, that comprises knowledge of communication principles and procedures. It encompasses knowledge of micro-level variables that influence interaction, such as how turn-taking functions and how it may differ between cultural groups, and how individuals indicate the identities they wish to convey in a conversation through their use of different language varieties, plurilingualism, and translanguaging practices.

Age-appropriate instruction of theoretical knowledge is especially challenging for younger students. This declarative knowledge, while essential, is insufficient and must be supplemented with procedural knowledge of how to act in specific situations. In this sense, it is related to the skills of interpreting and relating, i.e., using existing information to interpret a particular document or behaviour, for example, and relating these to comparable but distinct documents or behaviours within their own social context. The policy paper on the centralisation of education could be deemed conservative in one context and progressive in another. A given action or document’s worth cannot be presumed. Similarly, the skills of discovery and interaction are methods for enhancing and refining knowledge about others and understanding how to respond to specific aspects of communicating with a specific person.

Byram (2021) incorporated the “Symbolic Competence” proposed by Kramch (2009, 2011) with the knowledge component. In this of competency, the true nature of digital

communication and the simultaneous existence of multiple languages and other symbolic practices in daily life supersede conventional spatial/temporal ordering. These signifying practises are not only addressed in conjunction with distinct linguistic codes, but also comprise all the semiotic tools that are fundamental to the formation of a hybrid identity and enable multilingual individuals to use and control multiple symbolic structures in an appropriate manner.

This metaphorical being is generated through communication with the natural world through the philosophical practises of others, which are eventually re-appropriated by means of both the conscious activity of interpretation of signs and symbolic elements and the unconscious movement transmitted by the concurrent sphere, which includes thoughts, emotions, memories, and aspirations. Kramsch (2009) attribute's identity formation to this complex interactional process, "We discover who we are as individuals through the reflection of others, and we can only comprehend others when we recognise ourselves as Other (p. 18). In short, the process of gaining symbolic competence necessitates a separating of the self. In view of this, the self-other relationship is conceptualised in terms of acceptance, leaving open the possibility of critical engagement and discourse with diverse moral structures in intercultural exchanges. According to Kramch (2011),

If culture is being increasingly viewed as discourse and the production of meaning, the development of intercultural competence is not only a question of tolerance towards or empathy with others, of understanding them in their cultural context, or of understanding oneself and the other in terms of one another. (p. 356)

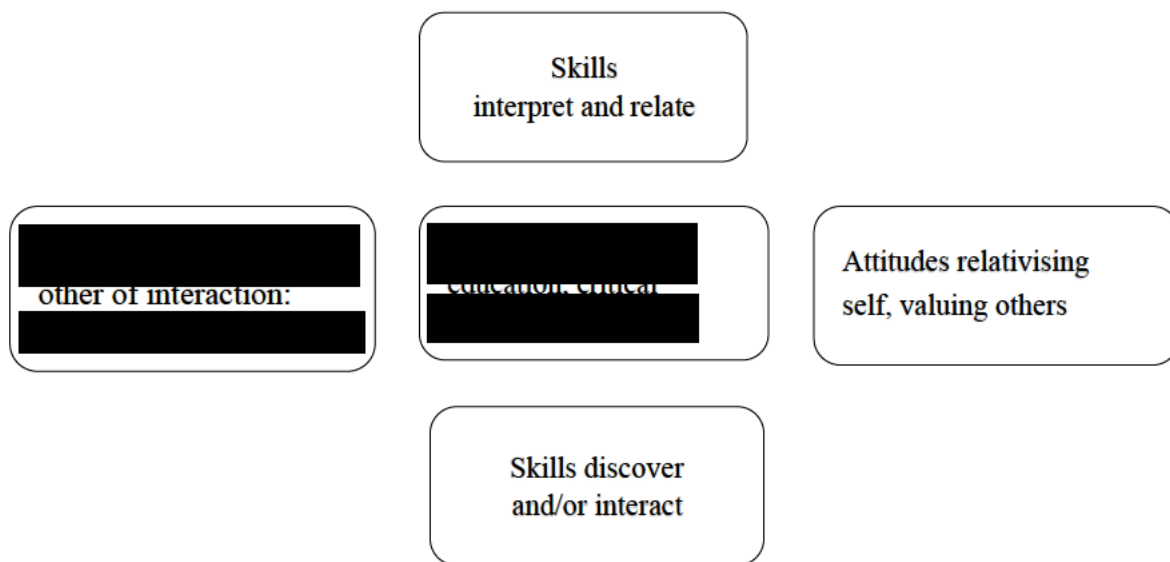
Kramsch (2012 cited in Hoff, 2020) suggests that the development of symbolic competence be regarded as a crucial component of intercultural training and education. She observes that students should be equipped to decipher what is intended by what is stated, understand how individuals make use of symbolic systems to create novel meanings, and envision the way the various languages they are familiar with may influence the manner in which they express themselves in both speaking and writing.

### *Skills*

"Skills of interpreting and relating: Ability to interpret a document or event from another culture, to explain it and relate it to documents from one's own.

Skills of discovery and interaction: Ability to acquire new knowledge of cultural practices and the ability to operate knowledge, attitudes and skills under the constraints of real time communication and interaction" (Byram, 2021, p. 65).

The third and fourth elements of IC are “skills”, which refer to the capacity for learning about a culture and its practices as well as the ability to use knowledge, attitudes, and skills in the context of real-time communication. Therefore, it is the ability to acquire specialised knowledge as well as a grasp of the assumptions, connotations, and behaviours that underlie certain encounters. Finally, “critical cultural awareness” promotes an ability to critically assess viewpoints considering one’s own and others’ cultural dynamics. The crucial element in this situation is that the intercultural speaker gives a clear and logical point of view to the experiences of their own and other cultures unlike the native speaker dominating theory. Consequently, critical cultural awareness may potentially change learners’ views of ethnocentrism to ethnorelativism and brings about eventual transformation.



**Figure 2.2: Five components of intercultural (communicative) competence. Adapted from Byram (2021, p. 44).**

Fundamentally, when people gather knowledge about individuals and others in relation to respective social situations, they refine the skills necessary to interact. From there, a flexible attitude of mutual respect grows and finally, critical cultural awareness enables people to communicate appropriately and effectively across cultures and contexts. Hence, recognising intercultural schema is a prerequisite to any language educational scenario.

Byram describes skill of discovery and skill of interaction. The skill of discovery can be exercised both independently and socially. When a person has a limited base of current knowledge, the discovery skill begins to operate. It is the capacity to acquire specialised knowledge and an awareness of the embedded meanings, beliefs, values, and behaviours in specific phenomena, such as documents and interactions. The acquired knowledge could be

instrumental or interpretative. The latter can function without direct interactions with foreigners, but it will still satisfy curiosity and foster an open mind.

Although the skill is basically similar in various environments, it can turn out to be more challenging to function in those that share the least in common with the individual's home country, allegedly exotic languages and cultures. Nevertheless, due to the influence of global media and mainstream culture, it is probable that a person will be able to recognise certain phenomena in remote conditions, yet it is unlikely that they possess identical meaning or relevance. As previously stated, when discovery skills are used in social situations, time limitations and mutual opinions and views arise.

The skill of interaction is predominately the capacity to manage these limitations in specific situations with specific interlocutors. The individual must make use of their existing knowledge, possess attitudes that sustain openness to others with sometimes radically different origins and identities, and utilise the skills of discovery and interpretation. Specifically, the individual must utilise knowledge and skills to regulate interaction-related dysfunctions. In addition to establishing a relationship between their unique social identities and those of their interlocutors, they may be required to serve as intermediaries between individuals of diverse origins and identities. What differentiates an intercultural speaker from a native speaker is the process of forming relationships, regulating dysfunctions, and mediating.

### *Critical cultural awareness*

“Critical cultural awareness/political education: An ability to evaluate, critically and on the basis of an explicit, systematic process of reasoning, values present in one's own and other cultures and countries” (Byram, 2021, p. 66).

This section makes a crucial point about how language teaching and learning can also improve our understanding of ourselves as individuals, an aim that has become increasingly prevalent in such documents over the past decade. It corresponds to the concept of critical cultural awareness, which includes knowledge of one's own and other cultural backgrounds. The central tenet of Byram's notion of intercultural citizenship is that language study should enable students to participate in democratic endeavours beyond the borders of their native country.

Byram suggests that cultivating critical cultural awareness involves a far more complicated process than acquiring skills and knowledge. It is diagrammatically depicted in the paradigm outlined before. By situating “Education” at the centre of this framework and including political education and cultural awareness, it reaffirms its central importance.

Nonetheless, it is evident that the emphasis will remain on teaching language and culture, from which political and critical awareness should emerge. Ideally, both instructors and students will view foreign language education as a means to acquire ICC through the study of a language and how it pertains to the cultural traditions and identities conveyed by interlocutors in a conversation.

In relation to language and culture, the proponents of intercultural competence believe that culture is an integral part of language teaching (Baker, 2012; Byram, 2021; Kramch, 1993; Liddicoat, 2008). Following Byram, Sercu (2002, p. 72) declared that “all language education should always also be intercultural education”. Liddicoat (2008, p. 278) explains further that culture determined the linguistic structure and the ways people use a language in a discourse, which is not free from contextual and sociocultural influences per se. This meaningful nexus of language and culture questions the validity of 1970s immensely popular communicative language teaching (CLT) as native culture dominance is a critical construct of CLT ideology. Based on Chomsky’s (1965) linguistic competence i.e., native speakers including British, American, Canadian, and Australian like grammar and structural uses of the English language, and Hymes’ (1972) communicative competence, CLT emerged and enjoyed widespread use across cultures and continents, however, not without controversy. Porto et al. (2017) suggested, Competence in languages is important as a condition for interaction with others and, in the teaching of English in particular, the traditional notion of using the native speaker as a model for learners to strive after has been challenged in a post-native-speakerist approach to language education. Such an approach necessitates an informed rejection of the native speaker not only as the socio-cultural model but also as the linguistic model for learners of English. (p. 487)

Another argument favouring an intercultural paradigm is the increased recognition of English as a global lingua franca, which nullifies its confinement to native-speakerism through a wide spectrum of related constructs. Widdowson (1994) invited speakers of World Englishes to claim the ownership of English and asserted that they should be left free to use the language for their purposes. Likewise, McKay (2003) advocated for all-inclusive education involving local contexts and cultures in the TESOL paradigm and disapproved of its monolithic cultural prerogative. Indeed, it was acknowledged long back that the majority of ELT classrooms would be in a bilingual expanding circle following Kachru’s (1985) inner, outer and expanding circles which were strengthened by Rose et al. (2021) “native English now in minority usage on a global scale” (p. 157).

Similarly, Yang (2018) emphasised that “In today’s globalised village, it is essential for TESOL teachers to develop intercultural identity” (p. 527) and Matsuda (2018) supported



TESOL professionals' interculturality by observing that it accomplished learners for the messy world of English communication in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. According to Cameron and Galloway (2019, p. 150), "The norm is now multilingualism, not monolingualism, and the needs of English language learners, and pre-and-in-service TESOL practitioners, have changed". Galloway and Numajiri (2020) English as a lingua franca is the most prevalent use of English today and it is critical to pursue this line of investigation because it aids the field of ELT in shifting the paradigm away from focusing on native norms and towards promoting the acceptability of a diverse range of Englishes with genuine status and respect (Prabjandee, 2020, p. 65). Such a shift in usage, as well as the evolution of English as a global language, necessitates a rethinking of TESOL courses and the language itself. However, despite such increased attention, "calls for change have made little headway into TESOL" (Rose et al., 2021, p. 159). A new study is, therefore, required to explore combined realities and the authentic intercultural practices of TESOL academics.

### 2.3.5. *Reflective practice*

Reflective practice is the process of gaining knowledge through a professional's day-to-day activities. In educational environments, when a teacher thinks back and forth and evaluates their actions, decisions, activities, and overall pedagogic experiences with a view to learning from them (as to what works and what needs further improvements) is deemed as reflective practice. This self-directed immensely popular personal PD practice is often considered a key to academic growth and ultimate professional transformation. According to Farrell (2019, p. 6), "I believe that reflective practice is one of the most important aspects of teacher learning as it can help learner teachers integrate theory and practice".

Kennedy (2005, 2014) categorised conventional PD models as transmissive, malleable, and transformative. She referred to reflective practice as a model for transformational PD. By using this self-development PD model, TESOL academics can grow in their profession. Cox (2005) represented:

Most people do, as a matter of course, learn from experience and they do this moderately well without any pedagogic intervention. However, I would suggest that the regular use of a reflective practice tool or model makes learning from experience a more reliable and faster method of gaining access to necessary knowledge and wisdom about our work processes and about ourselves. (p. 460)

Among all the PD models, a reflective PD model holds significance to the researcher of this study. Bruner in 1960 recognised the reflective PD model as "central to all learning" (p.

13) and (Pollard, 2002, p. 4) described “reflective teaching as fundamental to the conception of professional development”. According to Cirocki and Farrell (2017),

Clearly, teachers, whether reflecting on their identities, beliefs, theories or their own teaching do recognise the developmental value and transformative potential in the activities of reflection. Thus, TESOL teachers are encouraged to engage in professional development through the lens of reflective practice. (p. 5)

Empirical information on the effectiveness and potential drawbacks of reflective activities from the viewpoints of instructors and students is now considered crucial. In this regard, Walsh and Mann (2015) reflected that few people in the field of TESOL would argue that reflective practice was valuable and important. Motallebzadeh et al. (2018) documented data-led results upholding the linkages between teachers’ self-efficacy and reflective practices. Through reflection inventory and effective teaching questionnaire, 115 EFL teachers teaching at different language colleges in many cities of Iran confirmed that reflective practices and their teaching effectiveness had a positive significant association. To put it another way, instructors’ reflective teaching techniques assisted them in perceiving their own skills and, as a result, led to personal achievement. Furthermore, EFL teachers improved their interpersonal relationships by reflecting more on their interactions with their students. This promoted their self-efficacy in their classes in the long run.

Similarly, Kis and Kartal (2019) captured learners’ perceptions of reflective practices and associated implementation challenges. They conducted English-language surveys and interviews at a Japanese university. Twelve international students from Thailand, Vietnam, China, Taiwan, Canada, Nepal, Uzbekistan, Kazakhstan, and Indonesia participated in the public speaking class. “Reflective teaching is thought to be the best way”. Participants said that partaking in reflective activities helped them increase self-awareness, critical thinking, and reflective mindsets while also broadening their understanding of new material. Likewise, Lee and Mori (2020) employed an explanatory mixed methods study where 25 Japanese students revealed that reflective activities were strong predictors of self-directed learning completion. Collaboration was the most significant predictor of self-directed learning competencies, followed by self-reflection and peer feedback. Learners could obtain clear insights into what, how, and why of their learning process by self-reflecting on their work, diagnosing their own learning requirements, selecting appropriate solutions, and planning for the next step towards their learning objectives.

As for the challenges, Walsh and Mann (2015) expressed their doubt that the current state of reflective practice was backed up by a clear, systematic, and data-driven explanation

of both its nature and usefulness, as well as sufficient tools for practitioners to create and analyse data. Concrete reflective practice was frequently described as a solitary process that places little emphasis on cooperation. Given the complexity of education, Walsh and Mann believed that reflecting without some type of proof was challenging. Data were important sources of evidence, and evidence-based decision-making was at the foundation of an excellent basis of practice (Zhang, 2018). Frequently, it was a one-person operation.

There were challenges with regard to evidence-based reflective PD models. Kis and Kartal (2019) demonstrated three key problems in self-observation and journal writing: a lack of introspective skills, time constraints, and repetitious procedures. Walsh and Mann (2015) put forward a few suggestions including the use of stimulated recall processes, video interaction and assistance, and peer monitoring of instruction. Their point was to embrace a collaborative approach to reflection, which allowed for potentially more nuanced articulation and analysis. The importance of discourse in creating greater understanding might be shown here.

Thus, the conceptualisation of reflective practice indicates while experience alone is insufficient for professional knowledge-building, experience combined with the reflection of an open, sincere, and responsible mind can be a powerful impetus for teacher development and make the teacher's role more practical in a constructive classroom. Likewise, Mahmud (2013, p. 254) suggested that "constructivism and reflective process function as the logical counterparts in TESOL/ELT as well as other branches of knowledge". Hence, by combining collaborative activities and reflective practices, this study emphasises both the fundamental concepts of constructivist and reflective practice models. This also will promote the optimal exploitation of the strengths of collaboration and reflections while overcoming the challenges of solitary reflective processes indicated above and in the middle of this section.

The social constructivism conceptualisation is made up of a variety of elements, including teachers' agency encouraging internalisation of PD and practitioners' ideas, attitudes, and past encounters or settings. Social surroundings, collaboration, and the idea that students should be in charge of weaving their own learning experiences are relevant to this study. With a view to creating a model for intercultural PD, intercultural theory and competency are essential to this research. Reflective practice is crucial because it lies at the heart of every learning experience, which simultaneously makes it significant. Academics can encourage the transfer of learning through reflection, which may affect how students ultimately learn.

All three theoretical frameworks have a transformational thread. Social constructivism places a strong emphasis on how context shapes students' mental processes and ultimately

determines how language is constructed. In today's multilingual and multicultural societies, where immigration and global mobility are less of an anomaly and more of the standard, IC is essential. Collaboration increases the potential benefits through a shared interface, dialogue, and achievement of common goals.

Evidently, there are no internal or external conflicts between the constituent components of these three theoretical lenses; rather, a strong thread of transformative educational experience connecting them makes them more potent. Diaz-Maggioli (2014) makes a connection between social constructivism and reflection by stressing that constructivism "can promote synergies among knowledge, practice, and reflection" (p. 195). Porto et al. (2017) assert that intercultural theory is a sociocultural theory. It may be argued that social constructivism placed profound importance on specific contexts and cultures. Thus, culture is a decisive factor in both intercultural and social constructivism theoretical paradigms. Some other researchers (Aljohani, 2017; Johnson, 2009) indicate that reflection is a social constructivism component. Hence, these three models: social constructivism, intercultural theory and reflective practice are reconcilable and there are no apparent incongruities among their shared philosophical principles.

In light of the above discussion, it is clear that all three epistemological viewpoints are unique and at the same time they have some overlapping in their philosophical foundations. Rooted in transformative ideology, social constructivism, intercultural theory, and reflective practice can potentially bring about much-needed transformation in the educational landscape, in this research, in the contemporary PD practices. Central to these theoretical bases are maximising the transfer of learning or internalisation, making new knowledge and skills as part of the teachers' practice, and improving students learning achievement.

### *2.3.6. Rationale for selecting the initial INSPIRE PD model*

There are various PD models available in the literature. In broad categories, McKinney et al. (2005) suggested formal-informal and planned-incident PD models. Ingvarson et al. (2005) constructed the Australian Government Quality Teacher Programme (AGQTP) model based on a survey and on recent research on PD. The AGQTP model emphasised contents, learning opportunities, processes, collaboration, follow-up, and contexts. This framework was context-sensitive because it incorporated physical properties and the moderating determinant of professional learning. This model included knowledge as a considerable share of the content variables and placed it ahead of the practice criterion. As with other modelling techniques, this framework appears to place greater emphasis on process aspects and professional network as

mediating variable. In this model, the most prevalent processing parameters are active learning, participatory investigation, constructive criticism, binding affinities, discipline, and learning outcomes. Apparently, these concepts of ideal PD situations are abstract, as no concrete strategies for achieving these objectives, such as the specifics of contents and contexts, are elaborated in relation to the targeted capacity.

Through her seminal work, Kennedy (2005, 2014) identified a void in the literature regarding effective PD models. She then proposed nine models and three underlying principles. Transmissive, transitional, and transformative, where transmissive includes training, awards, a deficit model, and a cascade model, transitional includes a standard-based, community of practice (COP), and co-teaching/mentoring, and transformative adds collaborative professional inquiry, a reflective model, and action research. Collaboration and community of practice (COP) are the philosophical bases of the sociocultural theory, and the community of practice, along with reflective PD model, are identified as transformative PD models. Together they can bring about the desired transformation in the TESOL academics' PD landscape. Additionally, Canaran and Mirci (2019) observed that these models could be combined in conjunction with the needs of the particular educational settings.

Similarly to Kennedy (2014), the prevalent models are primarily focused on a single mechanism (such as the ICT model by Lin et al., 2012) or the combination of two in-service and peer-coaching models (as suggested by Meng et al., 2013). These models highlighted the importance of ICT and peer mentoring in a PD atmosphere.

Almuhammadi (2017), in examining PD in ESL/EFL contexts, described three models partly on the ideas proposed in *Professional Development for Language Teachers (1997)*. Model I is a supervised model in which specialists in the preferred area of change accompany teachers and the programme is devised with the trainer, supervisor, and instructor's input. This model's process sequence is spiral, reflecting the recurring process of change. Beginning with a training session, accompanied by supervised teaching, observation of instructor practices discourses and dialogue.

Model II appears to be more sophisticated as it does not require a consultant, only an experienced colleague. According to Almuhammadi (2017), this method employs peer coaching and is known as a guided model. In addition to an expert review, this model's evaluation component combines a teacher's evaluation, students' assessment, and expert peer feedback. Model III, in accordance with Almuhammadi (2017), proposes that if an instructor has reached a point where guidance is no longer required but encouraged. This configuration is known as the 'self-directed strand'. The pre-conference can be performed whenever a teacher

needs to consult with peers or subject matter experts about a specific issue. The instructor can independently implement and evaluate the effectiveness of innovative instructional strategies and methods.

Overall, models I, II, and III have some advantages: beginning with the training model and the provision of peer observation and supervision. The strong benefits may realise in the collaborative programme design involving supervisors, trainers, and teachers. A senior colleague serving as a mentor may be a plausible way for enabling a PD opportunity by providing the services of a veteran colleague who is friendly and respectful. There may be an issue with the self-directed model III where the efficacy assessment should also be performed by the teachers themselves. Similarly, it could be argued that these models lack critical constituent aspects as they just describe the tools to achieve PD, not the competence teachers will achieve and the associated pathways.

In addition to the previously mentioned models (such as Kennedy's nine models and Almuhamadi's description of three models), an exhaustive Internet search revealed Richardson and Diaz-Maggioli's (2018) INSPIRE model. After conducting a comprehensive literature review on the foundations of effective PD, Richardson and Diaz-Maggioli concluded that continuous PD appears to be the key element of impactful teacher education which in turn leads to enhanced learning outcomes. Therefore, organisations must support the educators' continuing education by instituting and evaluating contextually relevant and evidence-based programmes. Richardson and Diaz-Maggioli summarised the aspects of productive PD using the acronym INSPIRE. INSPIRE is an abbreviation that stands for *Impactful, Needs-based, Sustained, Peer-collaborative, In-practice, Reflective, and Evaluated*. In their 25-year literature assessment on PD, Canaran and Mirci (2019) noted that the INSPIRE model contains several effective PD components.

The original INSPIRE model has a number of strengths: it is a comprehensive model that incorporates multiple ideal PD components (such as needs-based, peer-collaborative, and reflective) and is designed for EFL/ESL teachers. Inadequate development of cultural context awareness, a vital requirement for contemporary classrooms, is arguably the model's chief shortcoming. Incorporating intercultural elements can, however, mitigate this effect. In light of the positive aspects of the INSPIRE model and its comparison to other available PD models, the INSPIRE model has been adapted for this study as a PD framework and empirical evidence will be used to assess its efficacy.

### 2.3.7. Initial INSPIRE PD model

Richardson and Diaz-Maggioli (2018) observed a dearth of meaningful research addressing what made good CPD and found that the majority of efforts to improve and sustain teacher learning were predominantly based on common sense and experience, with varying degrees of success. They found different systematic evaluations of the CPD literature and research studies in the disciplines of Teacher Education and ELT that yielded a fundamental set of criteria delineating PD programmes. Consequently, they built a model for effective PD by synthesising review findings, and they named the model INSPIRE.

INSPIRE PD model entailed a wide range of elements involving *impactful, needs-based, sustained, peer-collaborative, in-practice, reflective, and evaluated*. By impactful, they maintained that the primary objective of CPD was to bring about improvements in teaching that promoted student learning. Then, they noted that functional CPD addressed the daily issues encountered by instructors and students. Depending on the conditions and issues they faced, each teacher had specific learning requirements that were distinct from those of their co-workers. Richardson and Diaz-Maggioli further identified that there was unanimity in the research that one-time sessions and short courses were ineffective at generating profound changes in teachers' knowledge and productivity, and that a CPD programme required to be extended to be productive. This was due to the fact that teachers needed sufficient time to study new tactics in considerable depth to efficiently implement them in the classroom and to systematically incorporate them into their practices.

Regarding peer-collaborative, Richardson and Diaz-Maggioli argued that the procedure of improving teaching through transferability - i.e., learning a new approach or method to implement it in practice to facilitate meaningful student learning— was not only lengthy but also difficult. Throughout this process, consistent assistance and feedback from peers and domain experts were vital and should be treated as a critical component of a CPD programme. Effective peer collaboration had been reported as one of the most significant indications of CPD performance since it accelerated the co-construction of contextual knowledge that was constructive to individual teachers, related to teaching groups, and the organisation. Effective teacher development was dependent upon collegial support. Another frequently demonstrated requirement for effective CPD was a classroom-based emphasis on teaching practice, which entailed teachers learning by doing, confronting real problems, and generating pragmatic answers. It was revealed that the practical component of CPD programmes was more powerful when placed within action research or enquiry cycles of study, action, assessment, and refining.

Moreover, CPD programmes that prioritised impact, helped teachers to build a deeper understanding of the influence their instruction had on their students' development.

Therefore, in accordance with the INSPIRE PD paradigm, any meaningful PD phenomenon, including the ESL environment, must be *impactful, needs-based, sustainable, peer-collaborative, in-practice, reflective, and evaluated*. Consequently, this study examined all these constituents of functional PD in an investigative paradigm (INSPIRE PD model) not only to determine its performance as an ideal model but also to appraise the results of this research.

## 2.4. Internationalisation and TESOL academics' professional development

### 2.4.1. Internationalisation and professional development in Australia

There has been a steady increase in international students entering Australia to study English, demanding the internationalisation of Australian higher education through collaboration with international researchers and TESOL educators as part of their PD. Douglas and Rosvold (2018, p. 24) confirmed that "In countries such as Canada, Australia, New Zealand, the United States, and the United Kingdom, there have been growing numbers of international students from linguistically diverse backgrounds seeking entry to higher education". It is expected that Australia's market for TESOL students will expand; thereby, demand for qualified TESOL professionals will increase.

Harman (2005) evaluated a wide range of literature and research publications on Australian higher education developments in terms of internationalisation since 1990. Australia was progressing towards internationalising higher education through the curricula, furthering understanding of Asian languages, especially of those countries from where Australia gets students in the higher education sector, with a view to "support expansion of Australia's trade" (p. 121). However, the growth was far less than what was hoped for. Then he discussed the nature of interactions between Australian and overseas students, revealing that the level of communication did not extend beyond formal talks, thus the communication status was dissatisfying. Along this line, Harman noted that academics' perceptions of other cultures, people, and their research collaborations were limited.

By 2010, progress was becoming more evident in collaborative research. Olmedo and Harbon (2010) documented American and Australian college teachers' collaboration towards teacher education and multilingualism. They found that interactions and experiences with



international researchers from Mexico, Brazil, Germany, Austria, Italy, Finland, and Australia reflected productive and meaningful cross-national conversations, promoting multiculturalism and culturally relevant pedagogy to globalise classrooms. Their research led to two programs, one with a unique training arrangement for TESOL teachers in post-graduate coursework in collaboration with a university in Shanghai and the second for pre-service teachers on an international exchange. Olmedo and Harbon further highlighted the findings of a qualitative study conducted on the collaborative efforts between the University of Sydney and Indonesia, Korea, and China. The study captured from a questionnaire, interviews, and journal entries that Australian pre-service teachers with experience in those Asian countries had a fruitful acculturation experience that they would take into their future classrooms.

More recently, Yang (2020), noting the increasing globalisation and internationalisation of higher education, suggested learning another language, intercultural responsiveness, and collaboration for the sustainable development of culturally diverse Australian universities. However, “a LOTE (Learning Other Language Than English) as a compulsory unit has little presence in Australian university curricula” (p. 1). Since international education performs a pivotal role in augmenting Australian culture and language, expanding Australian economic performance in the global race, and opening dialogues with international stakeholders for programme design, cross-institutional collaborative research endeavours are advocated.

Furthermore, in a broad multicultural setting encompassing both Western and East Asia, Anderson (2015) recognised the value of peer support in socialising students into their new programmes and free conversations in the academic space. Despite this, Hammad (2016) reported disappointments of international students over limited interactions with local students, particularly in Australian universities.

As a result, in the Asian century, the Australian government launched two projects, the Endeavour Mobility Grant and the New Colombo Plan. Through these initiatives, Australian students could foster their sensitivity, become more Asia-literate, and engage in meaningful communication with overseas students on the university campus. In continuation of his list of plausible recommendations, Yang stressed that cross-paring in the classroom enhances mentors’ intercultural intelligence, opening productive avenues for cross-cultural interaction and broadening their repertoire of experience. Gradually, a new perspective was negotiated in understanding international students’ religion, culture, language, and overall identities leading to creating mutually rewarding friendships or comfortable relationships in the academic space.

Hence, this study aims to investigate the future of collaborative research models and international placements for effective PD.

#### *2.4.2. Internationalisation and professional development in Bangladesh*

Demand for TESOL teaching and learning is high, with English competency significant for obtaining employment. Chowdhury and Ha (2008) demonstrated that “...the country depends on it for both internal and international business, and there is no doubt about its importance in job markets...” (p. 306). University TESOL instructors are required to take on this crucial task for enhancing students’ communicative abilities. In this regard, Hamid (2010) maintained that inadequacy in English language teachers’ proficiency negatively impacted the English language learning phenomena in Bangladesh.

From the insights drawn from a relatively recent study examining multiple Asian countries involving Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, Malaysia, Indonesia, Vietnam, and Japan, Hamid and Nguyen (2016), puts TESOL professionals in a vulnerable position when dealing with rising pressures from students, guardians, employers, policymakers, and the media due to their lack of competency and teacher education options. They described the situation as a case of policy dumping.

In Bangladesh, there are precise educational requirements for primary, high school, and college-level teachers, and there are government-sponsored institutes and universities that offer continuing PD. However, there is no registration test and almost no training provisions, and no colleges for university TESOL teachers’ education and training. A fresh English graduate becomes a university teacher without any additional education qualifications and can function as an adult educator from day one. As a result, the quality and competence levels of present university graduates are questionable, and employers find them lacking “proficient skills with English....and with other softer skills, such as communication and problem-solving” (Mannan, 2016, p. 577). As a result, industrialists and business entrepreneurs prefer to recruit Indian and Sri Lankan rather than Bangladeshi graduates to work in their businesses. Abed (2018) epitomises university education contexts:

The lack of professionalism and skills of teachers is widely regarded as one of the reasons for the low learning achievement of students and graduates not quite matching market needs. The professional development of university teachers is limited to obtaining an advanced degree in the respective discipline. (p. 16)

Most Bangladeshi university teachers lack pedagogical skills and have access to little or no professional development provision, and this circumstance directly impacts Bangladeshi

university graduates' future employability. Without screening tests and necessary education and training, university teachers in Bangladesh lack the opportunity for qualitative change in their growth and subsequent TESOL education landscape.

## 2.5. Provisions and needs

In terms of TESOL professionals' pedagogical innovations, future growth, and addressing learners' increasing demands in varied situations, they articulated several PD demands. However, the existing PD provision environment is rather dissatisfying, typically marked by scarcity and manifested as self-directed and self-funded opportunities.

### 2.5.1. Provisions

Professional development provisions for TESOL academic staff are an outcome of self-initiation be it in Western or non-Western countries. González and Ospina (2005) described Columbian university EFL teachers' PD as self-funded. Further, participants in this qualitative research articulated that the increasing financial constraints in their work milieus were relegating EFL teachers' professional enhancement to a lower priority. Through a qualitative investigation, Chaudary (2011) showed that Pakistani tertiary teachers' PD opportunities were inadequate, sporadic, and traditional. While discussing international research findings conducted in Australia, the UK, the US, and China, Jacob et al. (2015) asserted that PD provisions for faculty members were scant, and teachers seeking academic enrichment were expected to do so at their own expense. Despite the fact that some top Asian universities possessed extensive PD regulations, low-ranked universities had a more arbitrary level of PD support.

While identifying Indonesian university EFL practitioners' PD provisions, Hartono (2016) mentioned the scarcity of PD programmes and institutional support, burdensome teaching loads, and time management (Pramastiwi, 2018). The survey also emphasised the need for professional enhancement; however, due to a lack of motivation, funds, and resources, only a few teachers were willing to participate in various PD activities. Similarly, Joshi et al. (2018) complained about the contemporary PD status by concentrating on the lack of required PD for EFL teachers in Nepal. The institutional catering of limited resources for an individual teacher might have resulted in scant support. They also pointed out that universities with restricted capacity and resources struggle to persuade their teaching staff to attend and present at workshops, conferences, and seminars since they could not afford to cover registration costs,

airfare, and lodging. Furthermore, if someone pursued professional expertise, they would be understaffed, resulting in an increased workload for the existing teachers.

In this sense, Zein et al. (2020) confirmed that inadequate infrastructure combined with a lack of opportunity hindered the realisation of PD and academic potential among Indonesian EFL professionals. Sadeghi and Richards (2021) further outlined the PD of Iranian English language teachers as a top-down, expert-driven structure in which outsiders trained and discussed the teaching models. Beginning teachers might benefit from the training classes, which covered processes, tactics, and a presentation-practice-production model for delivering English lessons. This institutional support had little impact on experienced teachers. Journals and books were not free, and they were required to fund their own attendance at conferences and other events; thus, a low rate of such activities was seen. Similarly, only a small percentage of practitioners was reported to engage in professional reading indicating a lack of access to scholarly publications.

Similarly, Al-Harbi & Ahmad (2022) indicated that PD for TESOL teachers in Pakistan is top-down, traditional, and insufficient. The researchers discovered, through a comparative analysis of Pakistani TESOL instructors with work experience in Canada, Saudi Arabia, and Pakistan, that PD in Pakistan appeared problematic due to a lack of institutional support.

In the line of low institutional support discussion, Klink et al. (2017) further extended by illustrating a survey result on twenty-five university teacher educators from ten countries (Netherlands, Israel, Japan, Australia, the Czech Republic, Belgium, Slovenia, Spain, Turkey, and the United Kingdom) about the nature of institutional support, finding that, with the exception of a few fortunate participants, the majority of institutions outlined their PD provisions as the bare minimum to none. Some Belgium, Netherlands, Spain, and Czech Republic teacher educators cited a lack of support, indifferent team leaders and supervisors who did not pay attention to their professional needs, and built-in bureaucracies in the educational system. "Teacher education in Australia is still an under-researched and under-funded area of inquiry", the Australian participant stated.

Regarding self-driven PD, both Neilsen (2011) and Stanley (2017) also highlighted that TESOL teachers primarily rely on themselves because their workplaces provide little and infrequent CPD if any at all. Similarly, MacPhail et al. (2019) focused on the needs and provisions of sixty-one university teacher educators in six national jurisdictions: England, Ireland, Israel, Norway, Scotland, and the Netherlands, emphasising dominant aspects shaping their PD experience. Given the interconnected nature of teaching and research, the interview data showcased self-initiated and collaborative PD activities with peers and colleagues.

Evidently, the participants of this research identified the meaningful role collaboration and collegial dialogues might play, especially, in the setting of self-funded PD. Another interesting discovery was the induction experience of the self-selected individuals, who received no formal induction and depended primarily on informal discourse and personal acquaintances (Yumru, 2015). Evidently, identical findings were highlighted regarding the PD provisions in a number of Western and non-Western nations, and they mandated self-funded PD as corresponding universities play a minimal role in the professional development of TESOL practitioners.

Drawing on institutional provisions, Wichadee (2012) captured 217 Thai English language professionals' voices who were affiliated with fourteen metropolitan universities in Bangkok. They emphasised that self-development in the current context of educational reform might not be enough to meet their needs. MacPhail et al. (2019), highlighted similar thoughts from university teacher educators in European contexts who critiqued institutional opportunities as they did not cater for individuals' demands. This phenomenon also evidenced a dearth of vibrant and well-balanced PD operating frameworks further exacerbated by a scarcity of resources and assistance hampering professional upskilling. Therefore, it is imperative to pay immediate attention to the provisions of TESOL academic staff's PD to improve institutional offerings and thereby provide opportunities for their professional capabilities.

#### *2.5.1.1. Provisions during the pandemic*

Dhawan (2020) examined secondary data to conduct a content analysis on the significance of online learning and concluded that COVID-19 posed a worldwide threat to the traditional education system and compelled educators to adopt an online mode of instruction overnight. Many academic institutions that previously resisted changing their conventional pedagogical approach were forced to adopt online teaching and learning exclusively. She identified several obstacles, including electronic devices, the internet, and Wi-Fi connectivity. Moreover, the accessibility of electricity and an uninterrupted connection to the internet remains a greater obstacle for them, as many Indian cities, particularly smaller cities, continue to experience frequent electricity shortages. She also discovered that shifting to blended pedagogy posed a challenge for teachers attempting to change their instruction from offline to online mode. Many learners and educators face psychological issues during times of crisis, including stress, dread, anxiety, depression, and insomnia, which result in a lack of concentration and focus on methodologies and time management.

Similarly, Talib et al. (2021) conducted a systematic analysis of the transition from traditional education involving interaction with peers in physical classrooms to online distance education in the context of the pandemic. Communication can be impeded by poor internet reception or Wi-Fi, connection stability, errors, and other technical problems. Academic personnel were faced with increased or even doubled workloads. In addition, a lack of face-to-face social interaction for extended periods of time can negatively impact mental health. This rendered technological unskilled teachers unprepared to manage complex computer and internet-related tasks. The instructors' lack of technological proficiency and lack of training or familiarity with utilising online tools posed a challenge.

In the context of Bangladeshi public universities' English Department's academics and students (Bashir et al., 2021; Khan et al., 2021a; Khan et al., 2021b), through qualitative and mixed methods study respectively, identified similar challenges to those of Dhawan (2020) and Talib et al. (2021). Lack of access to devices, online resources, materials, technological expertise, pedagogy and materials, evaluation, and psychological factors and training is a significant obstacle to remote instruction (Islam, 2021). Another significant obstacle was the instructors' and students' lack of technical training and proficiency. The majority of respondents indicated that they had neither online teaching experience nor formal training. Participants advocated training for both instructors and students to enhance their technological proficiency. Participants also suggested for emotional and psychological assistance. The teachers were primarily self-taught by attending webinars, taking free online courses, and viewing YouTube tutorials (Khan et al., 2021b). They had no formal training in online teaching and reported having no prior experience with it.

### 2.5.2. Needs

In various studies, TESOL professionals have identified five key needs: professional autonomy and needs assessment, collaboration, and community of practice (CoP), information technology manoeuvring, cultural pedagogy, and research and publication.

First, through a mixed-methods study, Gregory (2010) in the US context showed that it was important for schools that they should focus on teacher expectations at the start of a development programme to maximise teachers' learning in co-operating, and problem-resolving. Yurtsever (2013) conducted a study at Akdeniz University and other Turkish state universities. Through a quantitative questionnaire, 91 volunteer ESL teachers revealed that they constructed their own context-sensitive pedagogical knowledge, which prompted them to theorise from their practice. Individual and collaborative studies might be conducted at various

stages based on teachers' experience, knowledge, social environment, and demands, but there was a significant trend towards constructivist models, particularly for the professional autonomy. Therefore, PD programmes must be held in a relaxed, non-mandatory, and cost-free setting so that instructors had the opportunity to discover what they needed, who they might collaborate with, how to achieve their objectives, and how to evaluate and improve their teaching.

Kabilan and Veratharaju (2013) found through survey research that effective PD should be based on teachers' actual needs and existing practices. English-language teachers in Malaysia urged and demanded more effective PD activities that were tailored to their requirements. Identifying the needs of teachers were deemed crucial, as this process would likely to determine the success of the intended PD programmes. Therefore, PD activities should be pertinent, meaningful, and tailored to the teachers' professional requirements. In addition, Kabilan and Veratharaju concentrated that a great deal of research conducted in Malaysia demonstrated that teachers were dissatisfied with their PD. The authors were convinced that this was the case due to the highly centralised planning and implementation of PD in Malaysia, which was dominated by cascade-type programmes (top-down) that disregarded teachers' interests and requirements. Based on the analysis and comprehension of the data, these elements could be constructed and assembled into a fluid and dynamic model comprising the following stages of PD programmes: planning and development; implementing PD and engaging teachers; and evaluating and enriching teachers' experiences and professional growth. Networking, collaboration, and needs-based PD relevant, meaningful, and sustainable programmes and activities were also emphasised.

In a qualitative study conducted in Indonesia, Utami and Prestridge (2018) found when teachers' PD was customised to their needs and preferences, their enthusiasm and possibility of transmitting new understandings and practises to the classroom increase. They also revealed that participation in PD rarely provided them with the necessary knowledge. This was the reason why they engaged in self-directed online learning. They noted that the likelihood of acquiring pertinent knowledge was higher in their PD when they browsed the Internet or participated in self-selected PD. Apparently, this study emphasised that Indonesian EFL teachers preferred to have input into what they desired or were required to learn. Attending self-selected PD events, such as seminars or workshops, was just as effective for them as online PD. Along a similar line, Reed (2019) indicated that most of the Australian TESOL teachers experienced traditional PD in the form of seminars and workshops with little opportunity to partake in the preparation, the delivery process, or appraisal of their programmes. With an aim

to grow personally and professionally, the majority of teachers desired more input into PD and the opportunity to engage in meaningful and pertinent activities.

Second, collaboration, a community of practice and networking were identified as the top-ranked professional development needs among EFL educators in different Western and non-Western countries (Barahona, 2018; Levine & Marcus, 2010). Eighteen Columbian EFL educators expressed their demand for networking in research conducted on university EFL educators in Bogota (González & Ospina, 2005). Evidently, it meant a great deal to these higher education-based professionals in honing their professional capacity in the shared academic space with peers from other nations within the international professional community. Likewise, Saudi EFL professionals emphasised their need for collaboration with international experts through an academic exchange program (Hazaea, 2019). Being a part of a communal network could provide a wide range of opportunities to discuss professional hindrances and boons. Nevertheless, it remained the most underdeveloped PD mechanism.

Third, PD needs in relation to ICT were also perceived in several contexts, mostly in non-Western contexts. In a survey conducted by Hazaea (2019), Saudi faculty members displayed a high need for manoeuvring technology for online classes, self-monitoring, and constructing teaching portfolios, all of which might help them gain autonomy and transformation. Guo et al. (2019) based their review of Systems' contributions to language teacher education research on 10 out of 147 articles published in the journal (up to 2018) and found a desire among professionals for technology-based language instruction and informal training. Similarly, Zein et al. (2020) underlined Indonesian EFL teachers' need for knowledge and abilities to utilise internet-based teaching in a recent review released in the eight years 2011-2019 on English language education. Evidently, university TESOL teachers in a variety of contexts may anticipate a wide range of benefits that ICT may offer to teachers and have therefore sought PD in connection to ICT.

Fourth, TESOL professionals in several nations expressed relatively a high demand for PD in the domain of cultural pedagogy. Forty-two Turkish university EFL professionals expressed their learning needs through a questionnaire survey regarding teaching in multicultural environments (Celik et al., 2013). They reiterated that they were overwhelmed at times performing their role while in front of such cultural, linguistic, and diverse English learners as mainstream learners in the classes. Indeed, the training was in need for improving instructors' ability to use a broad range of materials, resources, pedagogy, and ICT. Simultaneously, evaluation needs were identified, allowing practitioners to assess regular progress and teaching material in the context of multicultural classes.



Fifth, with regard to intercultural PD needs, Hiatt and Fairbairn (2018) outlined TESOL P-12 US in-service teachers' PD requirements in the realms of language, culture, instruction, and professionalism. The survey finding captured the perception of 126 practitioners who voiced their inability to meet academic goals and highlighted the importance of TESOL-focused PD in line with unique personal and professional demands. While reminiscing on previous experience, respondents from twelve districts ended up describing as average and good, stating their PD requirement for the language acquisition process, and understanding the level of student-populations language. They were, nevertheless, secure in their understanding of language as a system. They expressed their need to raise their awareness of the diverse cultural origins of learners as well as relevant resources, and access to expertise in their educational settings.

In a similar manner, Coryell et al. (2021) represented 195 in-service Spanish university professionals' needs for an innovative educational paradigm for internationalising higher education and universities. Over fifty percentage of respondents to an online survey thought that teachers needed to use different tactics in a class with both international and domestic students because of cultural and linguistic differences. Further, they emphasised that cultural differences stressed teaching changes, engagement approaches, and material citing instances from outside the national periphery. Respondents stated a desire to fine-tune their pedagogical knowledge through institutional PD opportunities at their respective universities. Other techniques that were exhibited included foreign travel, academic exchange, conferences, and related websites.

In the research conducted by Coryell et al. (2021), a few people also stated that videos, books, and mentors would further boost their competence and skills. For faculty members who were new to multilingual and multicultural teaching-learning situations, additional need-based suggestions included a mix of formal and informal training. They advocated for formal seminars and workshops, international experience to improve language and intercultural sensitivity, and informal networking and mentoring. Perceiving the current need for an intercultural paradigm among TESOL professionals, this study aims to create an intercultural PD model with global application.

Fourth, PD needs in relation to polishing research and publication skills were also deemed important. Hazaea (2019) conducted a multi-modal study at Najran University where thirty-two native and non-native male TESOL professionals indicated their highest needs in modern pedagogical methods, and research activities: attending and presenting at conferences, action research, and journal publication. Indeed, Saudi professionals' concerns about their

traditional pedagogical approaches, curriculum, and contextualising their teaching practice in the research were mirrored in their needs. Like Saudi TESOL professionals, Tavakoli (2015) perceived an essential need in the quality research domain and suggested that research training should be an integral component for in-service teachers' professional knowledge building. As for achieving these PD needs, the participants mentioned a range of short yet successful PD programmes, such as short courses, workshops, and webinars.

To sum up, TESOL professionals identified a wide spectrum of PD needs to secure their professional and personal enrichment. They required PD that was aligned with individual and professional demands (Gregory, 2010), was context-appropriate and emphasised the practical selection of PD activities. Learning requirements were also seen in terms of collaboration and networking, research training, ICT requirement for universal online resources, and improving intercultural paradigm for teaching multicultural classes. Access to expertise in educational settings, teachers' capacity to exploit a wide range of materials, self-monitoring, and constructing teaching portfolios, funding, time allowance and a range of short yet effective PD programmes were some of the additional demands noted.

In terms of available PD provisions, TESOL practitioners, and educators portrayed a fairly gloomy picture by stating that PD opportunities were the bare minimum to non-existent in most workplaces and universities. Faculty members seeking professional knowledge building were supposed to resort to self-funding. In addition, instructors reported that insufficient support, un-sympathetic team leaders, and supervisors who were unconcerned about their professional demands, bureaucratic complexities and politics made the PD environment far less conducive to professional enrichment. There is a gap manifested in the knowledge of how the TESOL professionals view their needs and the state of provision of CPD for their growth.

## **2.6. Incentives and reward structures**

It was quite evident that the chaotic and messy picture of TESOL PD surfaced not because of the dearth of institutional PD opportunities and requirements, but also limited or no incentives and an absence of a systematic reward structure exacerbating the contemporary TESOL PD status.

Several researchers in multiple contexts highlighted the lack of systematic reward structure that might foster their PD pursuit. Celik et al. (2013) emphasised a disconcerting but realistic status of incentives and reward structure for TESOL professionals' PD engagement. Most respondents stipulated that they had neither received any monetary incentives in

reimbursement for expenses nor additional pay for time spent in developmental forums outside of regular work hours. On the contrary, a few practitioners admitted that PD activities earned them formal recognition and higher ratings in their annual teaching performance. TESOL professionals need this type of recognition practice for their PD engagements (Celik et al., 2013).

However, O'Sullivan (2018) regretted that the unavailability and scarcity of a systematic reward structure further hindered the professional enrichment of TESOL practitioners (Jacob et al., 2015; Sadeghi & Richards, 2021). This impacted negatively on the practitioners' level of motivation. Furthermore, O'Sullivan demonstrated that faculty PD programmes were underfunded, depending on inadequate budgets in Asia. Indeed, faculty members seeking professional innovations in local and international academic spaces needed to self-fund, which was regarded as another disincentive impeding meaningful involvement in PD programmes in the Asian higher education arena.

As a way forward, several scholars presented ideas for structuring systematic incentives into academic and PD programmes. To nurture pedagogical excellence, Lankveld et al. (2017) suggested developmental grants, teaching awards, and the establishment of micro-organisations. As a result of this idea, new opportunities might be channelled and the formation of a successful teacher identity inside institutions might be sustained. Along this line, Hiatt and Fairbairn (2018) recommended release time, time off from teaching, and financial encouragement to facilitate faculty members' participation in conferences, workshops, or other types of professional learning outside the campus. Finally, Guo et al. (2019) advocated for a wide range of stimuli in the form of compliments and acknowledgements from colleagues, teacher educators, and even from the student populations for fostering language teachers' professional skills.

To finish, because there was no structured reward mechanism and no monetary incentives in reimbursement for expenses or additional pay for time spent on developing forums outside of regular work hours, the condition of university TESOL professionals' PD was rather demoralising. Faculty professional development initiatives were underfunded, owing to tight budgets. As a way ahead, development grants, teaching awards, and the formation of institutions to patronise educational excellence were recommended. Release time from regular work responsibilities, time away from teaching, and financial incentives to encourage faculty members to attend conferences, workshops, or other sorts of professional learning outside the campus could all be powerful motivators. For empowering TESOL

professionals' academic talents, a variety of stimuli in the form of compliments and recognitions from colleagues, teacher educators, and even student populations were proposed.

## 2.7. Professional development challenges

The intricacies of TESOL practitioners' PD are becoming increasingly sophisticated as new challenges emerge. While certain difficulties are distinctive and specific, with ramifications and relevance for a larger community, the majority are common and universal, regardless of the circumstances of Western and non-Western countries.

A series of impediments hindering PD progress were identified by multiple scholars in both Western and non-Western universities. González and Ospina (2005) recognised some major roadblocks to the path of EFL university educators, including inadequate remuneration (Hartono, 2016; Sadeghi & Richards, 2021), restricted access to effective online pedagogical resources, insufficient opportunities for professional advancement (Zein et al., 2020). By expanding a little more on the dimensions of poor salary structure on the basic level, Hartono (2016) and Sadeghi and Richards (2021) revealed that both Indonesian and Iranian EFL professionals' lack of energy due to the pressure of second or multiple jobs. Multiple jobs also impact the quality dimensions of teaching adversely in Indonesian and Iranian educational settings.

While describing their online meaningful collaboration platform, Kabilan et al. (2011) focused on some prevalent technology problems in the Asian environment, including internet access, poor internet connection, and low computing abilities. Then they went on to a more general and universal problem, namely, time constraints (Hartono, 2016; MacPhail et al., 2019; O'Sullivan, 2018; Pramastiwi, 2018; Wichadee, 2012). Drawing on Thai university EFL professionals' insights, Wichadee (2012) listed several universal barriers such as heavy teaching loads (Celik et al., 2013; Hartono, 2016; MacPhail et al., 2019; Phothongsunan, 2018; Zein et al., 2020), poor students' profile and large class sizes (O'Sullivan, 2018).

In her auto-ethnographic narrative, Chitpin (2011) had comparable challenges in Canada, a particularly large class consisting of (37-40) adult pre-service teachers in a class. Additionally, arbitrarily grouped students by the university, and hybrid teaching-learning landscape since 2009 jeopardising her efforts to know individual students, which she saw as an essential means for an effective pedagogical phenomenon. Wichadee (2012) further highlighted many administrative tasks delegated by the university administration interfered with teaching professionals' principal commitments-teaching and participation in PD activities. Turkish university EFL professionals expressed dissatisfaction with their managerial duties

(Pramastiwi, 2018) in the same sense. Administrative responsibilities, they said, did not expand their professional knowledge and were viewed as an unnecessary burden that kept them occupied.

Concerning PD challenges, both Turkish and East Asian faculty members experienced difficulties accessing recent literature and praxis (Canagarajah, 2012; Celik et al., 2013; Macalister, 2018). Surprisingly, Macalister's studies held that East Asian professionals' involvement with mainstream literature was comparable to that of Australian and New Zealand instructors, where access to contemporary research was not a concern. Expanding on the most frequently mentioned challenge, Klink et al. (2017) argued that time management issues stemmed from multiple competing tasks and even balancing between work and other responsibilities (family and children). Inadequate resources and money (Yuwono & Harbon, 2010) engendered their present level of participation, and explicit concerns were echoed in their responses regarding future motivation.

Jacob et al. (2015) observed faculty PD centres at eight world-class universities in Australia, China, the United Kingdom, and the United States and documented numerous challenges. To discuss Asia's situation, the authors stated that due to rapid expansion, institutions were obliged to hire underqualified teaching staff and those teachers were overburdened with increased teaching loads (O'Sullivan, 2018). O'Sullivan provided an update on the newer dimensions of the challenges encountered by university EFL professionals in Asia in general and in China in particular, such as the massification of higher education, curriculum reform, changing expectations of university leaders, a conflict between traditional exam-focused approaches, and the necessity for holistic learning.

Due to developing countries' economic boom, Jacob et al. (2015) observed that "Australian higher education sectors are experiencing a transition from elite to mass education". Bexley et al. (2011) focused on a survey of 20 institutions performed in 2010, over 40% of teachers had not undergone any form of training. In both Australia and the USA, May, (2011) demonstrated that over half of the undergraduate teachers were casual, accounting for 60% of the total academic staff (cited in Jacob et al., 2015), casting doubt on a consistent quality norm. Probert (2015), in her *Discussion Paper 4* on the Australian higher education system emphasised a parallel finding:

Many commentators have expressed concern about the fact that more than half of all undergraduate teaching in Australia is now provided by casually employed academic staff, while the staff–student ratio has declined to such an extent that tutorials, as such, are no longer feasible. Data gathered by the Australasian Survey of Student Engagement has consistently

shown that Australian students do not score well on measures of ‘active learning’, interactions with academic staff or ‘enriching educational experiences’. (p. 5)

Therefore, new research is required in the Australian context to establish a current PD state that outlines the specific challenges that Australian teachers in higher education may face.

While Lankveld et al. (2017) summarised existing literature to establish how university instructors’ identities grow and emerge, the researchers concentrated on PD impediments hindering teachers’ progress. A qualitative synthesis of 59 studies and thematic analysis merging with university academics’ professional growth scaffolded that the work environment might pose different challenges in the form of hierarchy, competitiveness, and valuing research over teaching. As a result, teachers experienced isolation, inhibition, and a shortage of opportunities impacting their professional growth.

Simultaneously, the larger context of higher education, including neoliberal management culture and the friction between teaching and research, impacted as a negative catalyst to nurturing university-based professionals’ identities. Institutional competition quasi-market mechanism increased and gradually decreased the creative component of teaching, the individual agency of faculty members, seemingly unconcerned about the intricacies of pedagogy, undervaluing fundamental academic values, academic freedom, autonomy, self-esteem, and communal perspectives of higher education. These factors coupled with increasing workload collectively contributed to mounting insecurity, rising instability, uncertainty, and anxiety among university academic staff in the wider context of higher education. Ironically, the higher education institutions’ priority and investment in research contrasted with educators’ desire to improve their teaching for the better.

In a similar situation, MacPhail et al. (2019) stressed the power of collaboration as a path ahead, however, not without acknowledging the associated challenges with it. Not every time, people might have access to expertise in the same institute. Quite often, people grappled over undue competition and judgmental attitudes prompting the necessity for ensuring access to the resourceful individual. The findings of both Lankveld et al. (2017) and MacPhail et al. (2019) captured multiple educators’ disappointments over universities’ ‘publish or perish’ rhetoric since they recognised a mismatch between this motto with universities’ contemporary support systems.

In a similar vein, O’Sullivan (2018) outlined Asian contexts, and Chinese professionals offered more dimensions to this aspect of PD issues. Chinese English faculty members and other disciplinary academic staff developed their research rhetoric in distinct ways, with the latter group receiving greater support than English professionals. EFL professionals were

expected to publish as well, but they were not given any assistance or grants by the institutions. They said that they put in more teaching hours and spent a lot of time writing, resulting in a disconnect between their professional and personal life. Many aspects of their professional growth methods were compromised due to structural and financial discrimination. Consequently, all of this impacted the quality and quantity of their publications, which were the parameters for measuring academic staff's performance.

Sadeghi and Richards (2021) recorded similar grievances of 24 Iranian EFL practitioners during focus group talks. They investigated the CPD of Iranian EFL instructors and discovered that they had a low social position, a lack of work stability and that students, families, authorities, and other colleagues thought teaching was unimportant. Academic staff, according to MacPhail et al. (2019), created pillars of motivation for elevating their well-being by constructing a support structure for themselves and mediating with other priorities.

Different levels of conflicting interests and preferences between TESOL professionals and their managers were captured by (Joshi et al., 2018; Lankveld et al., 2017; MacPhail et al., 2019; O'Sullivan, 2018). In these publications, professionals struggled because of their emphasis on teaching practices rather than on research. Evidently, the administrative staff continued to overlook the significance of pedagogical approaches and professional enrichments. McChesney and Aldridge (2021) documented obstacles to PD paths, including structural barriers embedded in language and school-related factors filtered to be accepted by teachers in the dataset of 131 teachers (15 nationalities) of Arab and Western origins. The acceptance barrier encompassed cognitive access and contextually fit PD along with teacher agency enabling teachers to receive accepted PD in the first stage. Implementation and ensuring optimal student impact were two additional hindrances. Finally, Guo et al. (2019) recognised the most intriguing challenge: determining the most effective PD mechanism and approach that could potentially promote teachers' professional competencies.

In short, the TESOL professionals' PD landscape is marked by numerous challenges: some are more relevant to non-Western university milieus, while others reflect Western academia, and still, others have a universal appeal irrespective of contextual varieties. Access to contemporary research, restricted access to effective online pedagogical resources and tools, and prevalent technology problems including internet access, poor internet connection, and low computing ability are top-ranked PD impediments. Other issues include poor student profiles, underqualified teaching staff, and a contradiction between traditional exam-focused approaches and more innovative educational approaches.

Furthermore, EFL professionals' low pay structure and the necessity to earn from second or multiple jobs may be more prevalent in non-Western higher educational environments. Conversely, Western higher educational contexts are characterised by a casual work environment, friction between teaching and research, a quasi-market process that increased and eventually lowered the creative component of teaching, faculty members' individual freedom, and academic liberty reduced to a greater extent. Finally, time constraints, heavy teaching loads, large class sizes, administrative tasks, and structural and financial discrimination are some of the common challenges hampering TESOL professionals' knowledge-building. Massification of higher education, curriculum reform, changing expectations of university leaders, and the necessity for holistic learning are all factors to consider bringing a paradigm shift in the TESOL contemporary professional development phenomena.

## 2.8. Professional development for academic growth

Drawing on the insights from mainstream academic literature reviewed in relation to TESOL PD needs, provisions, and other related constructs, TESOL professionals obviously struggle with limited opportunities to the point where they must rely on self-funding if they look forward to enhancing professional capabilities. In this scenario, the question of what processes and resources facilitate TESOL professionals' academic growth, and what they find significant through which they create their identity and emerge as effective professionals, naturally arises. Teachers' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation pushes them to participate in a variety of worthwhile PD opportunities, such as ICT and online resources, mentorship and teaching practicum, study abroad and experiencing worldwide culture, and the biggest group stating primarily transformative PD mechanisms, reading, doing research, collaboration, reflective practices, collegial dialogues, a community of Practice (CoP), peer-observation, and action research. Some other individuals mentioned transmissive or training platforms like presenting and attending conferences, seminars, workshops, and short courses as they potentially increased new teachers' confidence and refine the pedagogical approach. All these conventional PD strategies are categorised into four groups with a view to holistically discussing similar mechanisms together.

The first group demonstrated ICT and online resources as significant contributors to their professional advancement. Kabilan et al. (2011) drew a practical roadmap to success in enriching teachers' academic and professional abilities. Multiple groups of 142 teachers were formed and assigned to Nicenet's ([www.nicenet.org](http://www.nicenet.org)) online classroom, where they actively



engaged in collaborative discussions on linguistics in language teaching, project work in TESOL, and learners' strategies. To make platforms like this fruitful, the participants identified several key factors: a stable internet connection, strong internet speeds, and computer abilities. This qualitative research showed that both pre-service and in-service practitioners hugely benefitted from this virtual collaborative project by sharpening five skills including planning and researching, problem-solving, active involvement, language skills, and computing skills. A high level of interaction among the participants, individual commitment, autonomy and collective decision-making, networking outside of one's own community, free sharing and discussing ideas among peers were recognised as features that both made the project fruitful and contributed positively to their progress as TESOL professionals.

Due to information technology, groups like those of Kabilan et al. (2011) became possible, however, a large share of success goes to collaborative efforts. Deep down, virtual collaboration along with critical reflection among groups sparked successful outcomes, although, in this situation, the profound role played by reflective activities was absent from both the wider and narrower PD descriptions. While detailed discussions about the formation of online groups, and participants' virtual meetings were included, a brief discussion about the participants' collaborative accountability and their thought processes or reflection in regard to the transfer of learning could strongly validate the research outcomes. Identifying the strengths of collaborative online pursuits while engaging PD, Barahona (2018) revealed comparable benefits. Increasingly, (ICT) is viewed as an important component of most advanced approaches to PD due to the potential of available and versatile access to learning, as well as readily available alternatives for effective online partnerships among a greater number of instructors (Utami & Prestridge, 2018) from various places.

Expanding modes of technology, such as Web portals, wikis, video-production tools, rich e-learning platforms, and mobile phone applications, were rapidly being incorporated as necessary and crucial elements in PD programmes. Likewise, Sadeghi and Richards (2021) described the Internet as a major source of PD for both public and private school EFL teachers. Watching educational resources was the most frequently implemented PD activity. Other PD mechanisms included peer observation, receiving guidance from a supervisor or mentoring, and action research. Evidently, TESOL professionals require all these mechanisms but are absent from most of the contexts reviewed in this study.

The second group focused on mentoring for their professional enhancement. Throughout their PD journey, they met different mentors who helped them adjust their course of action for the better. Chitpin (2011) recorded the essential contribution of critical

conversations with a mentor and subsequent reflections in her personal academic journey from the beginning to the professorship. Her teaching ability as an academic at the University of Ottawa, Canada, was augmented by these informal and personal PD conversations with mentors. She became an ardent learner and engaged in ongoing processes of communication, enquiry, reflection, and knowledge expansion shortly after beginning her PhD research. Though for her identity development, Chitpin (2011) generously credited different mentors for heightening her reflective practices not only on past events but also on her PD leading to the deliberate crafting of teaching artefacts. She underlined that the reflection paused and looked to be reflexive, as it moved back and forth between previous experiences. The value of reflective methods was underscored through Chitpin's journey towards professional progress. Although she received mentoring at various points, it was ultimately reflection that led to the development of her professional abilities, reiterating the critical value of reflection in polishing academics' professional skills. Likewise, Howe (2014) detailed his road to becoming a professional practitioner in his reflective paper, emphasising the value of mentorship. He highlighted that the mentorship of the expert teachers was critical to his survival in the first year. Following that, Howe commenced a series of PD workshop sessions on classroom management, curriculum, and assessment criteria to refine his practical set of pedagogical strategies.

The third group emphasised the transformative potential of global and multicultural experiences on their perceptions and functional key competencies. Neilsen (2011) focused on some moments of disruptions or challenges that nine expatriate Australian TESOL teachers faced in various cultural situations, which aided in their emotional and professional growth. Through narrative inquiry and semi-structured interviews, the author unfolded that it was interaction with another culture (in this case Japan, Kenya, Italy, Brunei, Cameroon, Nigeria, and Saudi Arabia) which brought about professional and personal changes in their education journey. This is an intriguing revelation that interaction with another culture helped them grow cognitively and academically. Thus, there are crucial implications of cultural interaction for both novice and experienced TESOL teachers in the global and local contexts for their professional growth.

Using narrative inquiry, Howe (2013) illustrated that gradual acculturation into teacher preparation programmes led to the creation of a professional and transcultural teaching persona. This comparative study put forwards that effective PD should involve a cultural component to aid in the building of transnational teachers so that they build global citizens. Again, while discussing EFL teachers' PD growth, Howe (2014) indicated that ESL teachers were placed in

different countries from Canada to grow truly multicultural. Similarly, Ahmad et al. (2017) studied the professional identity development of 41 Pakistani university English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers in Saudi Arabia. Layers of findings were confirmed by Survey Monkey analysis. To begin, social, cultural, and personal discourses led to the development of EFL practitioners as professionals. A comparison of native and non-native EFL teachers is an intriguing outcome of the study, having inferences for several TESOL pedagogical contexts. While the former group demonstrated good language skills and pronunciation, the latter group had more certificates and degrees. Nevertheless, both groups were interested in various PD projects.

EFL teachers valued foreign work experiences, and careers in diverse cultures and globalisation and internationalisation of higher education opened this international work avenue for them where they worked as EFL expatriate teachers in another Asian country. Exploring international experience as an effective means of PD, Kaowiwattanakul (2016) reported that international immersion fostered university lecturers' cognitive and affective skills. A qualitative study, in which 23 EFL lecturers from nine universities in Thailand further indicated that the development of intercultural perspective as well as a strong foundation skill. The list also included educators' self-esteem, global-mindedness, and the promotion of the transfer of international knowledge into classroom activities.

He et al. (2017) further extended and highlighted that the study abroad programme as one of the most valuable means of furnishing multicultural and global teachers. Drawing on insights from multi-modal research, the twelve in-service K-12 US teachers admitted that cultural seminars, learning through the Chinese language class, school visits, open dialogues with Chinese students and teachers, and several formal and informal field experiences enriched their professional vision. About the further impact of the short-term study tour to China, these US school specialists commented that this programme not only contributed to their intercultural competency but also influenced a wide spectrum of conventional beliefs and practices.

Further, these US teachers acknowledged that their largest growth in relation to Chinese culture, customs, and language was realised through the short-term study tour to China. The opportunities for teacher collaboration at different levels included group collaboration, one-on-one level navigating the ways to discuss teaching materials, assessment and evaluation, curriculum resources, then evaluating communicative language teaching and reformulating that methodology including intercultural focus. The report concluded that intensive study abroad programmes be included in the European teacher education curriculum. Reviewing the literature on study abroad, Milian et al. (2015) and Chien (2020) discovered that study abroad

was popular among pre-service and in-service teachers of Arab, Chinese, and other Asian origins. They valued their exposure to English-speaking Western nations, as well as multicultural and multilingual societies.

Yet, another study by Phothongsunan (2018) highlighted pursuing higher degrees as means for PD, career advancement and pay raises. Likewise, Baecher and Chung (2020) validated the heightened benefits of learning and teaching abroad in a qualitative study with ten in-service TESOL teachers from New York City who engaged in a month-long instructor-led PD platform in San Jose, Costa Rica. Through this transformational learning experience, the study confirmed a significant amount of personal and professional improvements occurred. Working alongside local EFL practitioners enabled them to critically reflect on challenges and opportunities, note the dissonance and synchronises, negotiate new ideas and beliefs, and construct and reconstruct their identities.

Price (2020) denoted that the interactions with people from different cultures, languages, and countries due to the participants' studying, living, and working in foreign lands played a key role in shaping their professional trajectories. Thus, international service learning is viewed as a transformative and dynamic form of professional enhancement broadening new direction of knowledge by questioning curriculum design, dichotomies of native-non-native teachers, working around constraints, linking between teacher education and policy mandates, and reinvigorating collaborative connections. As a result, these investigations bolstered the unique position of international experience and intercultural dimension in the PD arena.

The fourth and final group addressed a wide spectrum transformative of PD methods that they used and found to be beneficial for their professional upskilling. In terms of Columbian higher education-based educators' professional enrichment, González and Ospina (2005) reported both broad, more general, and a few contextual PD strategies for achieving professional progress. They credited independent study, teaching advanced courses, research activities, international conferences, reflective practice, and peer observation. Systematic reflection on practice, challenges-good and bad experience, their own achievements and failures, and various roles and responsibilities let them sail over the odds in a setting constrained by the paucity and self-initiated PD. While reflecting on these contextual variables limiting their academic potential, they cited a socialising platform provided by the University of Minnesota where they could share their research and experience as EFL educators, demonstrating the heightened benefits of learning from international settings.

Globally, conducting research was thought to be an important task for advancing research-based practices and establishing pedagogical coherence. As a form of action research

evaluating a CPD initiative, Kiely and Davis (2010) explored the UK English for speakers of other languages (ESOL) context and figured out that the CPD events promoted transformative rather than transmissive teacher education embracing collaborative, reflective, and research induction elements. The examination of CPD episodes documented collaboration and classroom research practice led to a wider impact entailing multi-layered thinking, informing the decisions, reflections, and actions of an experienced practitioner. Evidently valuing the readings with respect to validating teaching practices, and reflecting on realities and classroom phenomena, teachers recorded their interests in participative ideas than prescriptive techniques and acquisitional approaches.

Importantly ESL teachers emphasised transforming the ideas into embedding their pedagogy and context before the ideas shaped their practice. In this sense, they valued research frameworks and results to mirror their classroom practice. In both circumstances, they felt the need to reflect, and they eventually grew into more confident, coherent, and transformational professionals as a result of their ownership of the knowledge and insight gained via reflection, reinforcing the need for reflection in the current set of PD activities. Wichadee (2012) upheld the findings of a survey that focused on the activities chosen by university EFL teachers to improve their professional abilities. Discussing or exchanging knowledge with coworkers was the most common way they utilised to develop themselves. Thus, the three most highly ranked activities were sharing information, reading scholarly papers, and attending workshops, reflecting the nature of self-development in Thailand, which was essentially collaborative bridging the deficiencies of possible solitary self-funded PD pursuit.

According to an ethnographic self-reconstruction, Canagarajah (2012) valued the research publications, textbooks, and professional handbooks he engaged with, which mediated his development as a TESOL scholar, researcher, and academic throughout his career. He embraced the communities of practice perspective, which had been widely cited as a model for professionalisation, as well as mutual involvement, collaborative endeavour, and shared repertoire procedures. Of Sri Lankan origin and an American professional, he occasionally encountered tensions and identity crises between communities at the centre and at the periphery that impinged his PD. The tensions led to forms of negotiation that generated critical insights and in-between identities. In addition, the multi-membership nexus healed him and offered him a critical edge in his professional space. Finally, to his consternation, brokering and negotiability aided his progress to positive insider status in the professional world over time.

Similarly, Tavakoli (2015) found that educational experience and ownership of community of practice knowledge are crucial players in the emergence of teacher identity in

semi-structured interviews with 20 volunteer TESOL teachers in England. The participants repeatedly emphasised that their growth developed through their everyday practice, their lived experience and learning that occurred out of their involvement in the process. They highlighted that research alone did not influence their teaching; rather, it was shaped by the teaching itself, with new tactics being practised, professional conversations, and academic dialogues all contributing to the development of their professional image and academic mindset. Old timers' wisdom was passed on to newcomers, paving the route from the periphery to a firm footing in the ground.

Along a similar line, in a qualitative multiple descriptive case study, Topkaya and Celik (2016) found that attending courses and seminars, following professional publications, collaborating with colleagues, and doing extensive readings on teaching were all ways for non-native secondary Turkish school teachers to build meaningful knowledge. From an international comparative study with 25 individuals from ten countries, Klink et al. (2017) highlighted successful PD approaches. Participants from all countries indicated attending conferences, courses, workshops, or training, as well as work-related forms of PD such as team meetings, collegial consultation, and collaboration with coworkers. The mentoring process, according to the participants in this study, was advantageous not just to the mentee but also to the mentor.

The writing of research articles was identified as a high-value learning activity fueled by intrinsic inspiration. Lankveld et al. (2017) captured that the teaching experience, PD activities, and collegial discussions were depicted as stimulating PD experience shaping academic persona while wider higher education milieus exercised constraining progress. Two approaches for empowering university professionals had been proposed: recognising teaching excellence and building a community of practitioners. Staff development programmes were advocated to renew academics' confidence enabling them to practice more control as individuals and together as like-minded educators. Collegial and supportive direct work ambience sustained university professionals' academic growth. This was critical because instructors could be emotional (at times while navigating through professional odds) and educational support from a positive community of like-minded practitioners was deemed necessary. In conclusion, the authors summarised five psychological processes that augmented the development and maintenance of university professionals' development of professional character: a sense of appreciation, a sense of connectedness, a sense of competence, and a sense of commitment, enabling them to envision their future career trajectory.

Macalister (2018) discovered the practice repertoires of 465 ELT professionals (New Zealand, Vietnam, Malaysia, Indonesia, Australia, Europe including the UK, the Rest of Asia, the Americas, rest of the world) were dominated by three popular PD activities: reading a book or article about pedagogical approach, attending/presenting in conferences, and attending a PD course, with reading academic literature being the top-ranked PD pursuit. This scenario tended to be common irrespective of the respondents' region, sector, and linguistic status. A wide range of motivations was reported by readers, entailing academic and teaching purposes, reading for interest to reading for no apparent reason, and personal reasons. Dikilitaş and Yaylı (2018) documented through qualitative research, where 15 Turkish university EFL professionals recorded action research, teachers' engagement with students, and engaging in the research were cited as rewarding PD experiences. When the participants felt a need to change and develop their classroom practices, they engaged in self-reflection and self-evaluation. Therefore, the key qualities of reflection and self-evaluation lie at the heart of any professional identity development.

In addition to concentrating on the value of critical reflection for academic advancement, Dikilitaş and Yaylı (2018) revealed that the participating teachers frequently expressed discontent with themselves, their teaching, or their lack of understanding of learner problems in class. Trying to become more aware of their own teaching was rather unsettling, but it also provided an opportunity for further learning and development. In short, engagement in research appeared to provide an opportunity for these instructors to reflect on themselves and their professional identities as well as pedagogical knowledge. Another emerging factor that was reported by the participants was their increased inter-institutional collaboration. They recorded that research brought colleagues and mentors together, for dialoguing and planning for ways to deal with pedagogical issues arising from the classroom context. As a truly autonomous PD activity, such as action research provided potential opportunities for teachers to develop deeper insights not only into practices but also into their existing knowledge through systematic enquiry into the classroom and teaching.

Similarly, Phothongsunan (2018) identified teacher-student collaboration and participation in research conduction as powerful instruments of their PD. As a result of a mixed-method study in which 30 Thai EFL public university professionals shared their ideas and thoughts. In a similar vein, Joshi et al. (2018) found that self-directed (own teaching experience and self-monitoring) and peer-supported (learning from peers) PD practices helped 45 Nepali EFL teachers the most. Self-monitoring was becoming increasingly popular, particularly among teachers in underdeveloped nations where other learning opportunities were

compromised. Since NELTA (Nepali English Language Teachers' Association) was proactive in organising ELT conferences, workshops, and seminars nationally and regionally, profession-related PD activities such as workshops, seminars, and conferences became a very popular method for PD.

Given the participants addressed in the articles, Guo et al. (2019) indicated that the majority of the researchers suggested that reflection and collaborative learning were the most effective PD methods for assisting language teachers in enhancing pedagogical capacity and skills. In the same sense, Price (2020) documented peers, colleagues, mentors, professional communities of ELTA, and Community of Practice (CoP) fostered their skill sets. Following that, attending, and presenting at the conference increased the participants' confidence, growth and self-efficacy. In the real world of teaching, English as a foreign language teachers' association contributed to successful engagement in PD. As a social activity- professional and cultural mobility via exchanging expertise with colleagues was at the centre of learning, teaching, and institutional contexts. In addition, collaboration and reflection appeared to be hallmarks of productive PD experiences across a wide variety of contexts, be it Western or non-Western, thus this study intended to examine the potentials of collaboration and reflection PD in both Western and non-Western TESOL university contexts along with intercultural dimension.

To sum up, reading scholarly publications, doing research, collaborating, reflective practice, a community of practice, professional associations, ICT and online resources, mentoring, study abroad and international placements, and collegial dialogues were deemed to be beneficial professional development mechanisms.

## **2.9. Critical evaluations (micro-level) and proposed improvements**

In this micro-level critical evaluations, the existing PD conditions are evaluated basically from the aforementioned discussion. Practitioners' and researchers' insights might facilitate bridging the gap between the contemporary and future compelling PD landscapes. Therefore, developing a useful PD model may benefit from having a fundamental understanding of the critical evaluations and improvements offered about the current PD landscape from the perspectives of the main stakeholders, namely TESOL professionals.

Collegial discussions and the collaborative PD model were evaluated as the best PD model due to their informality and friendliness on equal footing (Yurtsever, 2013). According to MacPhail et al. (2019), conversing professionally with co-workers was a rewarding PD activity. Collegial discussions were preferred over institutional upskilling opportunities around



a particular issue because they might empower a positive working culture and drive productivity. In a similar manner, MacPhail et al. (2019) identified that EFL practitioners praised self-directed, constructive PD models for their capacity to include professional agency. University educators from six European countries made a strong case for community of practice as an enriching PD opportunity while supporting the collaborative PD trend.

Within recent research, there was unanimous agreement among teacher educators about the inextricable connection between pedagogical coherence and research (MacPhail et al., 2019). It was believed that actual educational practice should have been empirically validated. Nonetheless, perspectives differed on the status of teacher educators' employment: contractual obligations as devoted researchers and academics, and recruitment from schools and other industry experts tended to favour teaching above research. While the former enjoyed research and benefited from publications, the latter placed a greater emphasis on everyday pedagogy. Consequently, PD that addresses the cognitive and pragmatic needs and beliefs of this varied group of professionals may contribute to the development of a unified practice standard.

Pawan et al. (2003) evaluated three online courses offered to in-service teachers by a large Midwestern university in America and revealed that these distance learning courses were less-interactive, less collaborative and produced fewer critical ideas, and appeared more like a series of monologues when compared to non-virtual experiences. Pawan et al. (2003) offered three measures with a view to closing the interactive teaching-learning disparity between online and on-campus students: first, the lecturers needed to outline discussion points clearly; second, they were required to frame questions to make teaching presence; and finally, number and lengths of posts should be critically created so that they could ensure a more involved and collaborative learning experience. Therein lies crucial inferences for an investigation into online PD strategies, which are becoming more common in the conventional digitalised PD milieus. The opposite arguments favouring online PD platforms are also available. According to Paramastwi (2018),

Web-based tools and e-learning platforms have proliferated, allowing self-directed learning, yet offering collaboration opportunities, and collegial feedback from professional communities, independent of time and distance. A prevalent model of technology based CPD is the Massive Open Online Course (MOOC). (p. 70)

Lin (2015) in South Australian English as an additional language context shared a parallel viewpoint while expressing several advantages of online programmes: freedom, accessibility, variety of materials, and convenience in choosing them in one's own suitable time and across locations. Participating teachers also mentioned that online PD saved their time

and money. It is possible that these later findings explain the rise in popularity of digital PD platforms and imply that technological evolutions have improved the PD choices and experiences of professionals over time; however, further research is required.

Modern literature frequently criticises the traditional training approach to professional advancement. Wichadee (2012) contended that numerous Thai university EFL instructors voiced dissatisfaction with the training or seminars' content since it did not meet their needs or interests, yet they were nevertheless required to attend those events owing to their faculty responsibilities. Similar concerns about one-shot teacher training were found by Dikilitas and Yayli (2018), who cited the restricted opportunities for interaction in the training paradigm as a drawback.

Sadeghi and Richards (2021) raised objections to external expert-led workshops and seminars. Outside guest speakers, according to teachers, lacked contextual understanding and a pragmatic grasp of day-to-day challenges. Instead of lecturing, presenters should demonstrate practical teaching models and how to put their theories into practice in a real-world setting with live students. Nevertheless, there were arguments favouring traditional approaches to professional progress were also observed. Yurtsever (2013) found that 91 in-service English language professionals from Turkish universities preferred conventional one-shot PD methods. The survey at Akdeniz university and other state universities revealed that the training model was still necessary to the participants because EFL professionals gained confidence through their participation in training platforms.

The mentoring model of PD is marginally more popular compared to the training model (Yurtsever, 2013). Due to the fact that the EFL professionals had greater freedom while working with a mentor, the mentoring model was evaluated positively. Mentoring, according to MacPhail et al. (2019), provided for the exploration of fruitful professional growth avenues. On the other side, several respondents noted that working with a mentor was constrained when the mentor served as an authority figure. Despite its strength as a PD mechanism, Nepali EFL professionals complained about limited mentoring opportunities (Joshi et al., 2018). This finding may have ramifications for various non-Western educational environments, highlighting the necessity for a new study describing the current PD condition.

TESOL professionals mostly prioritised their agency and the value of the educational atmosphere. Indeed, academics wished to have a say in the decisions made for their PD (Utami & Prestridge, 2018; Wichadee, 2012). The most crucial element in teachers' PD, according to Dikilitas and Yayli (2018), was a self-directed PD framework that was intensely engaging for participants and could provide a higher level of relevance to pedagogical issues. MacPhail et

al. (2019) further emphasised the need of having an effective PD process in place that was linked to individual requirements and the changing circumstances. Both native and non-native instructors in the UAE highlighted in the McChesney and Aldridge (2021) study that appropriate PD should be needs-based, contextually suitable, and relevant to a broader cultural context. Teachers acknowledged that they valued their professional autonomy as well as the opportunity to consult with administrators when planning their PD events. When this was not the case, they tended to reject professional innovations' ideas and approaches.

In addition, Topkaya and Celik (2016) suggested that all PD platforms, regardless of career stage, should have a direct connection to teaching situations, boosting active participation in content and pedagogy. Any PD experience must be worthwhile for academic staff's time investment; they should see value in gaining product knowledge that will assist them in realising their educational objectives. Finally, Guo et al. (2019) encouraged various stakeholders to create a culture of constructive monitoring that included how language teachers adapted to a specific pedagogical context, how their professional training and learning enriched their capacity to execute pedagogical tasks, and how they responded cognitively and emotionally to a new change.

Briefly, traditional PD strategies, such as online resources for being less participative for providing less critical ideas in a range of settings, were generally viewed poorly by EFL practitioners and educators. Improvements to make the experience more interactive and collaborative were suggested. Traditional and one-time training formats were unfavourably evaluated for not being aligned with professionals' requirements and interests. External expert-led workshops and seminars were also criticised by participants for their lack of contextual awareness and practical understanding of day-to-day challenges. They considered that, in addition to lecturing, practical demonstrations of instructional models were required. The majority of researchers thought mentoring was a worthwhile PD strategy, but a minority were sceptical when mentors appeared authoritative rather than friendly and cooperative.

Regardless of career status, participants universally agreed that PD should be needs-based, contextually appropriate, and relevant to a broader cultural context, and should have a direct connection to teaching circumstances. They also stressed the need for PD in light of individual requirements and changing circumstances, as well as supplementing their time. Furthermore, constructive monitoring was thought to have the potential to bring about significant changes in the PD arena in terms of how language teachers adapted to a specific pedagogical situation, how their professional training and learning increased their competence in pedagogical tasks, and how they responded cognitively and emotionally to a new shift.

## 2.10. Intercultural practice

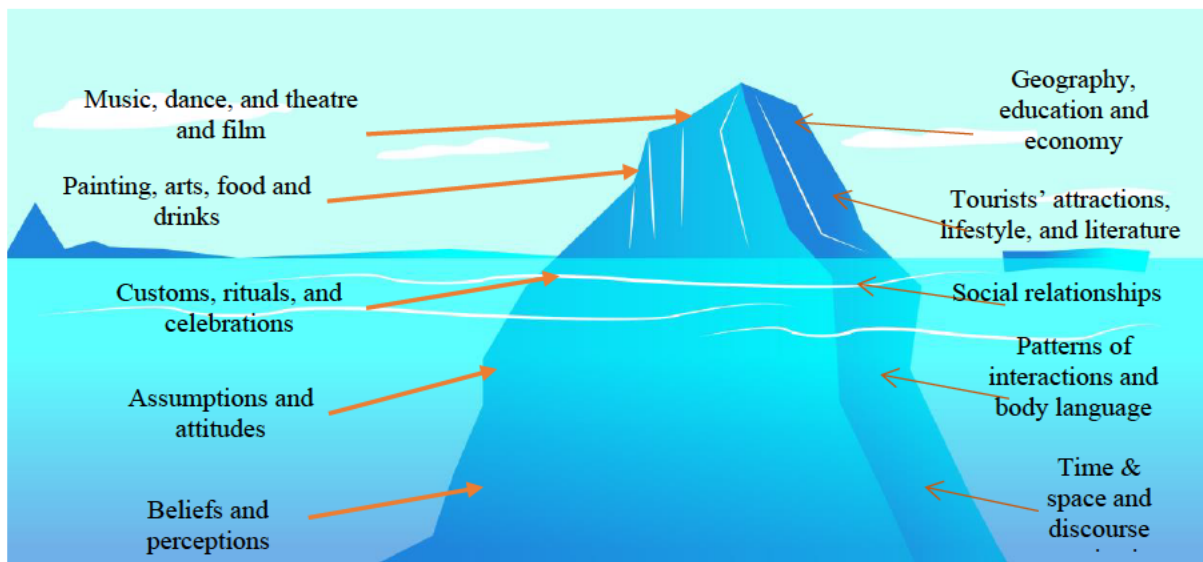
Research concerning the intercultural practice of in-service TESOL professionals in myriad contexts (Belgium, Bulgaria, Greece, Mexico, Poland, Spain, Sweden, China, USA, UK, France, Indonesia, Vietnam, Turkey, Columbia, and Iran) was dominated by one recurring theme representing that teachers were aware of IC and the essential benefits it could offer in a language classroom; nevertheless, the intercultural paradigm did not match their actual classroom praxis (Eken, 2015; Gandana & Parr, 2013; Karabinar & Guler, 2013; Safa & Tofighi, 2021; Sercu, 2006; Chen & Li, 2011; Tian, 2016; Tran & Dang, 2014; Vo, 2017; Young & Sachdev, 2011). Unfortunately, these studies captured teachers' unwillingness, an incongruity between their beliefs and what they reported as significant, as well as their lack of expertise and training as the primary factors impeding intercultural praxis. Sercu (2006) enlarged this idea and observed that teachers with good attitudes appeared to embed intercultural focus into their practice, while teachers who did not share positive attitudes avoided adopting the dynamics of intercultural paradigms. Indeed, EFL teachers prioritised traditional structural input over intercultural schema in their language instruction.

While the above studies pointed out teachers' attitudes, shallow knowledge coupled with limited practical skills hindered intercultural communication practice, Alaei and Nasrati (2018) found that Iranian EFL instructors had positive attitudes, awareness, and abilities with regard to interculturality. In line with the previous research findings, Alaei and Nasrati also observed that instructors' lack of interaction confidence and cultural wisdom blurred their intercultural focus, which called into doubt the logical foundation of Iranian teachers' better intercultural awareness and skills.

Concerning intercultural challenges, participants in multiple studies deemed intercultural programmes to be impacted adversely in their teaching-learning processes because of no testing requirement (Chen & Li, 2011; Tran & Dang, 2014; Young & Sachdev, 2011) and their obligation to follow institutional lesson packs (Karabinar & Guler, 2013; Safa & Tofighi, 2021; Chen & Li, 2011). Another issue jeopardising the development of IC was transmitting surface cultural information since engaging learners in cognitive, and cultural activities took relatively less time than trying to nourish intercultural perspectives among them (Olaya & Rodríguez, 2013; Rodríguez, 2015; Tian, 2016; Tran & Dang, 2014; Vo, 2017).

With regard to cultural topics, researchers took a distinctive approach towards the surface and deep cultural factors (Alvarez, 2020; Lee, 2012; Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013; Rodríguez, 2015). These scholars argued that superficial cultural topics (music, film, weather,

food, tourist attractions etc. in Figure 2.3) and deep cultural topics (individual values, beliefs, social interactions and relationships, traditional customs etc. in Figure 2.3) served distinct functions in the intercultural paradigms. Beginning with cultural similarities and differences, TESOL professionals could use surface cultural components to bring clarity, arouse curiosity, and instil interest (Alvarez, 2020, p. 85) before progressing to more critical religious, controversial, and susceptible issues. Olaya and Rodríguez (2013), and Alvarez (2020) expanded that a superficial emphasis on cultural similarities and differences might lead to reinforcing stereotypes rather than fostering intercultural understanding among individuals. Active attempts to reduce ethnocentrism and the opportunities for learners to become adaptive, tolerant, unprejudiced, and appreciative of persons of varied cultural, religious, and linguistic origins revealed the more profound components of intercultural competence.



**Figure 2.3: Surface and deep cultural elements for intercultural paradigms. The researcher constructed this figure from a review of the pertinent literature.**

Some EFL teachers even stated their scepticism towards interculturality as the primary objective of EFL/ESL and opined that uninterested learners would not devote themselves to the pursuit of intercultural intelligence (Eken, 2015; Sercu, 2006; Chen & Li, 2011; Young & Sachdev, 2011). Moreover, the key factors preventing their cultivation of intercultural dimension into English language instruction involved instructional resources, syllabus (Safa & Tofghi, 2021; Chen & Li, 2011; Vo, 2017), lack of institutional support, textbooks, instructional activities (Safa & Tofghi, 2021; Young & Sachdev, 2011; Vo, 2017), curriculum, overcrowded classes (Eken, 2015; Vo, 2017) time limitation, and risk of stereotyping (Karabinar & Guler, 2013; Sercu, 2006; Vo, 2017).

Surprisingly in Western countries' contexts, closely comparable and parallel findings evidenced intercultural practice discourse. Bickley et al. (2014) suggested that Canadian ESL practitioners possessed the required knowledge, confidence, and experience, and they were well-conversant with the dynamics of IC. However, when it came to the practical side of things, Canadian teachers admitted to having a lack of practice skills. The situation was not dire, because a vast majority of EFL practitioners were observed to be incorporating intercultural schema in their English lessons. Due to sporadic support from second language curricula, the practice phases were random and incidental. Nevertheless, other difficulties resonated in non-Western milieus, entailing time limitation, restricted access to current resources, and opportunities for professional advancements. Douglas and Rosvold (2018) evidenced miscommunication between professionals and learners due to teachers' ethnocentric views. Similarly, practitioners of English for academic purposes viewed acculturation as a curriculum goal in the host culture resting on the shoulder of students from diverse cultures. In fact, some academic staff also discovered that promoting native-speakerism and reinforcing cultural distinctions hinders intercultural dialogue in various contexts.

Intercultural language training, on the other hand, was deemed advantageous by the participants in Bickley et al. (2014) because the facility improved learners' meaningful communication skills and enabled them to cope positively with cultural shock. In the line of this discussion, two additional Canadian researchers, Douglas and Rosvold (2018) in their 20-year synthesis review (1996-2016), contributed that a higher level of student satisfaction and increased ICC promoted learners' stronger academic achievement.

Concerning Australia's obligation to enact empowering global citizenship education, Probert (2015) discussed a noteworthy project sponsored by the Australian Learning and Teaching Council (ALTC) that produced a "map" of university statements pertaining to graduate attributes. While they nearly always contained practical, disciplines- or work-related abilities, such as communication and coordination, most universities had adopted what the project's authors referred to as 'enabling' qualities, which could be conceived of as more generic inclinations. For instance, the initiative highlighted 'global citizenship' as a broadly shared characteristic that encompassed both the development of 'global viewpoints' and the perception of domestic/overseas as social responsibility. Twenty-two universities contained a proclamation on societal responsibility, albeit the majority of these declarations focused on attitudes rather than obligations to act.

Similarly, in the policy assessment to facilitate the integration of the intercultural domain in language instruction, Liyanage et al. (2016) highlighted a subpar condition of the

Australian intercultural practice phenomena. Concerns about intercultural education were expressed by teacher educators and other related groups, who emphasised the extensive integration of PD courses connected with theory and practice discourses. According to Liyanage et al. (2016),

Australian and international research findings suggest that Australia is lagging behind in comparison to other countries such as the United States, Canada, and South Africa, as well as countries in South America and Asia. (p. 12)

Likewise, Ronai and Lammervo (2017) addressed Australian professionals' cultural stereotyping in their multicultural TESOL classes. Indeed, teachers often attributed and aligned learners' cultural profiles with national or regional culture. Academics also labelled their higher education students with respect to their religion, native language, and ethnicity. Moreover, data revealed that native language participants projected their image as culturally superior in terms of their culturally challenging ESL student counterparts: Finally, Australian academics as participants reinforced the controversial demeaning attitude towards learners by articulating teachers' need to culturally "civilise" students substantiating testimony of colonialist perspectives.

Oranje and Smith (2018) demonstrated a misalignment between English language teachers' attitudes and practice among New Zealand practitioners, corroborating prior findings in international study contexts focusing on Asian countries. The studies discovered that English language teachers spent 80% of their time teaching traditional structural elements. The main barriers to implementing intercultural paradigms were time, curriculum, and teachers' mindsets.

While King and Bailey's (2021) research was not particularly about intercultural practice, but rather on international students' experience in one of the largest US universities, that served a huge number of overseas students. Nevertheless, their findings revealed notable aspects of the interculturality of that university's academics and the attitude of American students towards international students. All four participants observed that students tended to cluster according to their cultural and linguistic origins in the classroom. In relation to American students' attitudes towards overseas students, King and Bailey (2021) perceived:

...US students do not always respect them in the classroom or understand their challenges; in fact, US students seem to judge international students who may not speak English as well as their native-speaking classmates, considering language to be an indicator of intelligence. (p. 283)

This was in contrast to an ideal scenario where domestic and overseas students should be seated in groups together. Local students should have been practising a liberal and unorthodox mindset, enabling them to respect and cooperate with overseas students. Therefore, research and training in IC are important as the world becomes “smaller” and technology permits us to engage with professionals across the world. Cultural sensitivity and intercultural understanding are essential success skills. Training in IC must benefit US and international students, and international students must have the autonomy to offer their perspectives (p. 279). Finally, they stated that faculty members were the key to attracting international students and enhancing their classroom experiences and that universities should support their good efforts- this finding has a practical implication for the current research.

Amidst all the unsuccessful endeavours of academics’ intercultural praxis, Alvarez (2020) attempted to show the productive development of IC. Through participation in a study group, the research aimed to provide a means for teachers to collectively create their understanding of ICC. Following a bottom-up analysis, this qualitative study revealed that changes occurred in the participants’ perspectives of culture, cross-cultural intelligence, intercultural attitude, and ability.

At the beginning of Alvarez’s (2020) research, nonetheless, the participants had conflicting attitudes towards the culture that stemmed from their own perceptions of cultural knowledge as a collection of artefacts to be preserved and transmitted to students. Culture as a mere concept only caused instructors to retain a great amount of factual material without any following link or result; therefore, it did not represent a substantial change in them as individuals or as teachers. As the sessions progressed, instructors realised culture, from an intercultural perspective, necessitated a modification of the teacher’s beliefs, attitudes, and values culminating in a complete redefinition of culture and its function in language education. Thus, their cultural conceptualisation shifted from a factual, nonspecific, entertaining, subservient to linguistic purposes, and baseless concept to acknowledging it as a logical and critical component of their language pedagogy.

To summarise, in several ways, the intercultural practice phenomena of TESOL professionals are akin to and parallel findings observed in both Western and non-Western countries. Teachers’ eagerness to practice is a regular finding, but they do not include the intercultural domain in their instruction. They instead employ classic structural pedagogy. The biggest issues hindering the development of IC are teachers’ lack of expertise and PD provisions.



Instructional resources, syllabus, lack of institutional support, no testing requirement, following institutional lesson packs, textbooks, instructional activities, curriculum, overcrowded classes, uninterested learners, time constraints, and risk of stereotyping are all universal challenges impeding intercultural paradigms in both native and non-native educational environments. Nonetheless, some unique challenges were identified in Western universities, including miscommunication due to ethnocentrism, native-speakerism, reinforcing cultural distinctions, acculturation as a curriculum goal, teachers frequently attributed and linked learners' cultural profiles with national or regional culture, their image as culturally superior in comparison to their culturally problematic student counterparts, colonialist perspectives, and so on. According to Salih and Omar (2021),

After all, building the learners' intercultural competence is not the sole responsibility of teachers or incorporating some in-class pedagogical practices. Instead, it is the fruit of inclusive, collaborative endeavours that involve an indispensable role for the academic institution. (p. 194)

This research suggests starting from the ground up to close the reported gap in the literature. To ensure improved learning opportunities at work, it draws on current and scientifically supported PD milieus. Their PD needs should be satisfied, and their evaluations and suggested improvements ought to be taken seriously with a view to having a meaningful PD experience in place. Furthermore, a coordinated effort is necessary to bring about significant change in the existing PD practice.

## 2.11. Critical evaluations (meso-level) of existing literature on interculturality

This section may benefit from the meso-level critical appraisals of existing literature on intercultural paradigms. In the meso-level evaluations, the researcher has selected some articles on intercultural practice given the central role interculturality plays in the current study. In addition to the general literature review criteria discussed in *Section 2.1* of the literature review methodology, a few additional screening parameters are used to select the articles for this specific purpose.

The criteria include international research (preferably), intercultural praxis aspect, Western and non-Western contexts, researchers' fame relative to the small number of articles found, their impact, and their relative recency. Although these parameters may be compromised in the case of landmark publications. Even so, an active endeavour is delegated to incorporate contextual varieties within each broad Western and non-Western binary. According to the

inclusion criteria, most adult and tertiary ESL language teachers' Western and intercultural beliefs and practices are depicted in five articles, while four articles depict non-Western settings.

Using Byram's theoretical framework, Sercu (2006) investigated foreign language teachers' beliefs and intercultural paradigms. This is a seminal contribution to intercultural literature and one of her landmark works. Through this international research conducted predominantly in Europe (Belgium, Bulgaria, Greece, Mexico, Poland, Spain, and Sweden), she demonstrated that teachers' ongoing engagement with intercultural paradigms might be below average. The views and practices of educators were examined using an online survey with eleven sections comprising mostly closed and one open question. Using purposeful sampling, she recruited 424 teachers from these seven countries who completed the questionnaire in approximately one hour. Quantitative data were managed by using inferential statistics, whereas qualitative data were processed manually.

The findings from Sercu (2006) showed that teachers considered themselves sufficiently familiar with foreign cultures, and aware of students' attitudes. Participants believed that intercultural fluency was important, however, there was a mismatch between their beliefs and practice. Teachers' knowledge fell short of expectations. The results indicated that instructors perceived themselves to be adequately conversant with other cultures and sensitive to the perspectives of students. Participants perceived IC to be crucial, but their beliefs and actions did not align. Other reasons for the dearth of knowledge regarding the target culture and skills to effectively engage students, time, resources, and students' low motivation for cultural learning. Insufficient knowledge of the target culture, lack of time and resources, and a lack of motivation for culture learning are additional challenges.

Sercu was among the first scholars to note that there was an incongruity between instructors' beliefs and practices. Another strength of this study might be that several intercultural researchers adapted her survey instrument (Atay et al., 2009; Kilic, 2013; Oranje & Smith, 2018). Nonetheless, she could have provided a concise explanation of the reliability and validity procedures, as well as the time allocated for completing the questionnaire. Additional information about the qualitative open questionnaire data, such as the number of responses and the specifics of the qualitative data drawn by one open question. To compare self-reports of intercultural praxis and provide illustrative value to quantitative findings, she might have included at least one participant from each participating country for qualitative interviews or narrative inquiry. This would have allowed her to compare the self-reports of the

participants with the qualitative research outcomes, as she intended to propel teachers' PD which would render them capable of engaging in IC.

Young and Sachdev (2011) undertook one of the research projects exploring linguistic instructors' viewpoints regarding the ICC. The primary emphasis was on Byram's language-pedagogical model of ICC. The study utilised multiple methodologies, including questionnaires, focus groups, and diaries. Seventeen instructors in the United States, the United Kingdom, and France maintained diaries for two weeks to document classroom instances that affected the practicality of Byram's ICC model. Following that, the teachers participated in focus group discussions. They uncovered a correlation between ICC and the characteristics of successful language learners and teachers.

More than fifty per cent of those who participated in the focus groups indicated that multiple ICC teaching opportunities occurred at least twice per day. Furthermore, 105 individuals completed a written questionnaire regarding their ICC beliefs and practices. The researchers observed a discrepancy between the professed ICC opinions and their instructional goals. In general, the instructors viewed an intercultural approach to language instruction as suitable and potentially advantageous; however, they appeared unprepared or hesitant to implement such a strategy in their classes. They noted a lack of student interest, curriculum support, appropriate instructional materials, ICC assessment materials, and confidence in approaching topics that were challenging.

This study's advantages are the instructors' favourable ICC perceptions of teachers and the optimal correlation between ICC and students' language acquisition. The lack of information about the reliability and validity procedures and the description of data collection instruments may be disadvantages. Yet another disadvantage may be the discovery of related obstacles for which participants did not identify their current PD as a barrier.

Bickley et al. (2014) examined Canadian ESL instructors' intercultural beliefs and practices. They recruited 70 ESL teachers in Canada through the Alberta TESOL association. Convenience sampling facilitated the selection of participants for this quantitative study. The Survey Monkey questionnaire comprised 44 items, and descriptive statistics were used to administer the data collected through this instrument. The responses to open-ended queries were categorised and quantified. The validity and dependability of the research instrument were ensured through expert review and pilot techniques.

The classroom practices of ESL instructors suggested that intercultural awareness was approached inconsistently, and ICC was not developed systematically. According to the findings, there was a demand for improved teacher education, the development of suitable

resources, and research into the efficient educational advancement of ICC in foreign language classrooms. Just over half of the participants surveyed had undergone intercultural communication-specific training. The results of the survey indicated that when addressing intercultural issues in the classroom, instructors relied heavily on knowledge gained through personal experience.

There are a few advantages of this study as this research suggested their heavy reliance on their own PD for IC praxis and Canadian ESL teachers' interculturality. The drawback may be that the teachers' intercultural paradigms may have been investigated through qualitative tools including interviews, narrative inquiry, and focus group discussion as there was no other source of data to either corroborate or disagree with quantitative results.

Ronai and Lammervo (2017) interviewed six Australian TESOL instructors to understand the nature and breadth of the cultural stereotypes that TESOL teachers employed in the classroom. On average, these interviews lasted one hour and were analysed using NVivo. Holliday's (2005) conceptualisation of Culturism served as a theoretical foundation. An in-depth qualitative analysis of the data revealed that instructors typically categorised students based on their national or regional culture and maintained that cultural heritage significantly influenced student learning behaviour, leading to the creation of several stereotypes.

Nationality was frequently employed to characterise the cultural background of students. Thus, the Chinese student was considered culturally Chinese, whereas the Brazilian student was considered culturally Brazilian. Other broad categories were used to describe international students, such as Southeast Asian (Indonesian and Malaysian) versus East Asian (Japanese and Korean) cultures. On occasion, participants positioned national culture within a regional culture. One participant suggested that a student's native language was a more reliable measure of their cultural identity than national culture. These seemingly harmless cultural and ethnic classifications were just as harmful as locating a person's cultural background within a country's national or local context since they presumed a uniformity of a group of individuals who might or might not share traditions or languages, in addition to their geographical location.

The possible repercussions of these findings, as explicated by the participants, made a compelling case for teacher education that is fundamental to, rather than perpetuating, learners' cultural preconceptions, and for teaching that focuses on developing competencies (e.g., critical thinking skills) for all students, regardless of their actual or perceived socioeconomic status. This research might lack representative value as only six TESOL teachers participated in the semi-structured interviews and no large-scale survey was conducted to broaden the scope of the study.

Oranje and Smith (2018) explored the intercultural beliefs and practices of adult language teachers in New Zealand. Convenience sampling was used to recruit 76 instructors who responded to the questionnaire, which included both open- and closed-response questions; data were largely managed quantitatively. Cronbach's alpha measured the instruments' reliability.

The findings demonstrated that most teachers devoted most of their time to educating about languages rather than culture. The findings of this item indicate that marked segmentation is prevalent between language and culture. Cultural knowledge was thought to be acquired primarily through instructor propagation or by accident, and culture was ranked among the minimum important curricular domains.

As their international counterparts did in Sercu et al. (2005), the New Zealand teachers displayed a misalignment between their allegedly advanced mental processes and their more customary practises. Regarding PD, instructors were expected to develop themselves independently, decipher inconsistency in educational materials, and make up for training deficiencies. This research suggested that the perceived disparity between teachers' cognitions and their conventional practices exemplified the cognitive and functional divides that teachers should reconcile.

The benefit of this study is that Oranje and Smith (2018) extend the research of Sercu et al. (2005) by incorporating the reality of intercultural praxis in the New Zealand context. The apparent weakness may be that almost no effort has been made to advance the knowledge base created by Sercu et al. (2005) and Sercu (2006). If qualitative data were used to supplement quantitative findings by investigating classroom practises, it would have been possible to determine in greater detail the reasons for this discrepancy and the way forwards from the participants' perspectives.

Kilic (2013) examined Turkish tertiary EFL lecturers' perceptions and practices of IC. The researcher contacted 368 TESOL academics working at 12 Turkish universities. The survey was derived from the seminal research conducted by Sercu et al. in 2005. This investigation's data came from a variety of sources, including a questionnaire and a rating scale. The unprocessed data were subsequently managed using SPSS.v.15. Cronbach's Alpha analysis was used to determine the measures' reliability, and 105 lecturers were used to pilot the questionnaire.

The findings indicate that English lecturers did not view culture acquisition as one of the primary objectives of English language instruction, but rather emphasised the behavioural aspect of culture instruction. Despite this, English academics supported intercultural language

instruction and claimed to comprehend international cultures sufficiently. Teachers attempted to teach language students grammatical and general abilities. They believed but were uncertain and confused as to when to initiate intercultural discussions and analyse deeper aspects of cultural norms. Nevertheless, instructors reported being knowledgeable about diverse cultures. A dearth of pilot descriptions exists.

Tran and Dang (2014) conducted their research at a foreign language centre in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam, using a mixed-method framework. The selection of 38 ELT instructors was based on a convenience sample. A questionnaire, a semi-structured interview, and classroom observation were used to collect data. Cronbach Alpha assisted in determining the dependability of the survey data. In order to cross-check the information provided in the questionnaire, eight questions were developed for the semi-structured interview based on the research questions. There were nine EL instructors interviewed, and each interview lasted between ten and twelve minutes. Quantitative and qualitative data were arranged through descriptive statistics and thematic analysis.

The results indicated that EFL teachers had positive attitudes towards culture instruction and believed it played an essential role in ELT. However, there was an incongruity between how EFL instructors defined the goals of culture instruction and their actual classroom practices. In addition, there was a discrepancy between quantitative and qualitative findings regarding language pedagogy goals that emphasised interculturality. Interview-derived qualitative data indicated that the majority of respondents supported the cognitive and skill-based objectives of culture education. Teachers appeared to have favoured conveying cultural knowledge over engaging students in their development of IC.

This might imply that EFL teachers' deficiencies in an understanding of cultural instruction in ELT, resulting in a lack of clarity regarding the objectives of cultural instruction in their ELT. This result might be attributed to the fact that transmitting cultural information to learners does not require as much time as developing cultural competencies or fostering cultural attitudes among learners. A further potential reason might be that EFL instructors prioritised activities they had expertise. In addition, the survey's thirty-seven closed-ended questions revealed that teachers lacked knowledge regarding why they should integrate IC, for what objectives, and with what benefits.

Chen and Li (2011) conducted a mixed-methods study at a Chinese vocational higher education institution. A simple random sample was utilised to interview 10 English teachers and 24 EFL learners, in addition to the 231 students and 32 English teachers who responded to

a questionnaire. The researchers analysed and compared participant responses using descriptive statistical methods.

Contradictory perspectives between EFL instructors and students were highlighted by the study's findings. Teachers argued that it was difficult for EFL students to comprehend English words and basic grammar and structure. Hence, it was impractical for EFL students to devote sufficient time to achieving IC. EFL instructors dedicated little attention to the development of their students' ICC, and EFL students had no interest in ICC. Some of the participating instructors explicitly stated that IC was neither a part of the syllabus nor the examination system, so they were not convinced that this component was necessary for them to offer instruction. Additionally, they believed that students could gain knowledge by means of self-study. The majority of learners learn English to obtain employment as opposed to communicating with foreigners.

In contrast, students argued that the pedagogical strategies and resources employed by teachers were inadequate to satisfy their intercultural learning requirements. Numerous instructors lacked knowledge of foreign cultures and consequently were unable to provide detailed guidance for the improvement of EFL learners' IC. EFL students also believed they had difficulty communicating with non-native speakers due to a lack of IC atmosphere, self-confidence, courage, and dread of making mistakes. Despite this, EFL students displayed a positive attitude towards intercultural education. They maintained that cultural aspects were more interesting than linguistic knowledge and were eager to improve their IC. Instead of self-study, they desired to cultivate their ICC through culturally distinct foreign education.

Teachers, their instructional materials, existing curricula, and assessment procedures may be the hindrances in the development of the ICC of Chinese EFL learners in higher vocational colleges. The students' perspectives are a benefit of this investigation. Another advantage may be the instructors' perspectives on the current curriculum and testing procedures. One of the disadvantages may be the insufficient description of the data collection instruments.

In contrast to many of the previously discussed studies, Alvarez (2020) investigated the IC beliefs and practises of Colombian in-service EFL instructors through a qualitative investigation involving multiple data generation instruments, including recordings, interviews, and reflective logs. Through participation in a collaborative study group, the research intended to provide a means for teachers to collectively construct their awareness of ICC. Participants' perspectives on culture, intercultural knowledge, intercultural stance, and comprehension of ICC changed as a result of the collaborative study. In conclusion, collaborative study groups

manifested as a useful instrument for teachers' PD, allowing individuals to reconfigure their own initial opinions and presumptions, thus promoting professional and practical change.

The strengths of this study may be that it extended the existing body of knowledge by investigating activities that may alter the IC practises of EFL instructors. This study also highlights the importance of qualitative research with several tools in investigating the beliefs and practices of EFL instructors. The key finding revealed that appropriate PD has the potential to bring about a transformation in the way that EFL and TESOL teachers presently approach IC. It is possible that the small number of participants (three) prevented a generalisable conclusion from being reached.

On the whole, there are some common perceptions that the key findings regarding TESOL teachers appeared to be repetitive. There seemed to be a disparity between the cognitive beliefs and functional practises of instructors. Instead of significantly expanding the knowledge base, the researchers who adapted Secru's questionnaire tended to replicate the research in various contexts (Kilic, 2013; Oranje & Smith, 2018). Other issues include omitting the description of reliability and validity procedures, tool specifications, and participant participation time allocations. The most influential finding may be the recognition of TESOL teachers' lack of access to sustainable and effective PD enabling them to integrate IC into their instructions. As such, this study attempted to create a contemporary PD status available for Australian and Bangladeshi TESOL academics advancing their intercultural paradigms.

From a methodological standpoint, multi-modal studies (Tran & Dang, 2014; Young & Sachdev, 2011) with multiple qualitative instruments (Alvarez, 2020; Ronai & Lammervo, 2017) appeared to generate strong results and open avenues for data triangulation with respect to TESOL academics' intercultural paradigms. This led to gaining comparative insights from various data sources. Obtaining comparative perspectives of divergent viewpoints from various stakeholders might result in more intriguing findings (Chen & Li, 2011; Tran & Dang, 2014; Young & Sachdev, 2011). Secru (2006), Bickley (2014), Ronai and Lammervo (2017), and Alvarez (2020) employed purposeful and convenience sampling to gain an insight into TESOL teachers' intercultural praxis. The majority of these nine studies' researchers utilised SPSS and thematic analysis to manage unprocessed data. Hence, this current investigation intended to employ a multi-modal paradigm in that academics and administrators as research respondents aimed to be recruited through purposive and convenience sampling and SPSS and NVivo to process data. Practitioners' and researchers' insights might facilitate bridging the gap between the contemporary and future compelling PD landscapes. Therefore, the development of a useful PD model could benefit from a fundamental understanding of the critical evaluations and



proposed improvements regarding the current landscape of PD fostering intercultural praxis from the perspectives of the key stakeholders, namely TESOL professionals.

## 2.12. Summary

This chapter critically assesses the currently available research with an aim to establish a current state of knowledge on the PD of TESOL academics and their intercultural practices. The theoretical foundation for the major themes that support the PD phenomenon among TESOL academic staff globally is then described. As additional frameworks for analysis, conceptual development, and the construction of a novel, effective PD model, it also considers social constructivism, intercultural theory, and reflective practice. The conceptualisations of these theoretical lenses narrow gradually from broad principles to circumstances that are relevant to this study, such as social contexts and an intercultural educational paradigm that is need-based, collaborative, and reflective.

The key components of this study's questions are pertaining to PD provisions and needs, professional advancement, and intercultural practices of TESOL professionals. They are critically analysed with an aim to provide an existing knowledge base on which the current study may be supported. Surprisingly, none of the literature reviewed—let alone a comparative study like this research—dealt with the professional development provisions and needs of TESOL academic staff or/and PD for academic progress, or/and intercultural practice in Australian and/or Bangladeshi contexts. A few studies criticising the intercultural policy and practice contexts of TESOL academic staff have been found in Australian contexts, but there have been no empirical studies that show interculturality being incorporated and the practice repertoire in intercultural dimensions. Accordingly, there is a sizable gap in the mainstream TESOL and intercultural literature, which this study intends to bridge.

Regarding methodological paradigms, the majority of empirical investigations studied in this chapter employed either quantitative (Celik et al., 2013; Coryell et al., 2021; Hiatt & Fairbairn, 2018; Macalister, 2018; Oranje & Smith, 2018; Sercu, 2006; Wichadee, 2012) or qualitative (Dikilitas & Yayli, 2018; Eken, 2015; Karabinar & Guler, 2013; Kiely & Davis, 2010; Klink et al., 2017; MacPhail et al., 2019; Sadeghi & Richards, 2021; Chen & Li, 2011; Tavakoli, 2015; Ronai & Lammervo, 2017) methodological frameworks with a few exceptions that used mixed-methods (Hiatt & Fairbairn, 2018; Kabilan et al., 2011; Young & Sachdev, 2011) research. Again, the most mixed-methods study included TESOL teachers in both questionnaires and semi-structured interviews (Alaei & Nosrati, 2018; Lee & Mori, 2018;

Tran& Dang, 2014; Vo, 2017) or open and close questions (Hazaea, 2019; Joshi et al., 2018; McChesney & Aldridge, 2021; Price, 2020).

This study employed a multi-modal methodological framework with purposive and convenience sampling, drawing lessons from the previously mentioned studies and addressing the methodological gaps in the pertinent literature. Additionally, it incorporated three different data collection tools, including a questionnaire survey, semi-structured interviews, and oral narratives. However, the participants for semi-structured interviews are the administrators opening up the opportunities for data triangulations, an innovative research technique that compares two different stakeholders' perspectives and across various data sources with a view to reaching the truth-value of the phenomena under investigation. It, therefore, aims to contribute to methodological frameworks from which future researchers in a related field may benefit. The details of the research methodology are outlined in the next Chapter Three

## CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

### 3.0. Introduction

This chapter includes a detailed discussion of the research paradigm the present study hinges on. It begins by outlining the research design before going into details about the participants, sampling, and methods with clear descriptions of each data collection tool focusing on their strengths, weaknesses, and steps involved in data interpretation. It draws a clear roadmap on the investigation process of scientifically answering the overarching research question. At the same time, it highlights the rationales behind employing the underpinning methodological framework and all its pivotal components. It provides a detailed description of the validity and reliability of this research, as well as expert opinion, piloting, reliability testing, and member verification as constituting elements. Finally, ethical considerations emphasise a systematic way to contact participating universities, research participants, and other pertinent constructs. The following flow-chart (Figure 3.1) displays the methodological paradigm employed in this study.

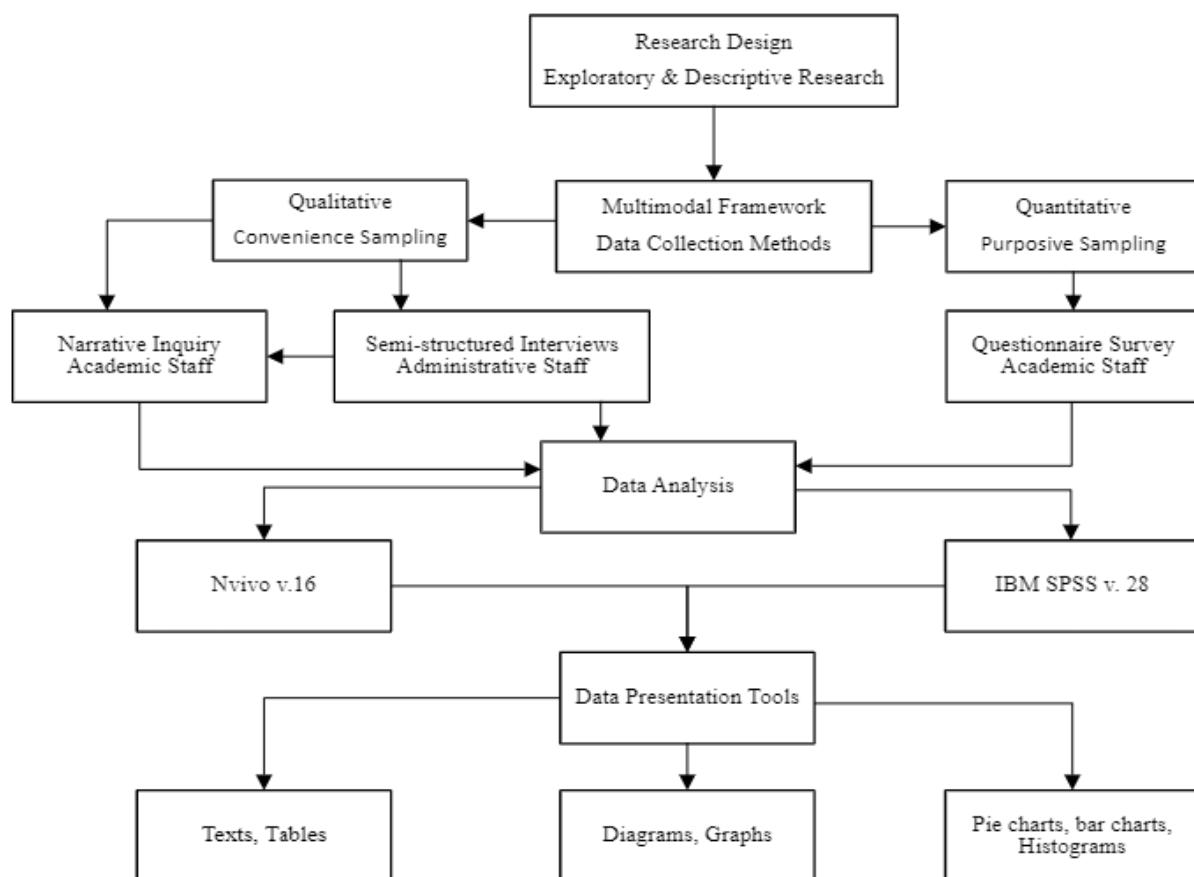


Figure 3.1: Methodological framework implemented in this study.

### 3.1. Research design

As shown in Figure 3.1, this research is both exploratory and descriptive in nature. The study employs a sequential multi-modal research framework for collecting empirical data. Quantitative data will explore and suggest areas needing deeper attention and precede the qualitative data, which will explain the areas suggested to answer research questions (Cohen et al., 2017, p. 47). This mixed-methods approach is supported by multiple arguments. Investigating the present PD procedures and intercultural praxis of TESOL academics and characterising the resultant numerous internal and external comparison outcomes is – “a complex research arena to justify a comprehensive research design” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 164). Quantitative data, therefore, establish patterns or sets of inter-relationships, as well as similarities and dissimilarities between the selected countries. These were examined and used to further investigation using qualitative data. Hence, the key purpose of qualitative data in this study is to help the researcher obtain the truth value of the quantitative findings through divergences and convergences across various data sources. In addition, qualitative data adds not only a deeper dimension to the research topics (by agreeing or disagreeing) but also many new angles and perspectives which may not possibly be found without a sequential multi-modal paradigm. The findings of McKim (2017) reflected the value of mixed methods research:

...as a methodology’s ability to make sense of the world, help readers better understand the study, increase confidence in findings, improve accuracy, and completeness, and inform and contribute to overall validity. (p. 203)

Arguably, the fundamental strengths of multi-modal study lie in multiple possible interpretations of the data from a wide range of perspectives and thereby minimising the shortcomings of either quantitative or qualitative data. However, Almeida (2018) particularly underlined the drawbacks associated with a sequential multi-modal framework due to the time and resources required for individual data gathering and the complexity of seeking an innovative knowledge base. While engaged in data collection and organisation, the researcher found mixed methods as a robust framework eliciting rich quantitative and releasing enormous possibilities in managing and comparing them.

Conversely, dimensions of problems stemmed from the longer time taken in research designing, piloting, data generation, and management phases. With sequential mixed-methods research, data generation involves segregated and distinct step-by-step procedures alongside preliminary data analysis that incorporates insight gleaned from the preceding data collection

framework to drive the subsequent data collection structure (for instance, in this research quantitative guided qualitative data generation method). Mind-mapping and documenting responses to enquiries relating to methods, corresponding tools, sampling participants, data generation phases, data management tools and as well as the overall procedures and presentation are essential components of research design. Three-tier piloting demanded a considerable span of time (details below in the pilot questionnaire section 3.5.2).

Complexities also arose not because quantitative and qualitative data contradicted each other, but because of multi-layered descriptions involving three sources of data (questionnaire, narratives, and semi-structured interviews), and most importantly, the Australia-Bangladesh comparison dimensions of the study. Overall, the experience with multi-modality is positive, and a high level of satisfaction is rooted in the number, weight, variety, and richness of both raw and processed data, particularly in a wide spectrum of data integration, comparison, and interpretation opportunities.

In this study, the researcher seeks to address each of the research questions using both quantitative and qualitative data. First (stage 1), the purpose of the quantitative questionnaire survey was to elicit responses to the research questions in the light of numeric data and set the ground for qualitative data generation. Following this, the researcher intended to conduct qualitative narratives (stage 2), interviews (stage 3) and subsequent triangulations (not only between data collection tools but also between Australian and Bangladeshi data sources), focusing on the current PD status and intercultural paradigms as it relates to the research objectives (stage 4).

**Table 3.1: Alignment of the research questions, methods, and the stages involved.**

Stages	Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3	Stage 4
Instruments	Questionnaire survey (academics) +analysis	Narrative inquiry (academics) +analysis	Semi-structured interviews (administrators) +analysis	Findings and discussion of both quantitative and qualitative data to answer all the research questions fully
RQ.1.	√	√	√	√

What are the comparative provisions and needs for TESOL academics' professional development in Australia and Bangladesh?				
RQ.2. What are the mechanisms and resources TESOL academics used in Australia and Bangladesh for their academic growth?	√	√	√	√
RQ.3. How do TESOL academics integrate intercultural awareness into their teaching practices?	√	√	√	√

### 3.2. Selection of Universities and participants

Several factors impact the selection of participating universities. First, the largest and most established universities may potentially accommodate the highest number of overseas students. Notably, Bangladeshi universities may not recruit a substantial number of foreign students. Special consideration is given to those universities which are located in areas where they have some international students along with Indigenous students. This study may argue along with Barili and Byram (2021) that ICC should be part of all language teaching regardless of monocultural and multicultural binaries.

Second, creating a balance in the number of universities (a mix of urban and regional) that may concentrate on national PD status is another determiner. This may also provide the foundation for a solid comparative study. In addition, considering diversity as a criterion for Australia, a balance was sought in relation to certain universities, as several regional universities receive a considerable influx of overseas students. The CQ World Ranking, the Global Ranking, as well as the websites of each university, may be utilised to determine the selection of Australian universities. Regarding Bangladeshi universities, UGC's (2020) report and ranking may assist in determining the institutions.

Third, prospective universities need to have robust TESOL and education departments with a substantial number of TESOL and language and culture academics. The information on universities' websites may be consulted for all pertinent information.

The primary plan is to recruit participants from the confirmed schools of education, language and culture departments, and English departments in Bangladesh where TESOL academics work. The entire procedure is voluntary. Each participant listed on the websites of the departments and schools is intended to contact. Solicitation from the chairperson may be sought to increase the participants' number. The survey instrument may be made available to the prospective respondents.

It was planned to include an open invitation at the conclusion of the questionnaire survey to recruit participants for narrative inquiry. Due to the sequential nature of this multimodal study, only those who have completed the questionnaire may participate in the narrative inquiry. Participants may offer additional assistance by providing narrative data from Australia and Bangladesh. Failure to obtain a sufficient number of questionnaire respondents may necessitate individual contact in addition to personal contact and their mediation.

Recruiting semi-structured interview participants may have a connection to narrative inquiry participants as the researcher intended that the confirmed narrative inquiry participants' managers and administrators may participate in the interviews. This may foster data triangulations and in turn, aid in constructing a reliable PD status and intercultural practice picture in participating nations.

Following this procedure, fifteen Australian and fifteen Bangladeshi public universities participated in the questionnaire survey. An initial approach was made to twenty Australian and sixteen Bangladeshi universities. Out of those, four Australian and one Bangladeshi university did not respond to the email invitation to take part in the study. An additional Australian university initially agreed to participate in the research but afterwards sent an email of regret to withdraw. Finally, 72 survey respondents were recruited for this study.

Ten academics (four Australian and six Bangladeshi) and ten administrators (four Australian and six Bangladeshi) provide qualitative data for narrative inquiry and semi-structured interviews, respectively. An equivalent number of academics and administrators were approached from the participating countries, however, four academics and four administrators from Australia consented to provide data. Due to the global pandemic, the researcher was unable to secure a comparable number of participants for each qualitative phase. The empirical data for this study were collected between August 2021 and February 2022. Nevertheless, the response rate was sufficient to ensure robust data collection, avoiding selection bias that can result from a low response rate.

### 3.2.1. Questionnaire survey participants

The distribution of participants regarding gender, experience, and nationality was sufficient to ensure robust data collection. The seventy-two participants that responded to the questionnaire survey had a broadly equal gender distribution. Participants equally held either a Doctor of Philosophy or a Coursework Master's degree. There were half as many Master of Philosophy holders compared to Research Master holders. The teaching experience in the group ranged up to 26 years or more, with most participants having 11-20 years of teaching experience. There were roughly an equal number of Bangladeshi and Australian participants.

**Table 3.2: Questionnaire survey reflecting specifics of total respondents.**

Demographic	Details	Sample Number	Percentage of total	
Gender	Male	37	51.39%	
	Female	32	44.44%	
	Prefer not to disclose	3	4.17%	
Degree	Doctor of Philosophy	29	40.28%	
	Coursework Master	30	41.67%	
	Research Master	8	11.11%	
	Master of Philosophy	4	5.56%	
	Bachelor	1	1.39%	
	Experience	0 - 2 years	2	2.82%
		2 - 5 years	11	15.49%
6 - 10 years		13	18.31%	
11 - 15 years		15	21.13%	
16 - 20 years		15	21.13%	
21 - 25 years		4	5.63%	
26 + years		11	15.49%	
University	Australian university	31	43.06%	
	Bangladeshi university	41	56.94%	

**Table 3.3: Questionnaire survey depicting particulars of Australian respondents.**

Demographic	Details	Sample Number	Percentage of total	
Gender	Male	18	58.06%	
	Female	10	32.26%	
	Prefer not to disclose	3	9.68%	
Degree	Doctor of Philosophy	22	70.97%	
	Coursework Master	5	16.13%	
	Research Master	2	6.45%	
	Master of Philosophy	1	3.23%	
	Bachelor	1	3.23%	
	Experience	0 - 2 years	0	0.00%
		2 - 5 years	1	3.33%
6 - 10 years		4	13.33%	



	11 - 15 years	5	16.67%
	16 - 20 years	6	20.00%
	21 - 25 years	4	13.33%
	26 + years	10	33.33%
University	Australian university	31	100.00%

**Table 3.4: Questionnaire survey displaying details of Bangladeshi respondents.**

Demographic	Details	Sample Number	Percentage of total	
Gender	Male	19	46.34%	
	Female	22	53.66%	
	Prefer not to disclose	0	0.00%	
Degree	Doctor of Philosophy	7	17.07%	
	Coursework Master	25	60.98%	
	Research Master	6	14.63%	
	Master of Philosophy	3	7.32%	
	Bachelor	0	0.00%	
	Experience	0 - 2 years	2	4.88%
		2 - 5 years	10	24.39%
6 - 10 years		9	21.95%	
11 - 15 years		10	24.39%	
16 - 20 years		9	21.95%	
21 - 25 years		0	0.00%	
26 + years		1	2.44%	
University	Bangladeshi university	41	100.00%	

### 3.2.2. Narrative inquiry participants

One female and one male TESOL academic from two Australian universities with more than two and a half decades of experience submitted their written and audio-recorded oral narratives. In contrast, the researcher interviewed one male and recorded another female TESOL academic with comparable levels of experience from Australian universities. Three of the four Australian participants possessed PhDs, while the other participant held a Master's degree. Six academics (two female and four male) from five Bangladeshi universities participated in narrative research. One male and one female academic in the group had received a PhD and had around 16 years of teaching experience. The remaining academics had between three and thirty years of experience and qualifications ranging from Coursework Master's to Master of Philosophy. Equivalent numbers of Bangladeshi academics, i.e., three each (three male academics), submitted audio recordings outlining their PD journey, and the researcher also recorded oral narratives from two female and one male academics.

**Table 3.5: Narrative inquiry participants.**

Pseudonym	Gender	University	Experience	Education
Barbara	Female	Rainbow University	28	Doctor of Philosophy
Janene	Female	Blue Mountain University	35	Master in Education
Michael	Male	Great Barrier Reef University	23	Doctor of Philosophy
Robert	Male	Sky-deck University	25	Doctor of Philosophy
Hira	Female	Meghna University	16	Doctor of Philosophy
Obinash	Male	Jamuna University	16	Doctor of Philosophy
Mahveen	Female	Jamuna University	30	Master of Philosophy
Rahman	Male	Modhumoti University	5	Coursework Master (ELT)
Sayeed	Male	Surma University	3	Coursework Master (ELT)
Alam	Male	Chitra University	16	Coursework Master (ELT)

### 3.2.3. Semi-structured interview participants

Four administrators from four institutions in Australia participated in the semi-structured interviews. They had a range of experiences spanning three to twenty-four years. Three PhDs and three Masters from six Bangladeshi universities participated in the semi-structured interviews. The majority of participants, regardless of nationality, were administrators with both academic and professional responsibilities, with the exception of one female participant who had just an administrative function despite past TESOL teaching experience in Australia and her native country. The Bangladeshi interviewees held the highest levels of education, including a Doctor of Philosophy, and their experiences ranged between three and thirty years. Similarly, all Australian respondents held a Doctor of Philosophy degree, with the exception of one Australian manager who held a Coursework Master with numerous other degrees and certificate courses. Regarding the administrative experience of the participants in designated countries, a striking parallelism was perceived.

**Table 3.6: Semi-structured interview participants.**

Pseudonym	Gender	University	Experience	Education
Gayle	Female	Rainbow University	24	Doctor of Philosophy
Jennifer	Female	Great Barrier Reef University	3	Doctor of Philosophy
John	Male	Harbour Bridge University	10	Doctor of Philosophy
Brian	Male	Blue Mountain University	17	Master in Linguistics
Aysha	Female	Jamuna University	24	Doctor of Philosophy
Shimu	Female	Modhumoti University	14	Doctor of Philosophy

Mrinmoyee	Male	Chitra University	14	Doctor of Philosophy
Mohammed	Male	Surma University	29	Coursework Master (ELT)
Alam	Male	Padma University	15	Coursework Master (ELT)
Mawla	Male	Meghna University	16	Coursework Master (ELT)

### 3.3. Sample

In research, selecting a subset of cases to investigate in depth from a much larger population is commonly referred to as a “sample” and the procedure involving the selection is referred to as sampling. According to Neuman (2014, p. 246), a sample is “a small set of cases a researcher selects from a large pool and generalises to the population”.

#### 3.3.1. Purposive sampling

Purposive sampling focuses on a set of common characteristics of the sample group, such as occupation, education or group of people having shared interests due to their shared professions. In this study, the central focus is on TESOL academics and purposive sampling may allow the researcher to understand their insights into their prevalent PD paradigms. Purposive sampling according to Cohen et al.’s (2017) definition is used “to identify a profound and wholesome understanding of a specific research sample” (p. 248). Moser and Korstjens (2018, p. 10) reflected simply but effectively that purposive sampling was the “Selection of participants based on the researchers’ judgement about what potential participants will be most informative”. Purposive sampling is justified since the research focused on a cluster of academics who have knowledge of the landscape under investigation.

The advantage of purposive sampling that the researcher identified while conducting the study indicated a categorised sample and closer ties to the research questions. The lower proportion of spontaneous participants in a constrained sample universe was the disadvantage. Purposive sampling targeted sixty-six TESOL academics and six TESOL language teachers for primarily quantitative data through the questionnaire survey. While considered convenient, all participants were drawn from the pool of respondents to the questionnaire and therefore met all inclusion criteria for the questionnaire.

#### 3.3.2. Convenience sampling

In convenience sampling, the researcher approaches the readily available set of persons for data collection. Dörnyei (2007, p. 129) explained, “One redeeming feature of this sampling

strategy is that it usually results in willing participants, which is a prerequisite to having a productive dataset”.

In addition, this sample design may be suitable for exploratory and qualitative research studies where the primary objective is not to create a representative sample (Neuman, 2014, p. 248). Since this research is exploratory and descriptive in nature, convenience sampling is used to determine the sample for qualitative data. The rationale and strength of convenience sampling rest on spontaneous data generation through voluntary participation. The primary disadvantage of this sampling method is that it often fails to generate representative data (Neuman, 2014).

This sampling decided upon ten respondents based on narratives sourced from academics from the participating nations according to respondents to the questionnaire. Convenience sampling also determined ten participants for the semi-structured interviews with the university TESOL administrators, chairpersons, and coordinators depending on their availability.

### 3.4. Data collection methods and instruments

This study employed three data collection instruments: a questionnaire survey, narrative inquiry, and semi-structured interviews. While the questionnaire yielded quantitative data, narrative inquiry and semi-structured interviews contributed to qualitative data.

#### 3.4.1. Questionnaire survey

A questionnaire survey is a formal data collection tool used to gather statistical information, insights, and opinions from a particular group of respondents on various topics of research interests generally by a structured set of questions. The justification for using a survey is, “The data we get from questionnaire research can be especially insightful and satisfying when patterns emerge from a large number of respondents, when apparent differences or similarities are found among groups, or when relationships are ascertained among variables” (Gu, 2016, p. 567). Given the global pandemic and TESOL’s reliance on overseas students, the researcher deemed the survey research a success because it yielded a respectable number of questionnaire responses in under three months. Data variety and richness especially with the anonymous questionnaire was another plus since the survey was comprehensive covering multiple variables. Nevertheless, the investigator acknowledged the same flaws of

questionnaires as Gu (2016), as “Survey research is exploratory and shallow. It often does not go beyond pattern finding or relationship mapping” (p. 567).

An electronic UniSQ Survey Tool with statements and questions adapted from TALIS (2018) accumulated data from TESOL academics. Participating TESOL academics (72) from Australia (31) and Bangladesh (41) responded to the questionnaire at their suitable time and sent it back to the UniSQ survey tool. There was a combination of open-ended and closed questionnaires in the survey (Appendix B). This sample survey was divided into three sections. Three close questions in Section A sought information on the intercultural paradigm of TESOL academics as well as about the support extended to promote interculturality by the universities to which they belonged. Eight close-ended questions were listed in Section B and covered the following topics: induction programme, PD provision and personal needs, PD for academic growth, PD challenges and reward structures, and TESOL academics’ critical evaluations and improvement suggestions. Section C presented nine close questions focusing on the participants’ biographical information and education qualifications. All the close-ended questions were mandatory.

In the intercultural praxis and PD parts, seven more optional open-ended questions were supplied for respondents who wished to expand on any topic or provide additional examples not covered by the answer choices. The open-ended responses were omitted from this thesis due to a substantial incongruity (between 5 and 33) in numerical consistency, as they could potentially hinder the comparative output (Australia and Bangladesh) of this study. In addition, they required rigorous evaluation in terms of quality and scope, and the disproportionate time and effort required could scarcely justify given their possible ineligibility to serve as a separate source of qualitative data (alongside two other strong sources: narrative enquiry and semi-structured interviews). Nonetheless, it accomplished its goal since pilot respondents advised allowing academics to provide more insights and go beyond answer alternatives in an open-ended environment. Consequently, some participants voiced their opinions, and a few others supplied instances that may be incorporated into future research and publication.

The final query aimed to recruit volunteer participants into academics’ narratives. In short, the survey covered twenty-seven questions including polar questions (e.g., yes/no), Likert scale, statement questions, and open-ended ones. For a complete version of the questionnaire survey, see (Appendix B). Finally, this broad distribution enabled the inclusion

of a large number of TESOL academics' perspectives, which was essential in substantiating the scope of the study.

### 3.4.2. *Narrative inquiry*

Narrative inquiry is a method of investigation and data collection where data take the form of natural stories. Neuman (2014, p. 496) suggested that “we try to capture people’s ordinary lived experience without disrupting, destroying, or reducing its narrative character”. Golombek and Johnson (2021, p. 102) cited their previous work (Johnson & Golombek, 2011, p. 490), to emphasise the background of narratives by arguing that the telling or retelling (orally or in writing) of an experience involves an intricate amalgamation of depiction, explanation, assessment, understanding, and construction of one’s personal reality. Additionally, they also combined cultural elements with narrative inquiry and demonstrated that, in essence, “the act of narrating, as a cultural activity, influences how one comes to understand what one is narrating about” (Golombek & Johnson, 2021, p. 102).

These cultural and contextual constructs of narrative inquiry validate its inclusion in the current set of data collection instruments. In this study, the tool of narrative inquiry was believed to be a tool for accessing the insights of TESOL academics. Furthermore, the intended purpose of the use of narrative inquiry was that it might allow the researcher to delve into academics’ interpretations of their PD status. Hence, the narrative inquiry was used to shed more light on what survey results could offer, to develop a deeper understanding of the research questions and thereby provide a comprehensive response to them. Twelve questions were structured out of the six broad themes (PD provisions and needs, PD for the development of professional character, PD evaluations and improvements) of the research questions to facilitate the participants’ oral narration. The narrative question prompts were sent through along with Participant Information Sheet (Appendix F) and consent form (Appendix H). For a copy of the narratives’ guidelines, see (Appendix C).

Finally, academics required between 60 and 80 minutes to record their narratives depicting their professional journey. After recording at their convenience, they returned the audio samples as email attachments to the researcher.

### 3.4.3. *Semi-structured interviews*

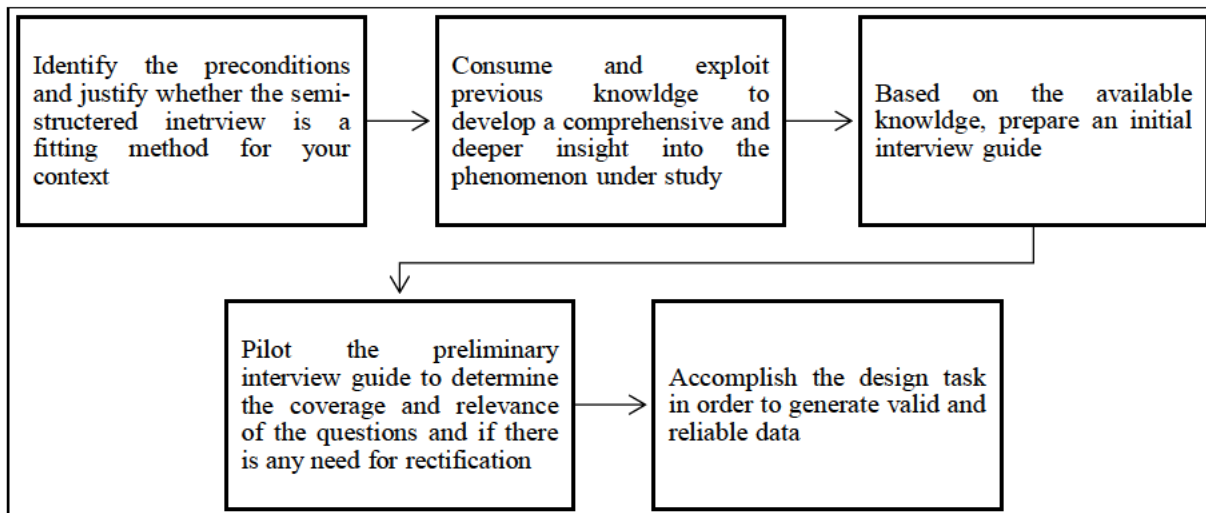
Hochschild (2009) observed that “The interview can do what surveys cannot, which is to explore issues in depth... and cast further explanatory insight into survey data” (p. 506, as

cited in Cohen et al. 2017). The semi-structured interview was produced to provide qualitative data and harness the potential strengths of both structured and unstructured interviews as it allowed the interviewer to ask a few relevant questions to expand the topics further.

The inclusion of semi-structured interviews was to integrate administrators' insights into the existing PD conditions in Australian and Bangladeshi universities. The questionnaire and the narratives sourced from academics were designed to gather data from academic participants. Hence, incorporating administrators' viewpoints was believed to be imperative considering potential data bias and the need for moving beyond self-reported data. Arguably, academics' narratives might validate questionnaire survey data. Nonetheless, without administrators' perspectives, one stakeholder's statement comprised entirely of academics' thoughts, beliefs, and perceptions might fail to adequately justify the research outcomes. The inclusion of semi-structured interviews with administrators was, therefore, justified on the grounds that it would not only strengthen the research framework but also increase the likelihood of identifying the actual PD status through data triangulation.

In addition, the significance of the semi-structured interview as an additional data collection tool is to gain knowledge of the CPD provision in university settings. In many cases, administrators may organise or be aware of institutional PD opportunities, PD incentives, and support structures for their academics' professional upskilling. Moreover, the researchers attempted to seek information regarding the professional way in which universities organise their PD environments and the underlying meaning and importance they ascribe to academics' PD. Finally, the researcher intended to investigate the institutional PD structures and drivers that could lead to the creation and implementation of PD provisions.

This study followed the underlying philosophical bases proposed by Salmons, (2015) (see, Moser & Korstjens, 2018) while building a framework for the semi-structured interview guide. A sample set of twelve questions were clustered around the research questions for the individual online semi-structured interview with TESOL administrators. For a fuller version of the semi-structured interview guidelines, see (Appendix D), Participant Information Sheet (Appendix G) and the consent form (Appendix I). The five philosophical pillars of semi-structured interviews proposed by Salmons are depicted in Figure 3.2.



**Figure 3.2: Five phases of semi-structured interview design framework. Adapted from Salmons, 2015, cited in Moser & Korstjens, 2018, p. 13).**

Prior to conducting semi-structured interviews with administrators, information about suitable participants was acquired from the websites of participating universities and, if possible, from the office or other academics. Then the participant information sheet (Appendix G) and consent form (Appendix I) were attached to the invitation email to all prospective interview participants. Bangladeshi TESOL academics from the participating universities responded spontaneously. Even after resending the emails, certain administrative employees from Bangladeshi universities did not answer; therefore, a phone call to the individual chairman was deemed necessary. After that, a few emails and text messages assisted the participants in a schedule of a convenient time and day for the Zoom interviews. With Australian TESOL managers, even phone calls were ineffective; subsequently, other academics and personal contacts led to the expected breakthrough, with the exception of one administrator who, after a few phone calls and emails, gave his data.

The semi-structured interviews on Zoom lasted between 60 and 80 minutes but were intended to last only 30 minutes. The participants, who were seasoned academics with administrative capacity, spontaneously provided data to effect changes in the current PD approach, therefore the researcher allowed additional time. In spite of this, the researcher occasionally utilised polite interference mechanisms to maintain control over the conversation, thereby reducing digression and interview duration. Participants occasionally sought clarification, specific details, and the purpose of the enquiries. During semi-structured interviews, the researcher clarified these questions and uncertainty to elicit valid and dependable data.



### 3.5. Validity and reliability

The validity and reliability of research data are indispensable to the research rigour of a solid project. A test is considered valid if it measures what it is designed to measure. Again, a test may be considered valid if it produces data that can be interpreted logically and supported by evidence. A reliable test, in contrast, should consistently show the same result while keeping the contextual and other constituent variables of research minimised. According to Neuman (2014, p. 212), “*Reliability* means dependability or consistency. It suggests that the same thing is repeated or recurs under identical or very similar conditions”. Hence, validity and reliability are crucial benchmarks for research to be acceptable. Along this line, Gu (2016, p. 570) opines that “Research findings are as good as the tools we use to obtain our data”. To address these requirements for rigour, this study employed five mechanisms, including experts’ opinions, pilot data, Cronbach alpha, member checks, and triangulation of data were exploited to gauge the overall credibility of the research tools. Dörnyei (2016, cited in Nazari, 2019, p. 8) embraced that, “Piloting is a required part of quantitative research, and any effort to skip or deemphasise the piloting stage will seriously jeopardise the psychometric quality of the study”. Hence, three-tier pilot stages measured the efficacy of the tools preceding the data collection.

#### 3.5.1. Expert’s opinion

This study aimed to achieve validity, reliability, and precision by incorporating three collegial TESOL academics from the participating universities to trail the survey statements with them (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 61). In addition to consistently collaborating with two Australian supervisors (of the researcher) during the development of data collection instruments, the input of three TESOL academics (two Bangladeshi and one Australian) facilitated the reformulation, reorganisation, and refinement of the instruments. Expert advice addressed the risk of fundamental linguistic ambiguities and both negative and positive answer biases in the tools. For instance, one survey question was initially listed as ‘PD criticisms’ and introduced a negative answer bias; hence it was amended to ‘PD critical evaluations’.

#### 3.5.2. Pilot questionnaire

The pilot questionnaire is a conventional research approach for increasing the efficacy of a questionnaire survey as a data generation instrument. Braun et al. (2021) found that piloting leads to modifications to the draft survey. They suggested that the pilot sample could be between 5% and 20% of the projected sample; 5% for larger and 20% for smaller sizes. First, the link to UniSQ Survey Tool was directly distributed among nineteen TESOL academics

from three universities. One university's department chair circulated the link among his colleagues, and another university's previous chairperson referred the questionnaires to his colleagues. Even then, eight academics submitted the questionnaires completing biographical information only as it was the first section.

Lessons learnt from the initial pilot effort through the ubiquitous distribution of the questionnaire and two modifications were immediately considered: (i) swapping the first biographical information section with the third intercultural practice section and (ii) the researcher would email the invitation to designate confirmed participants, then the link to the online survey would be distributed among agreed participants. This decision enabled the researcher to follow up individually where required. Second, the online link was emailed to three TESOL academics and one TESOL language teacher having three decades of experience.

Suggestions from the pilot participants filtered the questionnaire several ways: (i) intercultural practice within the university presented yes/no options, somewhat was added later (ii) the induction activity question initially prompted two answer options, changing that to four answer options along with one comment box (iii) earlier PD critical evaluation and suggestions for improvements questionnaires hosted two separate table questions, which participants identified as repetitive and time-consuming. Later those two tables were combined into one. (Iv) following pilot participants' recommendations, 'both' and 'none' choices were made available in the PD provisions, and (v) 'not applicable' became a part of the PD critical evaluation answer sets. These pilot questionnaire responses were later discarded because several adjustments were made because of their suggestions.

Finally, two more TESOL academics piloted the survey and proclaimed fluid transition, clear understanding with no more repetition and the availability of valid options. Indeed, the questionnaire was comprehensive in light of the multiplicity of dimensions covering national-international, native-non-native TESOL practice domains hence three phases of the pilot were realised and fostered valid and reliable data generation. In all three phases of the pilot, Australian and Bangladeshi professionals' participation was meticulously coordinated and monitored.

### 3.5.3. *Reliability test (Cronbach alpha)*

Cronbach's coefficient alpha is widely used for assessing the internal consistency of the participants' responses. Reliability in quantitative data sets refers to "scores from an instrument are stable and consistent" (Creswell, 2012, p. 159). If a questionnaire produces a

uniform and coherent Cronbach alpha score, it can be safely referred to as a reliable data source. Given the Likert-scale data (agree/disagree to strongly agree/disagree), Cronbach alpha measures the reliability of the questionnaire components (Creswell, 2012, p. 162). The researcher used this reliability test to assess the potential internal consistency of the participants' responses to ensure the dependability of this study's findings. The survey's internal consistency for reliability was determined to be 0.87 using Cronbach's (1951) alpha ( $\alpha$ ). This implies that the questionnaire scale is internally consistent. Strong alpha ( $\alpha$ ) signifies that the survey components continue to be relevant to the research themes and evaluate the overarching concept. The reliability test indicates that the degree of transferability of this study's findings is high (Heddy & Sinatra, 2013; Lin, Liang & Tsai, 2015; Taber, 2018).

#### *3.5.4. Pilot semi-structured interviews*

One Bangladeshi and two Australian TESOL administrators took part in pilot interviews. The inclusion of pilot interviews aimed not only to enhance the validity of semi-structured interview guidelines but also to equip the researcher with the techniques of polite interference. In cases of the interviewees going off-topic and tweaking a couple of questions to elicit appropriate answers, polite interference came to an aid.

#### *3.5.5. Pilot narratives' question prompts*

One Australian and two Bangladeshi TESOL practitioners piloted and validated the narratives' question prompts. However, the Australian participants finished recording in less than half an hour, so he raised a question about the given time (45 minutes). Due to the fact that both Bangladeshi participants took more than 30 minutes and the Australian participant skipped questions and provided insufficient support, the time limit was left unchanged. After all, there was no issue with the question prompts in producing appropriate data. The time taken could be a little flexible judging the native-non-native contexts.

#### *3.5.6. Member check*

Member check is a common technique used in research to verify transcribed data by the respective participants. According to (Korstjens & Moser, 2018), member check involves,

“Feeding back data, analytical categories, interpretations, and conclusions to members of those groups from whom the data were originally obtained. It strengthens the data, especially because the researcher and respondents look at the data with different eyes” (p. 121).

Transcriptions of the administrators' or managers' interviews and academics' narratives were generated and returned to each participant for accuracy review. This process enhances the trustworthiness of the data.

### 3.5.7. *Data triangulation*

Data triangulation is an innovative research technique that entails examining something, in this case, research objectives from different perspectives to enhance precision. According to Neuman (2014, p. 166), "In social research, we build on the principle that we learn more by observing from multiple perspectives than by looking from only a single perspective".

Through triangulation, it was intended to critically examine and compare data from qualitative sources, in this case, by merging academics' narratives and administrators' semi-structured interviews. The purpose of triangulation in this study was to compare academics' and administrators' perspectives, thus strengthening the interpretations, and ultimately arriving at actual PD situations in the participating nations. Any drawbacks of a single perceiver (e.g., lack of expertise in a field, a subjective perspective on an issue, or inattention to particulars) become the limitations of the research. Multiple observers bring distinct perspectives, experiences, and social traits, thereby reducing the constraints (Neuman, 2014). By triangulating data obtained from multiple sets of participants using two independent instruments, it was believed that the findings would be verified across data sets, so minimising the influence of any biases within a scientific study.

## 3.6. Administering data collection instruments

The Participant Information Sheet (Appendix E) and the link to the UniSQ Survey Tool were intended to be distributed to confirmed participants once the pilot phase and the opinions of three experts had been completed. Participants in the survey completed the online questionnaires at their convenience and returned them to UniSQ Survey Tool.

At the end of the questionnaire survey, a message was included on purpose to stimulate respondents to extend their participation in the narrative inquiry. The open invitation also assured confidentiality and de-identification of personal information. After pre-pilot-guided oral narration and narrative interviews, six broad themes of the research were transformed into twelve clear question prompts. The duration of the recordings was between 60 and 80 minutes.

After recording at their convenience, the respondents returned the audio clips as email attachments to the principal investigator.

To conduct semi-structured interviews with the administrators, similar question prompts as narrative guidelines were utilised. The rationale was to provide a unique perspective on the six overarching research themes and to facilitate data triangulation. The duration of the sample interview was intended to be approximately 30 minutes, but it lasted between 60 and 80 minutes.

### *3.6.1. Transcription of audio files*

Audio recordings of ten academics' narratives and ten administrators' semi-structured interviews were transcribed with the help of a recognised artificial intelligence software. The argument for using a machine service was that the literal transcription of the participants' data was regarded as proportional to the objectives and potential output of the analysis. The full explanation of participant experiences necessitated verbatim transcription so that the academic and administrative nuances and subtleties of the meaning were not eliminated. Regarding the purpose of transcription, Bazeley (2011) stated that it should pragmatically assist in communicating what actually transpired in light of the intended purpose and audience. After the transcription was created, the researcher undertook a thorough analysis of the material to understand and interpret it. This resulted in the derivation of the preliminary codes, ultimately rationalising the automated transcription technique.

Typically, while doing a sequential multimodal study, the first phase of data collection and analysis is relatively time-consuming. This study was no exception as the researcher ensured that the online questionnaire survey was accessible to respondents for at least four months. Then, the preliminary quantitative results of the first-phase questionnaire survey drove the preparation and modifications of the second-phase narratives and third-phase semi-structured interview guidelines. Despite the fact that there was a distinct separation between the first and second phases of data collection, this claim cannot be made during the qualitative phases. Rather, there was some overlap, but no impact was detected while conducting some interviews and simultaneously receiving oral narratives from academics. The use of automatic transcription software enabled the researcher to attain the researcher's aim of confining all data collection to eight months. Consequently, the principal investigator could oversee data collection processes within a manageable timeframe, thereby smoothing the attainment of project milestones.

### 3.7. Difficulties faced during the data collection procedure

Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, significant challenges were encountered in Australia when trying to find participants for the academics' narratives and semi-structured interviews. The international and domestic border remained closed for approximately two years, culminating in an unprecedented reduction in the number of incoming overseas students. In turn, to large-scale job losses and restructuring in the university sector (Howe et al., 2021). The remaining academics, in many cases, are required to extend their usual commitments to compensate for the loss (Talib et al., 2021). As a result, many potential Australian participants expressed their grievances about the predicament they were in and cited a lack of time and a general reluctance to commit to supporting graduate research since that means delegating more time to something which was not readily useful for them. As a way forward, individual professional connections supported in securing Australian narrative and interview participants.

In the case of Bangladesh, no major issues were faced in recruiting research participants; the only impediment was a faculty internet broadband connection, in the case of a semi-structured interview with one of the participants.

### 3.8. Data analysis and presentation tools

Research questions guided the data analysis procedure. Both quantitative and qualitative data were clustered together to address the three research questions of this study.

#### 3.8.1. *Descriptive statistics*

Questionnaire survey data was intended to process in SPSS.v.28 into different aspects of descriptive statistics as “descriptive statistics offer a tidy way of presenting the data” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 209). Through crosstabulation in descriptive statistics, cumulative summaries in frequencies and percent may be established and presented around major themes focusing on TESOL academics' personal and professional PD provisions and needs, PD for their academic growth, critical evaluations and suggestions for improvements, and their intercultural paradigms. Finally, crosstabulations were consistently performed to compare between the viewpoints of Australian and Bangladeshi academics with regard to these six research themes.

### 3.8.2. Thematic analysis

Thematic analysis denotes a procedure of recognising themes and subsequently constructing a pattern of meaning by connecting these themes through reflective and iterative thought processes. Thematic analysis is a qualitative approach for uncovering, assessing, interpreting, and reporting patterns within a corpus of data (Scharp & Sanders, 2019). While defining thematic analysis, Braun and Clarke (2019, p. 591) mentioned that “...the final analysis is the product of deep and prolonged data immersion, thoughtfulness and reflection, something that is active and generative”. This study is scaffolded by Braun and Clarke’s (2021, p. 331) six steps of reflexive thematic analysis model for processing raw data from narrative inquiry and semi-structured interviews.

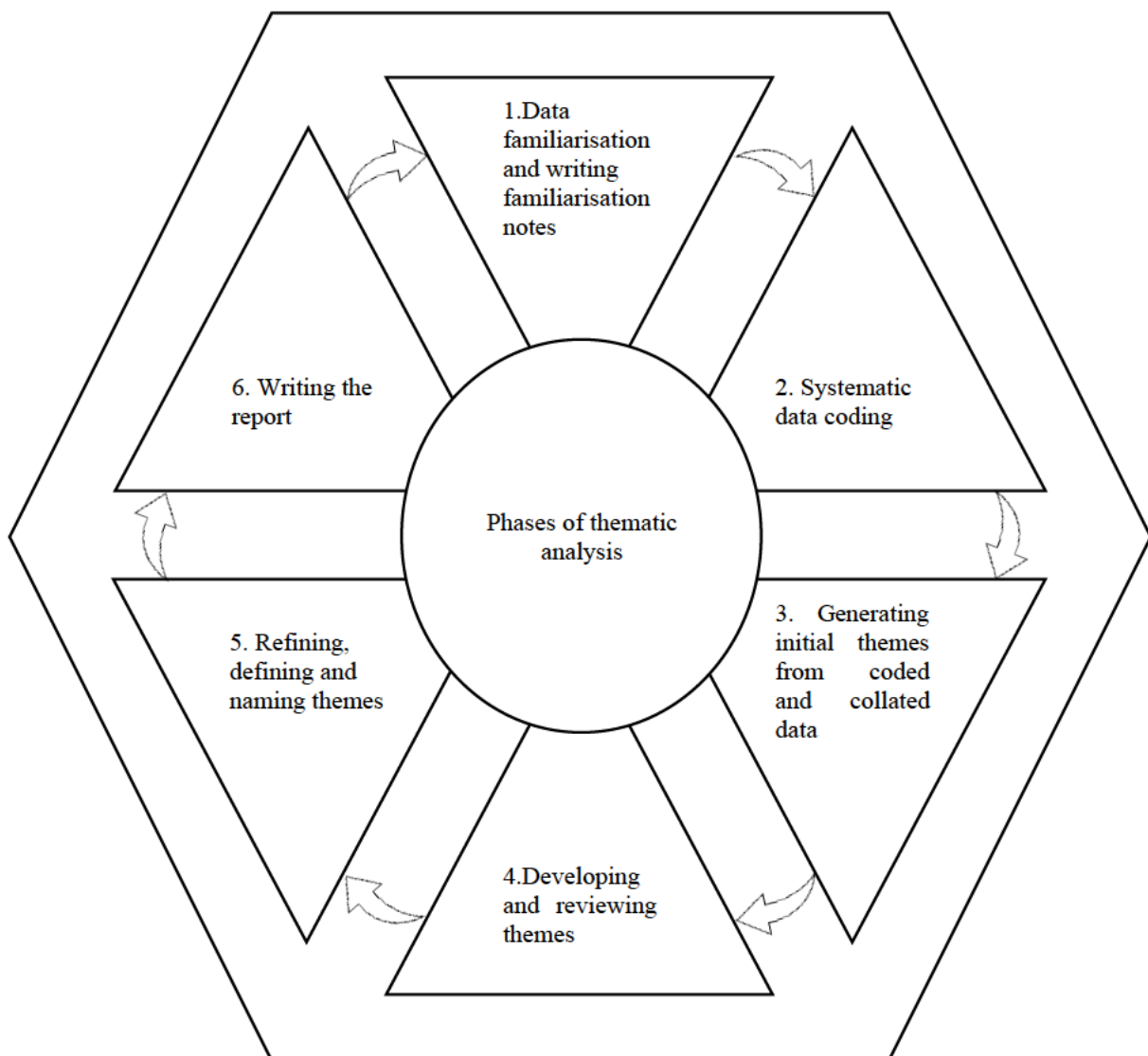


Figure 3.3: Six phases of the thematic analysis model. Adapted from Braun and Clarke (2021, p. 331).

Functional definitions of both codes and themes as the key components of thematic analysis should be illustrated here. Since this study employed Braun and Clarke's (2021) thematic analysis model, their conceptualisations of themes and codes would be more relevant. Clarke and Braun (2017, p. 297) represented that, "Codes are the building blocks for themes, (larger) patterns of meaning, underpinned by a central organising concept-a shared core idea". Braun et al. (2019) conceptualised the theme as:

It's like the sun in our solar system – everything is related to that central point. A theme could have multiple facets, like the planets, but these would all come back to a central point, idea or understanding. (p. 5)

Indeed, codes are micro-components and better represented as organising elements in creating themes. Subsequently, themes projected the essential linkages to broad manifestations of research question themes through active, iterative, and multiple recursive contemplations.

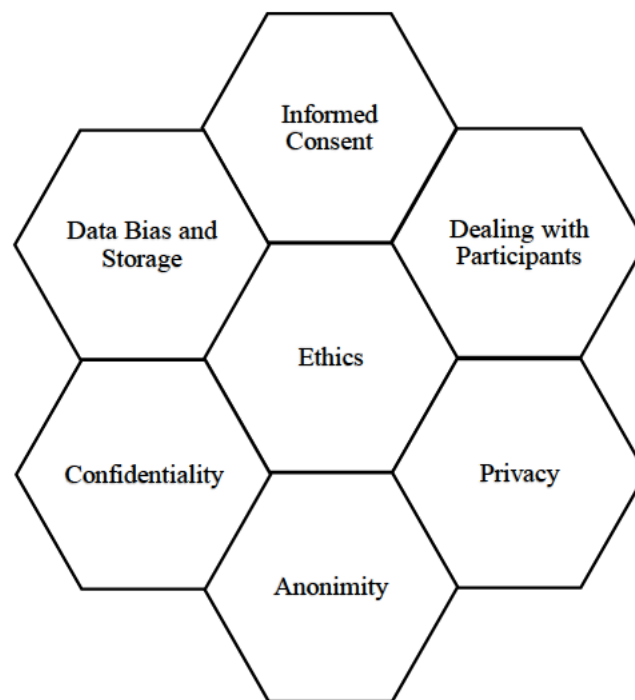
In short, qualitative data were managed thematically using the qualitative data management software NVivo.16. The thematic analysis recognised broad generative themes in the dataset of narrative inquiry, and semi-structured interviews. The process involved was a combination of inductive and deductive coding systems. An initial framework was built after adapting a questionnaire by (TALIS, 2018). Later, as part of sequential mixed methods, the guidelines went through a few modifications and adjustments with a view to ensuring intense aspects around the broad themes of inquiry. Hence, there were existing broad categories available around which both narratives and interview guidelines were clustered. The primary inductive approach was used to identify all the sub-themes when the data was uploaded in NVivo; however, there was some overlap between the inductive and deductive coding approaches. In short, the coding manner as described by Braun and Clarke was intense and iterative, and the distinctive lines between the inductive and deductive coding processes were blurred throughout the whole coding procedure.

Finally, visuals including texts, tables, diagrams, pie charts and bar charts were presented to the readers of this study for easy comprehension.

### 3.9. Ethical considerations

Adhering to research guidelines is imperative when conducting empirical research. In terms of the major concepts shown in the accompanying chart, this study tried to build impeccable ethical justifications:





**Figure 3.4: Ethical justifications implemented in this study.**

Informed consent denotes seeking consent from the participants by providing all the pertinent information to them. This is the widely recognised and frequently discussed aspect of research ethics (Dörnyei, 2007). Consequently, the researcher secured approvals from the department chairs of the participating universities. Following this, the researcher emailed potential research participants about the research objectives and activities, including time and data collection tools, and obtained informed consent from each participant. In addition, the researcher provided all credible participants with a Participant Information Sheet detailing their rights and the nature of the research study.

One of the major ethical considerations is the appropriate handling of participants. In this regard, Cohen et al. (2017, p. 118) suggested that “...with regard to respecting dignity, there is the need to treat participants as equals, not as objects or as subordinates to the researcher”.

Hence, it is the researcher’s responsibility to treat all participants with due respect. Neuman (2014) expressed that “A very serious ethical standard is that participants should explicitly agree to participate in a study” (p. 151). Therefore, the researcher of this study made certain that the participation was voluntary by clearly stating that the participants can withdraw at any time from the data collection activities. In addition, participants signed separate consent

forms before taking part in both the interviews and the narrative data. The survey had an in-built consent option and participants clicked voluntarily to proceed further.

Another basic ethical prerequisite is the participants' right to remain anonymous. Kumar (2011) suggested that "It is unethical to be negligent in not protecting the confidentiality and anonymity of the information gathered from your respondents" (p. 221). The researcher of this study collected data using an anonymous online survey tool and made sure each participant was comfortable by ensuring their privacy and the confidentiality of the data from public disclosure. To do this, the investigator provided a written participant information sheet, and consent forms, and talked to the participants where necessary. At no point did the researcher intend to deceive the participants or betray their trust, and to prevent this, followed rigidly the ethical protocols drawn for keeping respondents' privacy, anonymity, and confidentiality.

To ensure the objectivity of the research process, bias is deemed a serious concern. It is unethical for a researcher to be biased. Bias is the intentional attempt to either conceal or exaggerate the significance of a finding in a study (Kumar, 2011). The researcher neither exaggerated nor underrepresented these results but remained true to the research findings. A final grave consideration was attached for the security of data collected for the research. Soft data is stored in accordance with UniSQ's data privacy policy, which highlights the protection of data against unauthorised use, access, disclosure, and destruction, as well as the prevention of unintended modifications that can compromise data integrity. Physical security, network security, and the security of computer systems and files must be taken into account to ensure data security. Thus, the principal investigator along with two other supervisors only had access to raw data. Narratives and interview transcripts and filled questionnaires were stored in UniSQ's secured lockers.

The researcher had to submit the participant information sheet, consent form for approval from participating institutions, and the data collection instruments to UniSQ's Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) for ethics approval (H21REA091) from the committee. After going through multiple stages of scrutiny and rigorous procedures, the sanction letter was obtained from the HREC for the research. Hence, the underpinning methodological framework described above was supported by ethics approval. A copy of the Ethics Approval Letter is attached as (Appendix A) to this thesis.

### 3.10. Summary

In summary, sequential mixed methods are utilised in this study to create a complete status of TESOL academics' PD in Australia and Bangladesh. Quantitative data embraced relatively a larger proportion of respondents' insights whereas qualitative data gave illustrative value following the quantitative prototype. A TALIS questionnaire survey was modified for quantitative data (2018). While purposive sampling was employed to select questionnaire survey respondents and convenience sampling determined narrative inquiry and semi-structured interview participants.

The questionnaire survey intended to set the patterns of congruences and divergences between the perspectives of Australian and Bangladeshi academics. Academics' narratives provided profound augmentation of their professional journey, thereby creating opportunities to compare academics' outlooks as expressed through questionnaires and narratives. Semi-structured interviews with administrators not only added further insights into the investigative phenomena from another viewpoint but also enabled data triangulation between academics' and administrators' perspectives, thus assisting the researcher to create an accurate conventional PD condition.

The next chapter presents the findings around six themes of the research (PD provisions and needs, PD for academic advancement, intercultural praxis, critical evaluations, and proposed improvements) that were organised using SPSS.v.28 and NVivo.v.16.

## CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

### 4.0. Introduction

This chapter presents the key findings from Australian and Bangladeshi TESOL academics about their PD practice and insights in relation to their intercultural paradigms. The central focus of this chapter is to report the findings concerning six research themes: PD provisions, PD needs, PD for academic growth, intercultural praxis, critical evaluations, and suggestions for improvements. The initial four themes (PD provisions, PD needs, PD for academic growth, and intercultural practice) were derived from three research questions of the study (see Chapter 1), and the remaining two themes (critical evaluations and proposed suggestions) were deemed critical for the development of an intercultural model embracing academics perspectives on the contemporary PD status and their recommendations for bringing about a change in their current PD paradigms.

With a view to creating a holistic state of TESOL academics' PD and their intercultural practice, the data-gathering techniques covered a wide spectrum of variables (as discussed in Chapter 3). The quantitative and qualitative data findings are sequentially structured and presented in detail alongside pertinent factual and visual evidence from the data.

Crosstabulation is an effective technique for identifying “interdependence and relatedness”, (Cohen et al. 2017, p. 754), particularly where variances exist between two groups. In this study, crosstabulation (crosstab) is appropriate because it is a suitable method that matches the purpose of this study, which is to compare and find congruences and divergences between the perspectives of Australian and Bangladeshi TESOL academics.

A broad range of researchers (Cohen et al., 2017; Mahfoodh, 2017; Pratama et al., 2022) specified the particular role of crosstab related to comparative research purposes. Cohen et al., (2017, p. 758) defined, “A crosstabulation is simply a presentational device, whereby one variable is presented in relation to another...”. In addition, Mahfoodh (2017) noted that SPSS crosstabs were used to summarise the association between the two variables. Pratama et al. (2022) made a similar observation on the use of crosstab in NVivo by observing that the crosstab function automatically calculates the appropriate primary statistical tests with valid comparisons and analysis of indirect variables. Evidently, crosstabulation compares, summarises, and electronically generates comparative results. This function of crosstabulation appears to be relevant to the purpose of this investigation; hence, it is regarded to be the optimal test for achieving this study's objective. To emphasise comparative PD findings in participating

countries, crosstabulation was consistently performed while processing quantitative data (questionnaire survey) in SPSS and qualitative data (academics' narratives and semi-structured interviews with administrators) in NVivo. Before concluding this chapter, a brief review outlining the major findings is highlighted.

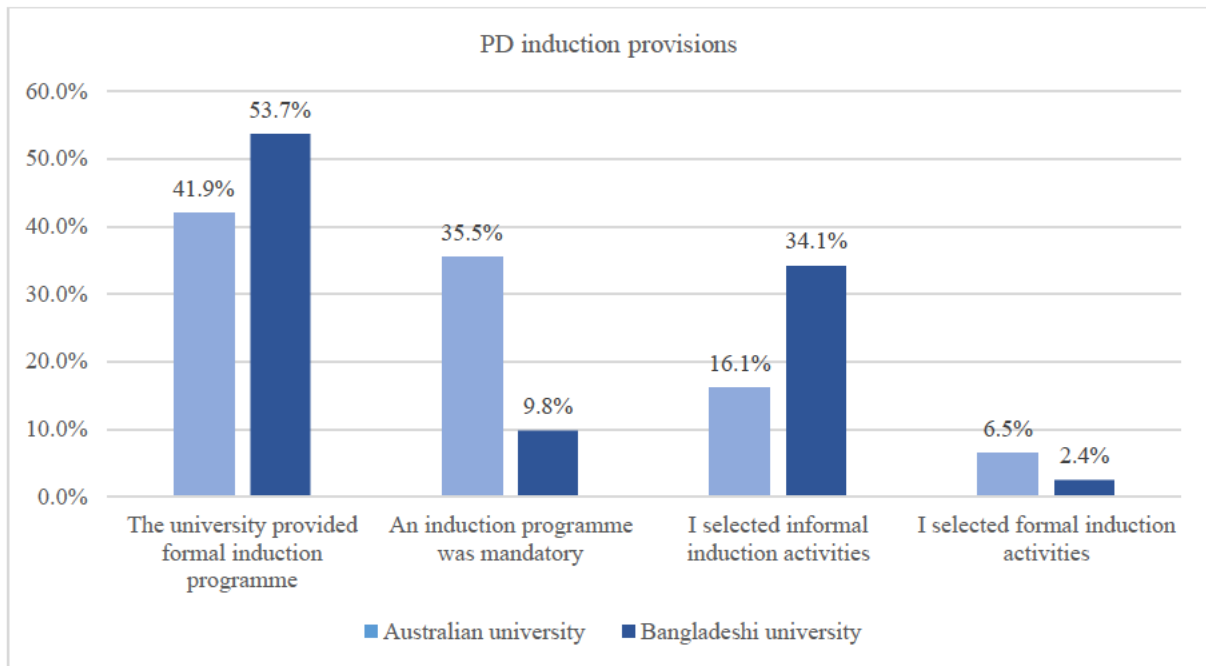
#### 4.1. Quantitative data on professional development provisions (academics' questionnaire)

This section reports key findings from the quantitative questionnaire survey on existing PD provisions in Australia and Bangladesh. The level of PD provision is determined by multiple sub-themes that emerged first from quantitative data: *PD induction provisions*, *task-based PD provisions* and *PD activities*.

##### 4.1.1. Induction provisions

This first sub-section focuses on induction as an important component of PD provision. To illuminate this, four options were provided for selection: *The university provided formal induction programme*, *An induction programme was mandatory*, *I selected formal induction activities*, and *I selected informal induction activities*.

Crosstab results (see Figure 4.1) revealed that approximately 42% of Australian academics and 54% of Bangladeshi academics consented that they had access to formal induction programmes. Yet, more than twice as many academics from Bangladeshi universities chose informal induction events compared to their Australian counterparts.



**Figure 4.1: Displaying induction PD programmes in Australia and Bangladesh.**

#### 4.1.2. Task-based professional development provisions

In order to investigate task-specific PD opportunities, sixteen dependent variables (Table 4.1) with yes/no polar questions were presented to academics from participating nations where the independent variable was AUS\_BD university.

On the whole, academics in Australia and Bangladesh selected comparable areas for PD: ICT, online materials and resources, and student assessment. Bangladeshi academics were more likely to recognise curriculum knowledge than their counterparts in Australia (refer to Table 4.1). Evidently, there were variances across designated nations with regard to PD-accessible arenas.

**Table 4.1: Indicating task-specific PD provisions in Australian and Bangladeshi universities.**

Task-based PD provisions	Australian university		Bangladeshi university		Total		
	N	%	N	%	N	%	
(Knowledge and understanding of my subject field) [Scale 1]	No	13	41.90%	13	31.70%	26	36.10%
	Yes	18	58.10%	28	68.30%	46	63.90%
(Pedagogical competencies in teaching my subject field) [Scale 1]	No	8	25.80%	10	24.40%	18	25.00%
	Yes	23	74.20%	31	75.60%	54	75.00%
(ICT skills for teaching and student learning) [Scale 1]	No	5	16.10%	8	19.50%	13	18.10%
	Yes	26	83.90%	33	80.50%	59	81.90%
(Knowledge of the curriculum) [Scale 1]	No	14	45.20%	4	9.80%	18	25.00%
	Yes	17	54.80%	37	90.20%	54	75.00%
(Material designing and use of online resources) [Scale 1]	No	5	16.10%	7	17.10%	12	16.70%
	Yes	26	83.90%	34	82.90%	60	83.30%
(Lesson and delivery plan) [Scale 1]	No	14	45.20%	11	26.80%	25	34.70%
	Yes	17	54.80%	30	73.20%	47	65.30%
(Student assessment practices) [Scale 1]	No	6	19.40%	7	17.10%	13	18.10%
	Yes	25	80.60%	34	82.90%	59	81.90%
(Student behaviour and classroom management) [Scale 1]	No	20	64.50%	15	36.60%	35	48.60%
	Yes	11	35.50%	26	63.40%	37	51.40%
(Approaches to individualised learning) [Scale 1]	No	16	51.60%	17	41.50%	33	45.80%
	Yes	15	48.40%	24	58.50%	39	54.20%
(Building my own awareness of different cultures) [Scale 1]	No	15	48.40%	21	51.20%	36	50.00%
	Yes	16	51.60%	20	48.80%	36	50.00%
(Teaching in a multicultural or multilingual setting) [Scale 1]	No	18	58.10%	25	61.00%	43	59.70%
	Yes	13	41.90%	16	39.00%	29	40.30%
(Teaching English for specific purposes, e.g. cross-cultural priorities) [Scale 1]	No	24	77.40%	21	51.20%	45	62.50%
	Yes	7	22.60%	20	48.80%	27	37.50%
(Teaching higher-order cross-curricular skills, e.g. critical thinking, solving) [Scale 1]	No	16	51.60%	18	43.90%	34	47.20%
	Yes	15	48.40%	23	56.10%	38	52.80%
(Motivation- an incentive to research for higher degree study and publications) [Scale 1]	No	13	41.90%	13	31.70%	26	36.10%
	Yes	18	58.10%	28	68.30%	46	63.90%
(Experience writing for journal publication) [Scale 1]	No	14	45.20%	9	22.00%	23	31.90%
	Yes	17	54.80%	32	78.00%	49	68.10%
(Aspects of intercultural and intercultural collaboration) [Scale 1]	No	18	58.10%	24	58.50%	42	58.30%
	Yes	13	41.90%	17	41.50%	30	41.70%

### 4.1.3. Professional development activities

In a table with fourteen categorical variables, participants were invited to select one of four options: *institutionally organised, personal initiatives, both, and none*. A crosstabulation was performed to see if popular PD activities were organised by the respective universities or self-initiated for TESOL academics in Australia and Bangladesh. Academics in both Australia and Bangladesh recognised the majority of PD programmes as an outcome of their personal initiatives.

On the whole, the following Table 4.2 showed that Australian and Bangladeshi academics identified similar activities as self-directed: *Reading professional literature, Attending/Presenting at international conferences, Critical reflective practice, Peer-reviewed research submissions/publications, International collaboration, and Collegial discussion.* However, there was a perceived divergence in the percentage of academics who reported self-initiated PD schemes. Nevertheless, both Australian and Bangladeshi academic staff indicated that *seminars/workshops* were organised by the institutions as a result of self-efforts.

With some PD provisions, the prevalent PD condition became more complex since the disparities between the participating nations were evident, such as with *International collaboration*- for Australian academics it was a combined effort of institutional and personal initiatives whereas, for Bangladeshi academics, it was a combination of none and personal initiatives. Similarly, in Australia, programmes like *Collegial dialogues, Mentoring/ being mentored, Online short courses* were arranged by both organisations and self-efforts, whereas for Bangladeshi academics, the same PD programmes were either self-initiative or none respectively.

**Table 4.2: Depicting PD activities with information on whether they were institutionally organised or self-driven.**



PD activities (self-initiated/ institutionally organised)		Australian university		Bangladeshi university	
		N	%	N	%
(Degree programmes) [Scale 1]	Both	1	3 20%	2	4 90%
	Institutionally Organised	5	16 10%	4	9 80%
	None	21	67 70%	19	46 30%
	Personal initiative	4	12 90%	16	39 00%
(Study Abroad/Programmes/Overseas Academic Development Leave) [Scale 1]	Both	3	9 70%	1	2 40%
	Institutionally Organised	5	16 10%	2	4 90%
	None	19	61 30%	23	56 10%
	Personal initiative	4	12 90%	15	36 60%
(International placements/Academic exchange) [Scale 1]	Both	0	0 00%	1	2 40%
	Institutionally Organised	4	12 90%	1	2 40%
	None	21	67 70%	31	75 60%
	Personal initiative	6	19 40%	8	19 50%
(Attending/Presenting at international conferences) [Scale 1]	Both	4	12 90%	6	14 60%
	Institutionally Organised	5	16 10%	6	14 60%
	None	6	19 40%	9	22 00%
	Personal initiative	16	51 60%	20	48 80%
(Seminars/Workshops) [Scale 1]	Both	13	41 90%	14	34 10%
	Institutionally Organised	11	35 50%	15	36 60%
	None	2	6 50%	1	2 40%
	Personal initiative	5	16 10%	11	26 80%
(Online short courses/Webinars) [Scale 1]	Both	12	38 70%	10	24 40%
	Institutionally Organised	3	9 70%	3	7 30%
	None	6	19 40%	8	19 50%
	Personal initiative	10	32 30%	20	48 80%
(Peer-reviewed research submissions/Publications) [Scale 1]	Both	8	25 80%	1	2 40%
	Institutionally Organised	2	6 50%	1	2 40%
	None	8	25 80%	6	14 60%
	Personal initiative	13	41 90%	33	80 50%
(Reading professional literature) [Scale 1]	Both	7	22 60%	2	4 90%
	None	2	6 50%	6	14 60%
	Personal initiative	22	71 00%	33	80 50%
(Participation in a PD network) [Scale 1]	Both	4	12 90%	3	7 30%
	Institutionally Organised	9	29 00%	2	4 90%
	None	9	29 00%	17	41 50%
	Personal initiative	9	29 00%	19	46 30%
(Critical reflective practice) [Scale 1]	Both	8	25 80%	2	4 90%
	Institutionally Organised	1	3 20%	0	0 00%
	None	7	22 60%	14	34 10%
	Personal initiative	15	48 40%	25	61 00%
(Peer observation) [Scale 1]	Both	8	25 80%	3	7 30%
	Institutionally Organised	7	22 60%	2	4 90%
	None	12	38 70%	23	56 10%
	Personal initiative	4	12 90%	13	31 70%
(Mentoring/being mentored) [Scale 1]	Both	13	41 90%	6	14 60%
	Institutionally Organised	5	16 10%	3	7 30%
	None	9	29 00%	16	39 00%
	Personal initiative	4	12 90%	16	39 00%
(Collegial discussion) [Scale 1]	Both	13	41 90%	3	7 30%
	Institutionally Organised	4	12 90%	2	4 90%
	None	2	6 50%	12	29 30%
	Personal initiative	12	38 70%	24	58 50%
(International collaboration) [Scale 1]	Both	7	22 60%	4	9 80%
	Institutionally Organised	3	9 70%	4	9 80%
	None	8	25 80%	20	48 80%
	Personal initiative	13	41 90%	13	31 70%

## 4.2. Qualitative data on professional development provisions (academics' narratives and interviews with administrators)

For this primary deductive theme, *PD provision*, *PD opportunities*, *Not much PD* and *Institutional (PD) support during the pandemic* were identified as inductive sub-themes in NVivo through a project map inquiry.

Comparing the provisions for TESOL academics' PD in Australian and Bangladeshi institutions was also accomplished using crosstabulation in NVivo. While 75% of Australian reported that they had access to PD provisions, 83% of Bangladeshi academics reported favourable PD provisions. Academics (50%) from Australia believed there was little PD in Australian universities, whereas less than 100% of academics from Bangladesh academics indicated little or no PD status.

Australian administrators (100%) reported optimal PD provision and the same percentage of them reported *Not much PD*. Bangladeshi administrators (33.3%) appeared to concur with their academic counterparts, while 66.7% deny having access to PD possibilities.

### 4.2.1. Inductive and deductive themes of professional development provisions

This sub-section discussed all three deductive themes that arose from the principal inductive theme, *PD provision*.

#### 4.2.1.1. Professional development opportunities

Out of four Australian academics, three indicated positive PD status for academic advancement. Robert explained that there were a variety of PD courses and seminars. All of those PD activities were free for university employees, paid for by the institution, and publicised on the website. Moreover, academics determined which workshops were required and pertinent. Then, they enrolled in those PD programmes. Similarly, Janene addressed online learning options and hybrid types of professional knowledge-building provisions. Since COVID had been in place for the past two years or more, academics had almost no access to face-to-face meetings or opportunities for travel to attend PD platforms. Furthermore, she emphasised the importance of supervisory discussion provisions for extending PD opportunities. Consequently, Janene reported,

Yeah, I think the overall landscape is that any opportunities are definitely considered in terms of conversations with supervisors, if it is a space that we are working or researching, then they are very open to discussions around PD opportunities.

Michael, another Australian academic, maintained that most of their academics' PD engagements were face-to-face prior to the global pandemic and those programmes would be delivered throughout the year. Occasionally, they would also prioritise some of the PD events. Additionally, Michael mentioned that his university established a dedicated institution to organise PD activities for the entire university staff. In addition, his faculty organised some platforms; thus, there were numerous possibilities that he could select from. Michael also focused on the ICT assistance and training options available to individuals at his university. In his words:

We have individual, one-to-one kind of support. If I want to use a particular technology, and I do not know how to use it, I can actually invite a learning support officer, who will come and work with me and demonstrate how to use that piece of equipment. So, this kind of support is also available.

Hence, the responses from Australian academics indicated a productive existing PD provision status in their corresponding universities where a broad range of PD opportunities are available ranging from online and hybrid PD provisions, discussion with team leaders for availing particular PD, PD institutions offering year-round PD programmes, to customised ICT PD support.

In contrast to Australian abundant generic PD provisions, one-third of Bangladeshi academics described the PD opportunities provided by their universities. Mahveen indicated that their department organised a variety of PD activities. In her perception, she added, the department had a long-standing tradition of organising seminars and workshops. Another Bangladeshi researcher, Rahman, reported that the university administration gave sporadic PD programmes; nevertheless, IQAC organised seminars and workshops for their PD. The following quotation reflected his thought, "The university authority occasionally organises some PD events, however, IQAC provides most of the workshops, seminars, and webinars for us".

Administrators from Australian universities corroborated most of the general PD provisions accessible to academics. John reported that there were adequate PD provisions for the academics' professional upskilling as a result of their vibrant academic culture. Similarly, Jennifer mentioned that they had an institute that offered various forms of training, including eLearning, to academics across the university. Therefore, she considered that they were

providing as much PD as feasible and promoting this activity to academics so that they could participate in their PD programmes. Jennifer would, therefore, rate the support highly:

We provide workshops, and academics might join or might not join, but when they have a particular need, they will have one of us to sit with them and provide them support. So, I think that the university spends a lot of money on developing this institution so that this institution can provide support the academics in terms of training, and professional development.

Brian believed, similarly to John and Jennifer, that his university offered “great” PD opportunities. Nonetheless, John acknowledged that there were some required PD courses that were “a bit boring”, but he argued that they were necessary. Concerning additional PD provisions available at his institution, John reported:

And if there was some PD I wanted to do, for example, if somebody said, “Hey, you know,” if I found out there was some PD available, and I said to my supervisor, “I want to do this PD,” I’m pretty sure that they would make it possible for me to do it.

Finally, Gayle also perceived that her university was doing “excellently” in terms of current PD provisions for academics. Whenever a person displayed a desire for something, there were a variety of ways to fulfil that need. Gayle seemed to summarise the PD provisions available at her university according to her perceptions:

Well, the institutional support at my university is excellent, because we’ve got support in a variety of different ways. Like their support generally from what is mandated to be PD for everybody. Everybody needs it. And then you get your money each year that you can spend on choosing what you want to do for your PD. Then you can fly somewhere and go to a conference if you want to. Then the third thing is your supervisor, the person who supervises a staff member can discuss with that staff member, whether they have any particular PD needs. If they do, then the university will organise that too.

From Bangladeshi universities, two out of six administrators represented positive PD conditions. Mawla indicated IQAC training opportunities for academics at his university. He elaborated that this was an independent institution within the university that was in charge of organising various programmes for all faculty members. They hosted workshops twice every year; however, participation is voluntary. Likewise, Mohammed concentrated on IQAC PD training provisions in Bangladeshi universities for early career academics. The following excerpt reflected his observation:

...we have introduced some new training through IQAC. Trainers from IQAC are offering some courses for young lecturers and assistant professors. Teachers are attending those seminars, conferences, and workshops, and through these, they are getting trained now.

Therefore, compared to the apparent abundance of generic PD opportunities available to Australian academics, Bangladeshi academics perceived that they had limited access to generic PD opportunities. Academics from Bangladeshi universities could concentrate on IQAC training for early-career teachers and department-organised seminars and workshops.

#### 4.2.1.2. Limited professional development opportunities

When it came to *Not much PD*, half of the Australian academics explained that there were abundant generic PD provisions for all academics irrespective of disciplinary affiliations. Janene indicated, "...none in particular, no online, and no PD that I have attended, particularly to do with TESOL". Michael also reported that among their vast array of general PD prospects, some were beneficial, but not all, and he required subject-specific PD provisions. Michael shared this belief in the following manner:

Well, personally for me, there are lots of opportunities. Some of them are really useful. Not all of them are equally important. Definitely, I would like to see some other kinds of activities, but I know that this may not be relevant to other people because I am talking about my field.

Similarly to the Australians, Bangladeshi academics underlined a dearth of discipline-specific PD provisions while discussing *Not much PD* besides highlighting the paucity of PD general provisions at some universities. Hira believed that there was scarcely any PD provision available at her university, and TESOL academics developed by their personal endeavours. With regard to the scarce PD opportunities, Obinash emphasised the unsystematic nature of PD provided at his university, "...there is no formal system in place. So, I cannot say that there are provisions for PD for TESOL academics".

Mahveen also explained that there were many activities going on in the department and institution, but they would help us, "No". Those activities that were genuinely focused on language programmes or the advancement of TESOL academics aided her and were deemed generally advantageous. Finally, Sayeed expressed his opinion that, "the particular institutions where TESOL academics are working, those universities should focus on this specific field a little more so that the teachers of the English language are benefitted".

So, it is evident that Australian academics appeared to focus on a contemporary PD status characterised by adequate generic PD provisions; nonetheless, they clarified later via *Not*

*much PD* the lack of disciplinary PD choices. In contrast, Bangladeshi academics tended to emphasise a dearth of systematic PD provision first, followed by a paucity of subject-specific PD at their universities.

Each of the four Australian administrators, similarly to their academic counterparts, elaborated on the *Not much PD* situation by emphasising a scarcity of discipline-specific PD. Jennifer reported that the PD programmes were not designed specifically for TESOL academics. In this regard, Gayle opined, "...there is not a lot of opportunity for professional development, that will address the change that needs to occur in the teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages".

Likewise, John illustrated the accessible PD offerings currently prevalent at Australian universities more elaborately. He underlined that there always appeared to be a great deal of training accessible. His concern was that PD provisions tended to be quite generic and did not cater to the demands of a particular academic group, such as TESOL or Applied Linguistics. He continued (possibly ironically) that TESOL or applied linguistics academics constituted a negligible proportion of the university's intellectual community. Lastly, Brian reiterated a similar perception to that of John when he described how he was unable to support his associates with sufficient PD opportunities:

I had three or four sessional lecturers that were under my supervision, who had very little TESOL training experience, and there was no provision for TESOL training and PD. I tried my best, but again, I wasn't given the time, the budget, the money or the power to provide or force the staff that were under me to engage in any TESOL pedagogical practices.

Based on the evidence discussed above, the findings from the semi-structured interviews with administrative employees matched the findings of the academics' narratives, in which they highlighted the abundance of generic PD resources accessible at Australian institutions. Nonetheless, there was a perceived paucity of TESOL-focused academic enrichment programmes.

Bangladeshi administrators voiced comparable concern over the scarcity of PD opportunities offered by the universities first then they also showed the paucity of PD customised for TESOL academics. Similarly to academics (Mohammed and Mawla above), Mrinmoyee outlined that the university provided almost no PD activities except the ones provided by IQAC. The department occasionally organised seminars and workshops. Aysha summarised the current condition of PD provision in a few lines:

There are no structured records or documents for teachers' PD provisions. No, we don't have anything as such for PD. We don't offer any programmes or courses or workshops where teachers can express their shortcomings or where they can say how we can improve. I mean, this is an area that needs to be addressed as well. We take things for granted, just as we were taken for granted.

Along with the shortages of general and structured PD provisions, Alam highlighted the scarcity of PD addressing TESOL professionals' needs. He expanded on this, observing that they lacked an extensive structured programme for TESOL academics' professional progress. He continued by expressing the view that they lacked a formalised PD programme and that there were almost no initiatives for the professional enrichment of teachers. Shimu noted that Bangladeshi PD environments lacked PD that might provide academics with modern, up-to-date knowledge and contribute to strengthening teachers' professionalism. In her opinion,

The kind of training that can help them with updated professional developments that would equip them with contemporary knowledge. Teachers need to develop their professionalism in their teaching career, but that kind of training is lacking here. We are not getting professional training.

Hence, administrators appeared to concur with the opinions of academics concerning the existing PD conditions prevalent in Bangladeshi universities.

#### *4.2.1.3. Institutional professional development provisions during the pandemic*

Three common sub-themes, identified using NVivo, emerged from narratives and interviews in relation to institutional PD support during the pandemic. They are integrated below into a unified report of outcomes.

##### *4.2.1.3.1. PD for hybrid pedagogy*

One Australian academic detailed the institutional PD provisions for blended pedagogical context: Michael reported that when it was decided that academics would transition to blended learning last year, the university made many PD activities available, such as how to use Zoom and how to manage various online activities, etc. They also offered options and training for hybrid pedagogy. Thus, there had been a multitude of programmes to aid us during COVID-19.

In contrast, three Bangladeshi academics indicated positive PD support provided by their respective institutions. During the pandemic, Arif reported that his university offered a

few online workshops and tutorials. Sayeed maintained that some of the academics lacked the technological expertise to conduct online classes, so the university-sponsored online sessions or training to assist them. Finally, Mahveen shared her perception in the following manner:

The university supported us a lot because there are teachers like me. I'm not very competent regarding technology. If I didn't have support from the university, it would have been very difficult for me to teach online classes. So, there were a number of programmes, online workshops, and webinars which helped to develop our skills. I didn't know how to create a Google Classroom. But after attending those classes, I managed to do that.

There were reports indicating scant PD training made available for academics. Mahveen discussed collegial support for the transition to distance education. She elaborated that they had some younger colleagues who were very competent and who were of great assistance to them. Without this cooperation, they would not have achieved such success. They completed online courses and tests, thus gaining a great deal of knowledge through collegial collaboration.

Rahman maintained that institutional support was limited, and the current COVID outbreak was no exception. There were no such hybrid forms of PD available to combat COVID virtual and non-virtual workplace challenges. The passage below reflected Arif's perception:

To prepare our teachers for virtual and non-virtual workplace challenges, there was no particular training. And our teachers had to learn because it was a new experience for them. So, they had to learn by themselves. And they had to go through their own experience when they started conducting classes on different technological platforms or educational platforms. So, in one sentence, I'd like to say that there was not enough training or preparation for our teachers to combat hybrid teaching-learning challenges. Teachers did, they had to start their task, they had to learn by themselves, and they had to conduct the classes, and prepare the students for this virtual class and for virtual education.

One Australian administrator supported her academic colleague's perspectives of institutional support extended during the pandemic. Jennifer indicated that with the emergence of the pandemic, their fundamental concern was to prepare academics adequately for Zoom, Microsoft Teams, and other relevant e-Learning tools. Jennifer explained,

Yeah, that is one of the main things, the training, and the support that we provide for the academics. For example, during the early time of the COVID pandemic, we literally provide every day or even twice-a-day training sessions about how to teach through Zoom. So, teachers



can move their teaching online through video conferencing applications like Zoom, or Microsoft Teams. And then after that, we provided PD in other e-Learning tools for collaborating, such as Padlet, an active learning tool, and a discussion board. So, these are only just a few examples.

In comparison to Australian administrators, three Bangladeshi administrators held similar perspectives to their academic peers. Alam observed that they received instruction before the start of classes and again prior to administering student performance evaluations. He further added, “We offer blended teaching-learning activities, and we actually offer in-house programmes so that they can have some ideas on how to cope with the difficulties of online teaching and learning”.

According to Mrinmoyee’s report, the institution complied with the Vice-Chancellor’s request by having the directors of the IQAC organise programmes on how to utilise tools such as Google Classroom. Teachers from the CSE and IT Departments, in addition to the university administration, continued to organise online workshops for teachers and students.

Nevertheless, there were arguments appraising IQAC training. Mawla was critical of IQAC training as this training did not help his teachers. According to his perception,

...after six or seven months, our university’s administration gave us free Zoom memberships and performed a few training seminars through IQAC on how to organise online classrooms. However, these training programmes were not particularly helpful.

Mawla further clarified that the majority of the teachers’ efforts were individual. They tried to cope with the situation. And mostly it was self-learning for most of the teachers. Perhaps, they consulted the Internet, YouTube, or knowledgeable friends and co-workers. Hence, we had a really difficult beginning. And even this was inconsistent throughout Art Faculties, as most faculty members lacked proficiency with computers.

#### *4.2.1.3.2. Devices and other support*

One Bangladeshi academic emphasised that most of the academics received devices and other support during the pandemic. Sayeed reported that the university supported us a great deal throughout the COVID crisis, as we were offered financial incentives to continue our online classes and they ensured that we were using all the technologies properly.

Mohammed observed, similarly to his academic colleague, that the university administration assisted them, and young teachers were provided with laptops and students with Internet access and data so they could utilise the devices. Mohammed further added,

...our university and the administration helped us. They gave us 50,000 BDT for purchasing laptops for those who didn't have one-, and 10,000 BDT was given to individuals for purchasing a device, which will be helpful for taking classes.

Alam revealed that COVID-19 had caught them by surprise and that they were not at all prepared. Even then, they supplied equipment and financial assistance to facilitate virtual education.

So, for that, we were not that prepared, but we had to manage somehow in the sense that we offered them some equipment, we offered them laptops. And we offered them loans without interest so that they can proceed.

However, Mawla did not observe any logistic support extended to the academic group. He stressed that regarding devices and other logistical support, there was none provided for the teachers.

Concerning free data to teachers and students, Alam observed that his university did not offer free bandwidth, but they had an agreement with the largest mobile operator in Bangladesh, which was essentially an MOU between the university and the data supplier. The agreement allowed their university, as a business client, to take advantage of the opportunity, providing data for both students and teachers. Similarly, Mawla reported that their university had availed itself of a similar approach with their mobile data provider; however, the service was reportedly inadequate, and teachers did not continue with the inexpensive data package for long:

At one point, teachers were given some free data, and there was a collaboration with one of the mobile operators, but that was not much. Most of the teachers didn't avail of that free data because a few teachers took the service, and they were not satisfied with the quality and didn't continue after one or two months.

#### *4.2.1.3.3. Health and well-being support*

Three Australian academic employees expressed satisfaction with the health and well-being assistance they received during the COVID crisis. Michael maintained that the university offered some support for employee health and well-being. Similarly, Barbara

indicated that to address health and well-being during the COVID outbreak, the university provided information and assistance via its frequently updated website. Academics were strongly encouraged to utilise the plethora of health and wellbeing tools, supports, and information, including the Employee Support Services. Finally, Robert explained in detail,

Well-being is a very important issue at my university. And we have something, for example, called this SWAP programme that includes, for example, yoga and swimming, which I'm involved in, but also mindfulness activities, meditation, and all of that. We've always had this at this university, but we've had a greater number of offerings since March last year because of the COVID crisis people began to work from home. So, I guess that's in a way also part of professional development because they are all related to how we deliver our teaching, our research and supervision and all of that. So institutional support, I have to say, as far as health and well-being are concerned at my university, it's great.

Four Bangladeshi academics reported that their universities had extended a considerable amount of support during the pandemic. Mahveen revealed that the institution provided her with substantial assistance; the university supported them in enrolling and receiving the vaccine when they were unable to obtain it. Sayeed expressed the same view as Mahveen:

During the COVID crisis, the institution actually supported us in a very effective way regarding our health and well-being, the university had a contract with a nearby hospital, where we could go and test whether we were COVID-positive or not. And we could have treatments also at a discounted cost.

Obinash and Arif concentrated on the counselling services made available to them by their respective universities. Obinash indicated that there were psychiatrists and counsellors available to assist instructors and students with their mental health, so these counselling services were readily accessible. The following excerpt reflects Arif's perception:

Our institution was very careful so that all the teaching staff were in a safe position. There were some counselling and motivational tasks available, and there were some calls, and some suggestions for the teachers to maintain the health and safety issues.

Three Australian administrative employees shared the views of their academic colleagues regarding the health and well-being support they received. Jennifer and Brian reported that they had had access to health and wellness resources at their respective institutions. Jennifer commented that academics frequently had the opportunity to seek well-

being support and that the information was readily available on websites. John remarked, “There was and there’s always a university service available. They support colleagues’ well-being and this thing”.

Brian elaborated that his university ensured the mental health and welfare of university staff. They had access to an employee support programme, so if they needed a counsellor during the COVID, they could phone and receive assistance at any moment in the day and week. In addition, there were a number of webinars and seminars that they could attend. Brian recalled attending a few, where they performed group meditations and discussed ways to handle mental health issues. According to him, his university’s mental health services were brilliant, and he appreciated their genuine concerns. Throughout the pandemic, he had received numerous letters from the Vice Chancellor and his supervisor. The Human Resources Department had sent him care parcels containing chocolates and humorous trinkets to make him smile. Through encouragement, communication, and PD, the mainstream administration had done their absolute best to care for the staff and assisted them in navigating the challenging process.

While Alam appeared to agree with his academic colleagues’ optimal appraisal of health and wellness services, the view of the two administrators of their respective institutions diverged from his. While Alam reported that there was a health centre at his university and in that facility, a psychologist dealt with mental support, stress elimination, and similar matters.

Mawla indicated that there was no specific arrangement for ensuring the mental health of academics. Their university, Mawla explained, did not provide any counselling services as well. Mrinmoyee expressed a comparable opinion to that of Mawla by indicating that in a country comparable to Bangladesh, individuals at any level, profession, and institution cared little about their employees’ and academics’ mental health. It applies to all educators, not just TESOL instructors. She believed that the teacher had not received any special attention.

### 4.3. Quantitative data on professional development needs (academics’ questionnaire)

This section concentrates on the PD needs for TESOL academics in Australian and Bangladeshi universities. First, it illustrates task-specific PD requirements derived from the quantitative questionnaire survey of academics. Following this, it substantiates the quantitative findings around the current PD needs with qualitative data collected from both academic and

administrative staff by means of oral narratives and semi-structured interviews. The qualitative sub themes that follow *Task-based PD needs* include the following: *Needs are assessed, No needs assessment, Voices are heard, and Voices are not heard* with the purpose of establishing the TESOL academics PD needs status.

While Australian academics (58.1%) ranked *ICT (Information and communication technology) skills for teaching and student learning as the top needs*, above 85.4% of Bangladeshi academics reported *Experience writing for journal publication and (Motivation) Incentive to research for higher degree study and publications* as their PD demands (refer to Table 4.3). For these, the needs of Australian academics could be considered negligible as they appeared to be around one-fourth and one-tenth percentage. Additionally, around 70% of Bangladeshi academics expressed PD needs for the *ICT (Information and communication technology) skills for teaching and student learning as the top needs*, while approximately Australian academics (54.8%) identified *(Motivation) Incentive to research for higher degree study and publications* and *Intercultural collaborations and Teaching in a multicultural setting*. Bangladeshi academics seemed to overlook intercultural PD needs. Overall, Australian academics seemed to express a moderate level of PD needs more compared to Bangladeshi academics' high levels of PD needs.

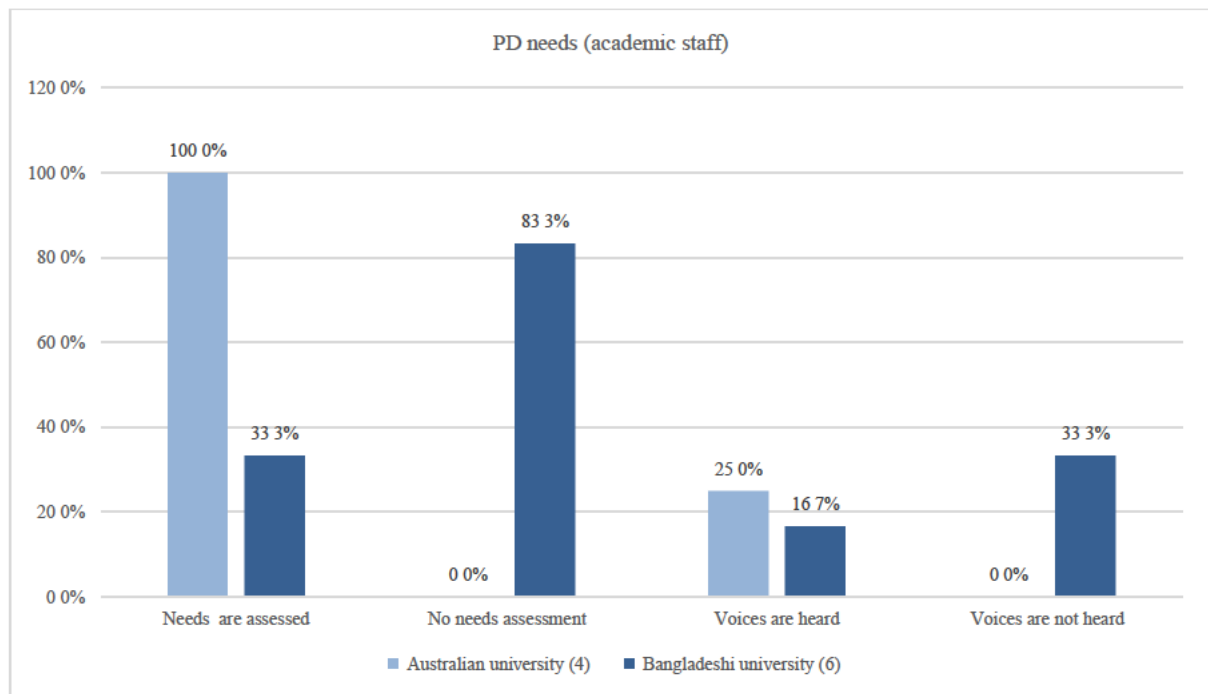
**Table 4.3: Indicating task-based PD needs of academics in Australia and Bangladesh.**

Task-based PD needs		Australian university		Bangladeshi university	
		N	%	N	%
(Knowledge and understanding of my subject field) [Scale 2]	High level of need	8	25.80%	24	58.50%
	Low level of need	8	25.80%	1	2.40%
	Moderate level of need	10	32.30%	14	34.10%
	Not needed	5	16.10%	2	4.90%
(ICT skills for teaching and student learning) [Scale 2]	High level of need	18	58.10%	28	68.30%
	Low level of need	3	9.70%	1	2.40%
	Moderate level of need	9	29.00%	11	26.80%
	Not needed	1	3.20%	1	2.40%
(Knowledge of the curriculum) [Scale 2]	High level of need	9	29.00%	24	58.50%
	Low level of need	3	9.70%	1	2.40%
	Moderate level of need	13	41.90%	15	36.60%
	Not needed	6	19.40%	1	2.40%
(Material designing and use of online resources) [Scale 2]	High level of need	11	35.50%	26	63.40%
	Low level of need	6	19.40%	3	7.30%
	Moderate level of need	11	35.50%	12	29.30%
	Not needed	3	9.70%	0	0.00%
(Lesson and delivery plan) [Scale 2]	High level of need	5	16.10%	23	56.10%
	Low level of need	6	19.40%	3	7.30%
	Moderate level of need	14	45.20%	15	36.60%
	Not needed	6	19.40%	0	0.00%
(Student assessment practices) [Scale 2]	High level of need	12	38.70%	22	53.70%
	Low level of need	4	12.90%	2	4.90%
	Moderate level of need	14	45.20%	16	39.00%
	Not needed	1	3.20%	1	2.40%
(Student behaviour and classroom management) [Scale 2]	High level of need	1	3.20%	22	53.70%
	Low level of need	10	32.30%	4	9.80%
	Moderate level of need	11	35.50%	13	31.70%
	Not needed	9	29.00%	2	4.90%
(Approaches to individualised learning) [Scale 2]	High level of need	6	19.40%	20	48.80%
	Low level of need	6	19.40%	6	14.60%
	Moderate level of need	16	51.60%	13	31.70%
	Not needed	3	9.70%	2	4.90%
(Building my own awareness of different cultures) [Scale 2]	High level of need	8	25.80%	22	53.70%
	Low level of need	8	25.80%	5	12.20%
	Moderate level of need	15	48.40%	12	29.30%
	Not needed	0	0.00%	2	4.90%
(Teaching in a multicultural or multilingual setting) [Scale 2]	High level of need	10	32.30%	22	53.70%
	Low level of need	6	19.40%	7	17.10%
	Moderate level of need	14	45.20%	10	24.40%
	Not needed	1	3.20%	2	4.90%
(Teaching English for specific purposes, e.g. Cross-cultural priorities) [Scale 2]	High level of need	6	19.40%	21	51.20%
	Low level of need	8	25.80%	6	14.60%
	Moderate level of need	11	35.50%	10	24.40%
	Not needed	6	19.40%	4	9.80%
(Teaching higher-order cross-curricular skills, e.g. critical thinking, problem-solving) [Scale 2]	High level of need	9	29.00%	26	63.40%
	Low level of need	6	19.40%	2	4.90%
	Moderate level of need	13	41.90%	10	24.40%
	Not needed	3	9.70%	3	7.30%
(Motivation - an incentive to research for higher degree study and publications) [Scale 2]	High level of need	3	9.70%	34	82.90%
	Low level of need	2	6.50%	0	0.00%
	Moderate level of need	17	54.80%	7	17.10%
	Not needed	9	29.00%	0	0.00%
(Experience writing for journal publication) [Scale 2]	High level of need	8	25.80%	35	85.40%
	Low level of need	4	12.90%	0	0.00%
	Moderate level of need	10	32.30%	6	14.60%
	Not needed	9	29.00%	0	0.00%
(Aspects of intercultural and intercultural collaboration) [Scale 2]	High level of need	4	12.90%	21	51.20%
	Low level of need	9	29.00%	4	9.80%
	Moderate level of need	15	48.40%	13	31.70%
	Not needed	3	9.70%	3	7.30%

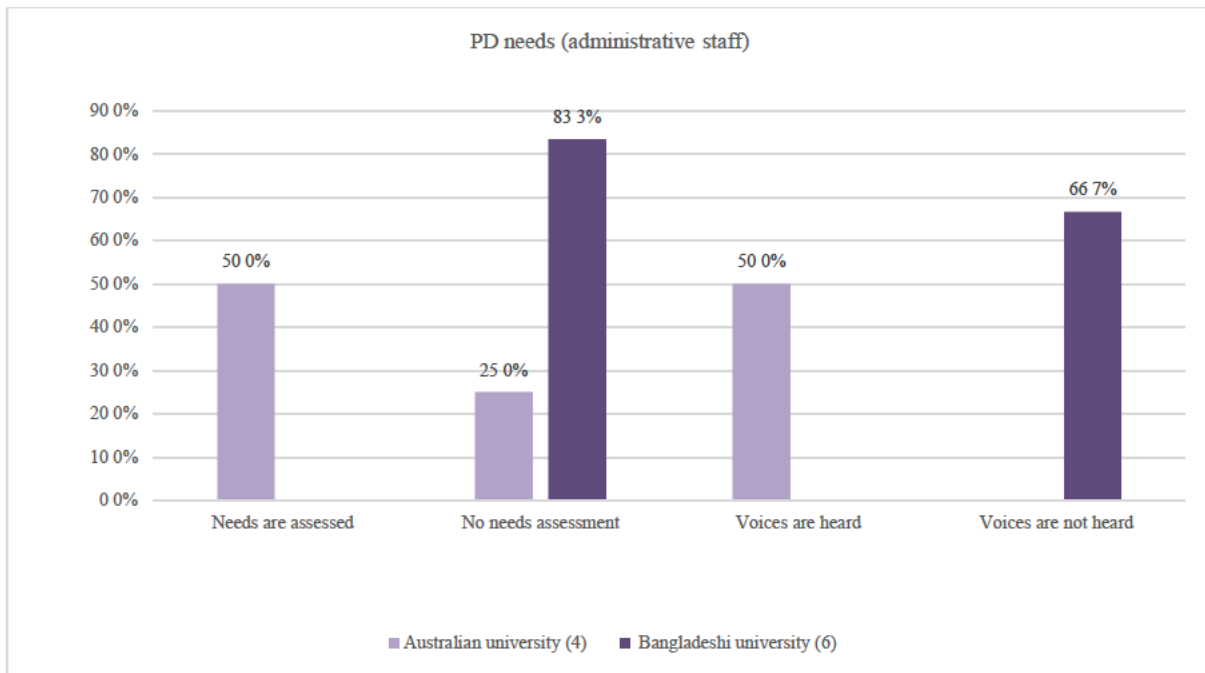
#### 4.4. Qualitative data on professional development needs (academics' narratives and interviews with administrators)

For this principal deductive theme, four inductive sub-themes emerged in NVivo: *Needs are assessed*; *No needs assessment*; *Voices are heard*; and *Voices are not heard*.

The purpose of the crosstabulation query was to summarise the comparative percentage per country. Most Australian academics acknowledged that their PD needs were evaluated and none of them indicated that their respective universities had a no-needs assessment scenario. In contrast, less than 33.3% of academics in Bangladesh reported that their requirements were assessed, and more than 80% reported that their needs had never been examined. In a similar vein, no academics in Australia observed that their *Voices are not heard*, even though a quarter of them reported that their *Voices are heard* in relation to their PD choices at their respective universities. In contrast, less than 17% of Bangladeshi academics indicated that their *Voices are heard* in connection to their PD needs, whereas almost 25% reported the opposite perception. The results of the comparison between the perceptions of PD needs between Australian and Bangladeshi academics are shown in the crosstabulation figures below (Figures.4.2 and 4.3).



**Figure 4.2: Crosstabulation on the comparative needs assessment from academics' perspectives.**



**Figure 4.3: Crosstabulation on the comparative needs' assessment from administrators' perspectives.**

The crosstab results focused on the comparative perspectives of Australian and Bangladeshi administrators' PD needs for TESOL academic faculty. In contrast to 50% of Australian administrators whose PD demands were being assessed, no Bangladeshi administrators reported to any existing needs assessment system at their institutions. In contrast to more than 80% of Bangladeshi administrators, 25% of Australian administrators' employees indicated that their universities lacked a needs assessment provision. While discussing PD activities, 50 % of Australian administrators indicated that their *Voices are heard*, while none suggested the contrary. Administrators in Bangladesh offered a contrasting PD state where less than 66.7% of them reported that their opinions were ignored in designing PD events.

#### 4.4.1. Inductive and deductive themes on professional development needs

This sub-section examined all four deductive themes that emerged through the analysis in NVivo for the inductive theme *PD needs*.

##### 4.4.1.1. Needs are assessed

All four academics in Australia reported that their universities evaluated their needs for professional learning. Janene noted that email inquiries or a survey to gauge interest in PD were typically utilised to determine PD allocations. Then, judgements were taken regarding PD programmes based on shared areas of interest and budgetary constraints. Robert also



highlighted the survey as a needs' assessment instrument; however, he provided a different technique utilised in a series of workshops designed to examine the academic's PD needs. According to Robert,

Well, we have a set of workshops called CEED. I think it's called Continuing, Education, Excellence, Development (CEED). And most of these activities in CEED, are designed by academics themselves. And this is how the university incorporates our voices because needs analysis is done through surveys throughout the year to identify what kind of PD activities are needed. And then academics can choose to design and deliver the PD activities through the CEED system at our university.

On a further positive note of needs analysis, Barbara added that her PD needs were analysed at least annually throughout her university career. There were possibilities within the annual review system of academic schools for academics to propose the sort and duration of PD they would require in the upcoming year. In the end, Michael while indicating that they had an annual needs assessment system in place, highlighted the deeper dynamics concerning how the total system worked in both liberating and limiting ways. He showed that they had an approach where they could document their needs, and at the same time, their awareness of what going to be approved, worked as a filter restricting academic staff to exploit the needs analysis system properly. Michael shared his perception:

Usually, we have the annual appraisal process, where we are given the opportunity to articulate our needs, what we need, what kind of support etc. But then of course, at the same time, we know what kind of support we will be provided. For example, if I say something like, I would like to go to another institution and stay there for five or six days, and I would learn X, Y, Z, working with my colleagues. I can be sure that it's not going to be approved because there are questions of finance involved. So, on the one hand, you have the opportunity to articulate the needs, at least at one point in time, during the year, but then you also know, what is doable, and what can be approved by the institution.

Two Bangladeshi academics, to an extent similar to the responses of Australian contemporaries, although measured as lower in percentage terms, appeared to indicate that their universities had needs-evaluation procedures. Mahveen indicated the weekly meetings held in her department to discuss departmental facilities, issues, and other relevant constructs. The chair frequently communicated the meeting's decisions to higher authorities. Sayeed further highlighted the role performed by teacher representatives at his university with respect to the PD requirements of teachers:

I think in Bangladeshi public university cultures, it is really prominent that teachers' representatives actually have more say regarding the teachers and the university. So, in my

university, the case is the same, and the teachers' representatives play a vital role to convey our messages to the university authority.

In Bangladeshi universities, thus, respondents perceived that there were provisions for informal discussion and representatives conveying messages in relation to needs assessment, according to the discussion among participants. While Bangladeshi academics (33.3%) tended to believe that they had informal needs' assessment, Bangladeshi administrators (83.3%) seemed to perceive no needs assessment.

The perception concerning needs assessment, there were apparent similarities between the comparative perspectives of Bangladeshi academics-Administrators and Australian academics-administrators. Against four Australian academics' positive needs assessment statements, two Australian administrators reported that they had a needs assessment system in their universities. Brian indicated that if academics needed any PD activity and discussed it with their supervisor, their supervisor would facilitate it so that they could attend the PD programme. In the line of supervisory provision for needs analysis, Gayle also added that the supervisor in conjunction with the academic determine, whether the individual has PD needs, and then they would plan. Gayle further described the "Enrich Process" for their needs assessment:

Well, PD planning comes with every academic in the university; they have what is called an Enrich Process. And this is where the supervisors look at the plan that the academic has for the year and their plan for what to achieve, their goals for the year.

One Australian administrator (John), however, argued that needs assessment was top-down. He did not consider a systematic assessment of PD needs to have existed at his university.

#### *4.4.1.2. No needs assessment*

Five out of six Bangladeshi academics explicitly reported that hardly any needs analysis system existed in Bangladeshi universities. Rahman maintained that the institution did not adequately examine its PD requirements. Sharing the same thought as Rahman, Hira indicated:

Unfortunately, I cannot see any structured system to keep records of academics' needs and it's very shocking that everything is decided by the person who is politically affiliated with the government party.

Both Obinash and Arif concentrated on the dearth of systematic needs analysis provisions in their affiliated universities. Arif appeared to comment, "...unfortunately, there is no well-established system formulated in my university to keep records of academics' PD

needs”.

Lastly, Sayeed’s reports seemed to reinforce that academics’ PD needs were not evaluated in a structured manner. When a circumstance emerged, the authorities acted to instruct the teachers.

Along a similar line, five administrators from Bangladeshi universities represented that there was no structured needs assessment system with a view to analysing the PD needs of academics. Aysha observed that there was no formal programme inside the department that addressed their PD needs. She seemed to reiterate that they lacked a systematic mechanism for assessing the needs, and her departments and university’s needs assessment was inadequate. Apparently, Mohammed captured the situation and explained, “Normally in public universities, the teachers don’t get training at all, no systematic structure for PD, nothing and no needs assessment”.

Mawla and Alam also focused on the lack of a structured programme to keep records of academics’ PD requirements. Mrinmoyee, similar to the other administrators appeared to reiterate that “Not much, no structure for assessing academics’ needs for their professional development”.

#### 4.4.1.3. *Voices are heard*

Regarding *Voices are heard*, one Australian and one Bangladeshi academic shared positive thought. Janene indicated that there were formal conversations three times per year at her university. She reported that they had a performance enhancement programme. Furthermore, as part of that formal meeting, they discussed their PD training requirements with their supervisor. She also believed that her university included her opinions and those of other instructors in their PD planning.

Similarly to Janene, Sayeed explained that teachers’ voices and opinions were valued to some extent by the institution, and they might easily approach the appropriate authority to discuss their issues and the necessary improvements. And the administrative people were really receptive to such proposals. The university authority attempted to include teachers’ viewpoints in the following programme schedule.

On the contrary, two Australian administrators presumably supported their academics’ viewpoints in relation to *Voices are heard*. Regarding the inclusion of academics’ opinions in their PD programmes, Brian maintained, “I do feel that we do have a voice in the PD we require”. However, he did not elaborate. Jennifer, another Australian administrator, thought that before purchasing any software or technology aiming to professionalise academic staff,

they had a set tradition to discuss and coordinate with all the schools' representatives, and academic bodies. Jennifer shared her perception as follows:

But one thing I know is that at my institution, we have the project manager and the manager work together and discuss with the vendor and liaise with different schools and academics to identify their needs so that they can purchase new technology to apply in university.

#### 4.4.1.4. *Voices are not heard*

In terms of *Voices are not heard*, Arif perceived that there were few opportunities to engage teachers' viewpoints in the planning of PD events. Similarly to Arif, Mahveen reported, But there is one problem, and this is a very important problem that we teachers face here is that the decisions are not usually based on what we say most of the time. Usually, the decisions are made by the authorities. And many times, what we want and what we say may not be heard.

Concerning *Voices are not heard*, the majority of Bangladeshi administrators seemed to concur with their academic staff's perceptions and reports. Aysha indicated that they did not have a systematic structure for assessing the needs of their academic colleagues, nor did they include academics' opinions when planning PD for them. Both Mrinmoyee and Mohammed indicated that "normally the teachers are not at all involved with this process in our country". Finally, Alam reported that their academics' voices were heard, and they did their best to accommodate academics' opinions and thoughts. However, within the present framework, it was quite difficult to incorporate academics' voices, and his university tried to do its best, however, it could not always do so.

## 4.5. Quantitative data on professional development mechanisms for academics' growth (academics' questionnaire)

The principal objective of this section is to summarise the constructive PD mechanisms and resources scaffolding the emergence of academic personas as per Australian and Bangladeshi TESOL academics' reports. The participating academics were provided with a list of eleven conventional and popular PD strategies, accompanied by yes/no alternatives. Crosstabulation was performed to compare and classify meaningful PD tools in relation to selected nations.

Table 4.4 (below) presents the findings of crosstabulation. More than 90% of Australian academics rated four PD mechanisms as the best PD activities: *Colleagues helped me on the job*, *Collaboration with associates in the same field*, *Independent use of online resources*, and *Reading professional literature*. Australian academics (above 80%) also deemed *Attended*

*online courses/webinars* to be another meaningful PD approach. Bangladeshi academics, on the other hand, ranked three PD strategies as the best PD activities: *Independent use of online resources*, *Doing research/publication*, and *Reading professional literature*. In addition, more than 80% of Bangladeshi academics also regarded *Critical reflective practice/teaching journals* and *Attended online courses/webinars* to be productive PD source. Currently, quantitative data suggests that the most popular PD patterns are collaborative and digital.

Although there were divergences in the selection and ranking of effective PD mechanisms and resources that contributed to the professionalism of Australian and Bangladeshi TESOL academics, both groups of academics appeared to have identified institutional PD provisions, mentoring, co-teaching, international collaboration, and study abroad/Academic development Leave (ADL) as the least utilised PD mechanisms (see Table 4.4). It could also reflect that academic staff had scarce access to those PD activities. Whatever may be the context, these PD approaches at each university necessitate a critical interpretation of the data in the Discussion Chapter.

**Table 4.4: PD resources and mechanisms contributing to academics' growth.**

PD for academic growth		Australian university		Bangladeshi university		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
University organised enough PD training for my academic needs	No	19	61.3%	30	73.2%	49	68.1%
	Yes	12	38.7%	11	26.8%	23	31.9%
There was formal provision for co-teaching/mentoring in my university	No	20	64.5%	32	78.0%	52	72.2%
	Yes	11	35.5%	9	22.0%	20	27.8%
Colleagues helped me on the job	No	2	6.5%	12	29.3%	14	19.4%
	Yes	29	93.5%	29	70.7%	58	80.6%
Independent use of online resources	No	3	9.7%	1	2.4%	4	5.6%
	Yes	28	90.3%	40	97.6%	68	94.4%
Critical reflective practice /teaching journals	No	10	32.3%	6	14.6%	16	22.2%
	Yes	21	67.7%	35	85.4%	56	77.8%
Attended online courses/webinars	No	6	19.4%	8	19.5%	14	19.4%
	Yes	25	80.6%	33	80.5%	58	80.6%
Degree programs/study abroad experience /academic development leave	No	18	58.1%	18	43.9%	36	50.0%
	Yes	13	41.9%	23	56.1%	36	50.0%
Doing research/publication	No	9	29.0%	2	4.9%	11	15.3%
	Yes	22	71.0%	39	95.1%	61	84.7%
Collaboration with associates in the same field	No	2	6.5%	9	22.0%	11	15.3%
	Yes	29	93.5%	32	78.0%	61	84.7%
Collaboration with international experts	No	10	32.3%	21	51.2%	31	43.1%
	Yes	21	67.7%	20	48.8%	41	56.9%
Reading professional literature	No	3	9.7%	3	7.3%	6	8.3%
	Yes	28	90.3%	38	92.7%	66	91.7%

#### 4.6. Qualitative data on professional development for academics' growth (academics' narratives and interviews with administrators)

Both Australian and Bangladeshi TESOL academics chose a broad range of PD activities that facilitated their academic advancement. Crosstabulation was performed to focus on comparative pathways between academics and administrators.

The findings of crosstabulation revealed that while 100% of Australian academics selected *Collegial dialogue* as the top-ranked PD, little less than 70% of Bangladeshi academics concurred. Bangladeshi academics simultaneously reported day-to-day *Teaching experience* as the most effective PD approach. In addition, 50% of Australian academics reported *Collaboration*, *Online resources*, *Reading*, *Research*, *PhD supervision*, *Reviewer in the journal*, and *Training programmes* as factors contributing to the formation of their professional character. Bangladeshi academics, similarly to Australian contemporaries, considered *Collaboration* and *Online resources* as valuable PD resources. These are outlined in Figure 4.4.

While 75% of Australian administrators reported that the current best PD, according to their perception, was *Collaboration and community of practice*. In contrast, slightly more than 30% of Bangladeshi administrators shared similar viewpoints. Instead, Bangladeshi administrators maintained that *Workshops, conferences, and seminars*, *Online resources* and Learning through *Research* might have contributed to the professional upskilling of their academic colleagues. Similarly to Bangladeshi administrators, Australian administrators recognised *Online resources* and *Research* to be productive PD activities. These are shown in Figure 4.5.

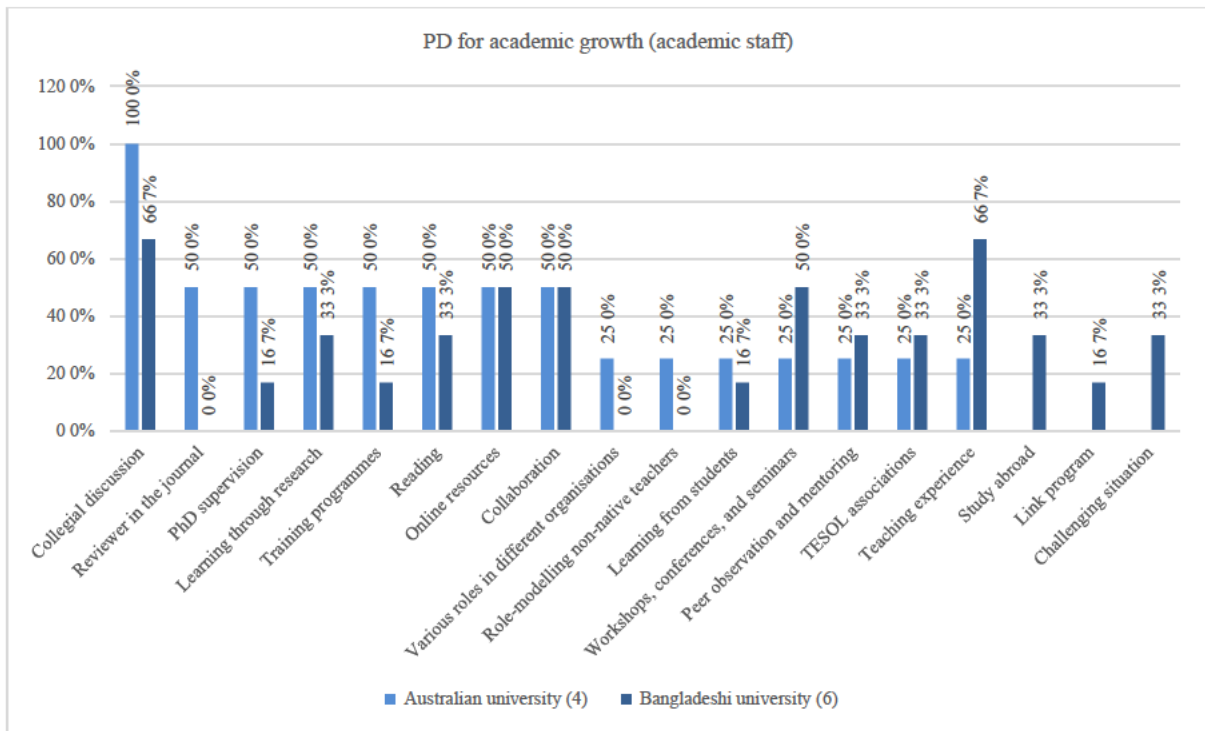


Figure 4.4: Comparative insights of academics on effective professional development mechanisms.

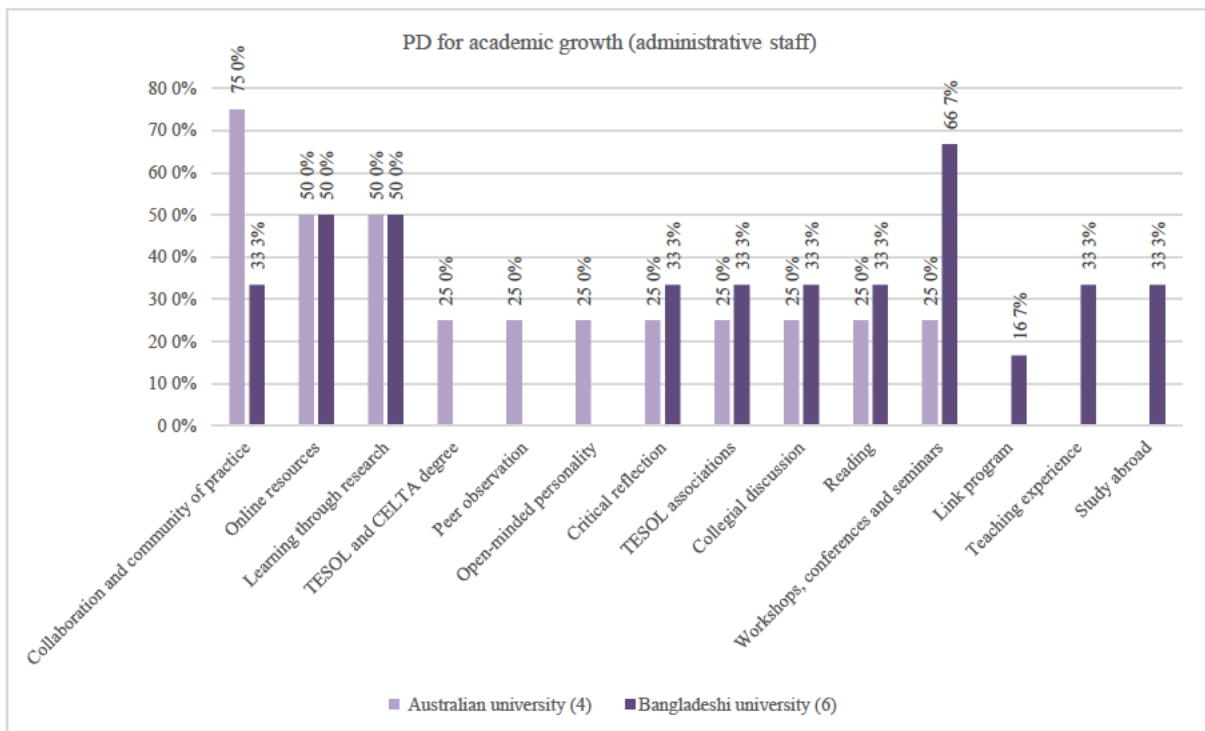


Figure 4.5: Comparative insights of administrators on effective professional development mechanisms.

#### *4.6.1. Inductive and deductive themes on professional development mechanisms and resources*

Twelve parallel and three unique (in individual participating nation environments) deductive codes identified in NVivo, emerged from academics' narratives. In addition, eight related and three distinctive deductive codes appeared from interview data. These codes were integrated into a coherent discussion allowing multiple comparisons and facilitating contextual understanding of the prevailing concept of meaningful PD according to the participants' perceptions.

##### *4.6.1.1. Collegial discussion*

The collegial dialogue was seen as the top-ranked PD mechanism by Australian and Bangladeshi academics. All four Australian academics related that collegial discussion was the most productive PD mechanism contributing to the development of their academic mindset. Both Robert and Janene described the collegial discussion as “ongoing conversations with my colleagues” for their academic enrichment. The following excerpt explained Janene's perceptions about collegial interactions:

So, I guess I would say that my professional advancement in the TESOL field has mostly been incidental, through sharing expertise with other colleagues, through collaboratively building resources, and, you know, engaging with other experts in the field within the university or from other universities as well.

Barbara believed that “the current meaningful PD was collegial and internal”. Along a similar spirit, Michael related that:

And informally, I interact with my colleagues in other areas and other disciplines. So, that is also a way of learning how they teach, for example, what kind of technologies they use.

Following Australian academics' high rating of collegial interaction, four Bangladeshi academics deemed collegial dialogues to be the highest-ranked PD for their professional knowledge-building. Obinash and Mahveen reported collegial interaction as one of the most effective strategies. Hira exemplified, “We do it in our own way. We do it through our interaction with colleagues”. Rahman explained that collegial exchange supported him with collaborative research work for international publications.

Unlike academics, administrators from Australia extended less support to collegial conversations as a PD strategy. One Australian administrator, Brian, favoured collegial



discussion. In his opinion, “I learned the most through engaging with more senior teachers than me. It was through discussion; it was through observation and being observed and those really honed my skills”.

The incongruity in the perceptions of Bangladeshi academics and administrators appeared to be less than the divergence between the perceptions of Australian academics and administrators with regard to collegial interaction. Aysha and Alam reported the collegial conversation to be a meaningful and informal PD resource and their academic staff exploited this strategy frequently. Alam explained,

Basically...we informally talk to each other, we have group discussions among the teachers, and we talk about different issues there. And this is how we actually try to develop ourselves in our profession.

#### 4.6.1.2. Collaboration

Two Australian academics regarded collaboration as a rewarding resource of PD that fostered the development of professional character. Barbara reflected that there was a culture of collaboration in her institutions, especially where communities of practice were being formed as collegial PD. Janene considered collaboration as the most effective way to learn:

...sharing ideas within the department that you're working in and building and collaboratively sharing resources. And I think that through those conversations, and through those collaborations, they are the mechanisms that probably help on a day-to-day basis, often lots of incidental learnings, as a professional rather than planned PD.

Hira and Sayeed also perceived collaboration as one of the most effective PD mechanisms. Hira elaborated that in the present world, “collaboration activities are essential”. She also believed that collaboration among teachers was significant for the department’s development. She continued that if they collaborated with specialists from other universities or foreign experts, they could anticipate positive outcomes. A lack of enthusiasm among his colleagues towards collaborative efforts did not prevent Sayeed from availing the benefits of collaboration. The following quotation represented his viewpoint:

I think the collaboration between teachers helps them a lot in their PD. And I try to collaborate with the people I know from my university days. My classmates are working in different universities, and I try to collaborate with them to do research and write articles.

Mahveen enumerated several advantages she obtained from collaborative activities. First, she addressed how teamwork assisted her in becoming an academic success, in supporting her students, and in advancing her career. The following excerpt reflected Mahveen's opinion,

I developed a lot from collaboration. And we had a number of books which we published; we have journal articles with my colleagues. When I am working with other people in a group, or maybe with just another colleague, I feel that my brain works better. You are looking at something else from another perspective and that really gives a broader kind of sense of editing. So, collaborating with teachers helps definitely in professional development.

Mahveen also believed that collaboration might help resolve professional issues. Instead of keeping things to herself, she encouraged sharing and collaborating with co-workers, which aided in finding solutions to professional hindrances.

Administrators from Australian universities tended to agree with their academic colleagues' approach to collaboration. More administrators appeared to be recognising collaboration and community of practice as the best PD activity. Gayle noted that attracting academics by organising a joint research group was sometimes useful. Brian had a similar remark, to the effect that their university provided access to the community of practice that allowed collaboration across disciplines and schools. He continued by stating that he believed this university offered several partnership opportunities and potentials. Again, whether individuals utilised these opportunities was a question of personal choice, but Brian took as much as he could since he viewed collaboration as advantageous.

John, while discussing collaboration, suggested giving time to experience for better output from the collaborative efforts. John also described the development of a professional network for collaboration subsequently, which might gradually be built over time, and begin to take shape during one's PhD. The following excerpt reflected John's perspectives:

...are your own resources, and your own network. So, maybe the kind of network you have developed during your PhD study with your colleagues in the same programme, your supervisors, or the colleagues of your supervisor, and then the kind of colleagues you have met in conferences, and you start forming your own professional network. And then you have this kind of network where you will do something together with people and the people will do something together with you. And then by doing things together, you try and achieve your professional growth.

According to Mawla and Shimu, collaboration was an efficient PD mechanism. Mawla indicated that collaborative programmes would undoubtedly aid the professional enrichment of teachers. Shimu argued that currently, academic staff might not grow alone, they needed to work together with like-minded practitioners to ensure their professional progress:

They have to work in teams because you cannot grow alone. I think that first if anybody wants to grow him or herself in the TEOL profession, he or she needs to get acquainted with the people who are experts in the area, and in that case, he or she must attach herself or himself to a team who are working in this area.

#### 4.6.1.3. *Teaching experience*

One Australian academic, Robert, considered *Teaching experience* highly as a source of his PD. Robert indicated that he developed through experiences that came from teaching. He emphasised that the development in one's profession was a gradual process, but that was the only way for professionals to learn and evolve. He supposed that there was no shortcut to gaining experience; it simply took time.

On the other hand, four Bangladeshi academics rated teaching experience as a meaningful strategy. Sayeed elaborated on the perception that he and his academic colleagues became professionals as a result of their classroom experiences and knowledge derived from a TESOL degree. Therefore, he believed that creating his own lesson plans and materials and creating a rubric for the examinations that he administered, helped him develop as a TESOL academic. Similarly to Sayeed, Obinash believed that his teaching in a wide variety of contexts scaffolded his growth. Obinash shared his perspectives in the following manner:

Perhaps, I benefited a lot through teaching. Now, everyone teaches in academia, if you're a teacher you teach, but in my case, I taught in a number of different institutions. I think I benefited from those experiences.

Mahveen revealed, while discussing successful PD, that her university did not meet her PD requirements. Nevertheless, she had learnt considerably through her 27 years of service in the department and from her teaching experience. Arif reported that instructors routinely prepared for courses, classroom instruction, testing, assessment, and evaluation, thus all these activities contributed to their self-improvement. He continued by stating that when teachers were allocated new courses, they had to prepare them for classroom performance and interact with new learners, which prepared academic individuals for their vocations. Later he summarised his perceptions, "So, I think that teaching experience is the most effective

mechanism and the basic source for the professional development of our TESOL academics at this university”.

Following Bangladeshi academic contemporaries, two administrators also perceived that TESOL academics gathered insights from their teaching experiences. Alam and Mrinmoyee reported that their academics primarily relied on themselves, their observation, their education, and their regular practice for whatever they accomplished. Mrinmoyee further added,

...while teaching students, they observe the needs of the students and what their students require from them. So, I think teaching is the most effective mechanism that academics are using to develop themselves.

#### 4.6.1.4. Online resources

Bangladeshi academics perceived online resources as potentially delivering stimulating PD experiences. Although Michael, an academic staff member from Australia, seemed to concentrate during the pandemic, several online seminars and other learning activities provided him with additional opportunities for learning.

Mahveen similarly stated that during the pandemic, academics found multiple online webinars, which contributed significantly to their approach to professional enhancement. However, Rahman and Hira valued e-learning platforms not because of COVID-19 only, rather they considered webinars and online training to be an avenue through which they could develop or be a part of an effective PD network. Hira focused on her consistent attempt to connect with the global TESOL network. Due to her aim, she frequently attended online webinars and seminars. Attending these sessions provided her with the knowledge necessary to run an efficient TESOL classroom. In her opinion, “So, I think that in this way, attending the webinar and online seminar gave me the knowledge to use in the effective TESOL classroom”.

Two Australian administrators regarded online resources and digital PD platforms to be beneficial for academic advancement. Brian cited LinkedIn and Lynda as examples of online education platforms since he used their resources and benefitted from their services. So, there appeared to be numerous venues, according to Brian, where academic staff could learn. Jennifer referred to the pandemic situation when discussing the advantages of eLearning tools:

Now they all teach online in the English teaching sector in Australia, so knowledge about eLearning tools and platform system becomes essential for them to know. So, it would be very

beneficial for them if they know more about these eLearning tools and incorporate them into their teaching.

In contrast to the academics, three administrators rated online PD platforms highly. Alam and Shimu observed that digital PD content could potentially be fruitful in the self-learning context of Bangladeshi universities. They indicated that their academic colleagues grew with the aid of online courses and various digital platforms. Aysha explained, “Of course, now we have the internet and there are lots of YouTube videos. If you’re stuck somewhere, you go through those video materials. And that’s how it’s done”.

#### 4.6.1.5. Reading

Two Australian academics described independent reading of materials regarding their discipline and research as a productive PD approach. Robert and Michael both mentioned that they developed through studying and reading around theories and practices. Michael seemed to stress that reading was one way of remaining current with new advancements and continuing changes.

Similarly to Australian contemporaries, two Bangladeshi academics, Obinash and Sayeed both valued reading for its contribution to their continued PD. Sayeed appeared to reinforce Michael’s idea when he enumerated the benefits of reading professional literature. Sayeed and Michael both linked reading with staying current with the corpus of knowledge. Sayeed maintained,

In my case, I try to read different kinds of literature related to TESOL fields, I tend to keep myself up to date with the latest technologies and latest developments available in these areas.

Participants in this study who held administrative positions likewise viewed reading as a significant independent PD activity. According to Brian’s reports, there was sufficient to learn from the teachers’ books. There were many excellent TESOL teaching resources available that demonstrated how to conduct a good TESOL class, such as teacher’s guides and the TESOL teaching principles.

In a similar vein, Mrinmoyee and Shimu argued that reading ELT journals, and articles could contribute to one’s professional growth. Shimu highlighted her passionate reading phases during her doctoral studies and how that reading promoted her critical insights:

For myself, ideas helped me a lot to grow because I used to read a lot while I was a PhD fellow over there. Those were the years, which gave me ample scope, my mentor encouraged me a lot

to develop those interests to critically ponder on things that I didn't use and didn't look at before. So that was the thing he used to motivate me so, I studied a lot.

#### 4.6.1.6. *Learning through research*

An equal number of participants (two from each nominated nation) discussed *Learning through research* as a contributing factor to their academic advancement. Robert and Michael emphasised their individual research as a means of growth. Michael added, "...of course, I learned from my research, as I see myself as an active researcher. So, research engagement brings an important opportunity for me to learn".

Like Robert and Michael, Obinash and Rahman esteemed research activities highly while reporting the development of their academic perspectives. As with their academic counterparts, administrators appeared to regard research efforts as profound resources for their professional upskilling. Both John and Gayle indicated that research bridged theoretical and practical knowledge, and subsequently sharpened pedagogical skills. The following excerpt reflected Gayle's perceptions:

So, I used to research for looking at literacy and we were part of a school improvement process. We researched the impact of the changes in pedagogy in the school and then we wrote about it. So, that way, it's good to get a very deep understanding of how you're connecting the theory and the practice. And that's another really big thing about PD that will impact creating pedagogical change.

Bangladeshi administrators also reported research as a meaningful PD engagement. As per Alam and Aysha's observations, TESOL academics needed to conduct research and publish. They should have written articles in journals on a regular basis. Perceiving research involvement as invaluable, Shimu reported, "Researching is important, and studying is important. If he or she wants, in fact, if anybody wants to be a good TESOL or ELT practitioner".

#### 4.6.1.7. *Workshops, conferences, and seminars*

Compared to their Australian counterparts, staff in Bangladeshi universities appeared to prefer workshops, conferences, and seminars as a productive PD technique. Michael, an Australian scholar, appeared to be an exception, as he attended conferences albeit infrequently, as another means of PD.

Obinash and Mahveen viewed participation in seminars and conferences as valuable opportunities for PD. Mahveen elaborated that their university had a culture of workshops and seminars. This culture began long ago and persisted, and as a result, their department and institution hosted a number of workshops, seminars, and conferences. Sayeed also emphasised the benefits of workshops and seminars on a particular TESOL topic; however, his present university, in his opinion, offered fewer opportunities for this type of PD. In discussing the benefits of workshops, Sayeed referred to his previous institution:

I attended different kinds of workshops which used to be held in my previous institution, and different teachers used to talk about different topics in those workshops. They used to enrich us with some specific area of TESOL, or English language teaching. And they used to arrange workshops in order to share their knowledge with other faculty members.

Another administrator, in common with an Australian academic, described the advantages of attending conferences and similar forums for the purpose of learning rather than presenting. Gayle presented her experience by emphasising that she wanted to learn about coaching, which was the reason she attended an international conference; yet, according to university policy, she was required to present as well. Nevertheless, she argued that attending a conference could prove to be a good platform for quick learning. In Gayle's words:

But for PD purposes, it can be a very valuable thing just to attend a conference on a particular topic and choose the different areas. I mean, I attended a conference and I think I presented as well but I wanted to know more about coaching. And so, when I went to that three-day conference, I chose about six different sessions on coaching and found out about coaching from a whole set of different perspectives.

Following Bangladeshi academics, Bangladeshi administrators reported workshops, conferences, and seminars as popular PD mechanisms. Alam, Mrinmoyee, Aysha and Mohammed identified workshops, conferences, and seminars as one of the PD strategies that Bangladeshi academics used to grow as professionals. The following excerpt from Mohammed essentially captured his views, "I think through training, workshops, symposiums, and conferences, the teachers can develop themselves, and they will know how to be professionals through different activities".

#### *4.6.1.8. Training programmes*

Training programmes were discussed by participants as other ways to develop professionally and academically. Robert and Michael described training programmes available

at their university as a source of PD. Michael elaborated that he participated in the university's offered PD events. He would enrol in a course if he believed he had something to learn that was both intriguing and unknown.

The reports of Bangladeshi academics seemed to indicate that there were fewer training opportunities accessible to them. Hence, only Sayeed reported that he had attended several training sessions offered by the UGC of Bangladesh, his university, and many international organisations.

Neither administrators from Australia nor Bangladesh considered training programmes contributing to academics' development of professionalism. The implications of this finding will be discussed in the next chapter.

#### *4.6.1.9. PhD supervision*

Two Australian academics (Robert and Michael) but only one Bangladeshi (Obinash) academic described PhD supervision as a source of learning and eventual enrichment. Michael emphasised that reading and working with PhD students helped him stay current. Obinash shared a similar approach to PhD supervision.

#### *4.6.1.10. TESOL Associations*

One Australian and one Bangladeshi academic indicated TESOL associations provided diverse learning opportunities as well as organised workshops, and conferences. Hira seemed to highly value the educational resources offered by the TESOL associations. As she related:

I am a member of many TESOL networks around the world, in London, in the UK, European Union, and in Australia. So, I'm highly motivated to participate in those programmes offered by the TESOL associations around the world.

Through their different PD venues, TESOL organisations could potentially contribute to the expansion of PD provision to TESOL academics. John treasured a wide variety of TESOL associations and their PD events for strengthening his professional skills:

...you participate in those professional associations like if you say TESOL and National American Association for Applied Linguistics. They organise conferences, which are probably the major means, and major strategy for TESOL academics to develop their professional capacity or knowledge and understanding of the fields.

In the same manner as John, Aysha, and Mohammed referred to BELTA PD events as the largest ELT association in Bangladesh, as they organised the annual conferences. Currently,



BELTA collaborates with many universities to provide year-round workshops and seminars with the goal of expanding the Bangladeshi ELT professional community.

#### *4.6.1.11. Learning from students*

Learning from students was deemed by Roberts and Obinash to be fulfilling in terms of PD. Robert narrated that “ongoing conversations with students also could develop an academic professional”. Obinash had a similar opinion, and he explained in detail:

I learned from the classrooms since many of my students were professionals, they were not your typical students. My students were different, they were more diverse. Some of them already had master’s degrees, working in the corporate sectors, they were in teacher education programmes, and they were in very different projects. When I was working with them, I learned quite a lot, and I kept growing as a professional.

#### *4.6.1.12. Reviewer in an academic journal*

Robert and Michael mentioned the peer reviewer role for academic enhancement. Michael reported that he was also involved in journals, and he served on the editorial boards of multiple journals. As part of his responsibilities, he reviewed submissions. This afforded him several opportunities for knowledge expansion.

#### *4.6.1.13. Mentoring experience*

Janene reported that she had learnt substantially from her mentoring experience. She had overseen a project in Hong Kong in which she had acted as a mentor to undergraduate pre-service students. So, they were preparing to become teachers themselves, and she was their mentor. Consequently, through sharing techniques and learning from one another, she remarked that she had found that the most effective professional growth came not only from credentials or programmes but also from substantial interactions with other professionals (in TESOL or Applied Linguistics) in the institution.

#### *4.6.1.14. Role-modelling non-native teachers*

Janene acknowledged non-native teachers as a valuable source of PD. According to her, when she worked for the English Schools Foundation in Hong Kong, she was surrounded by co-workers who were all multilingual. She believed that one approach to advancing professionally as a native English speaker was to view them as role models, observe them teaching other students, and engage in casual interactions with them.

*4.6.1.15. Various roles in different organisations*

Janene had vast experience working overseas as a native TESOL professional, and she reported that she had learnt from her several roles in different organisations. In her words,

Look, this is a tricky one, I think the best learning certainly comes me through various roles that I've had, in different organisations, and has come from learning from other expert colleagues....

*4.6.1.16. Study abroad*

Studying abroad was seen as empowering by two Bangladeshi academics. Mahveen maintained studying abroad was a means to develop oneself, and degrees from foreign universities helped teachers to get promoted. Perceiving the multiple benefits of studying abroad, Obinash had made that an objective of his professional life. He desired experience with an overseas scholarship, and he had set goals to work, spend time there, and engage with students and teachers from various nations. His perseverance resulted in a positive outcome and eventually the experience of studying abroad and obtaining a better degree, as well as all the benefits derived from that opportunity contributed to his increased academic insights.

Bangladeshi academics and administrators seemed to agree with each other in their approach to studying abroad. Mawla and Aysha concurred that studying abroad was a productive PD means and that Bangladeshi academics preferred to pursue higher education in Western countries. Aysha demonstrated the advantages of studying abroad: access to books, interactions and exposure to a multicultural society, and interactive classes:

And certainly, I would say that going abroad and getting higher degrees is another major way of PD. I know its academic development as well. But anyway, this exposure is essential, because you get to learn through interaction, the exposure that you get when you go abroad. You can see the differences as you studied at Dhaka University, and now you're studying at an Australian university. You can see how different the environment is, it's so easy to get hold of books and read, and the interactive classes.

Aysha further augmented that they (Bangladeshi TESOL academics) obtained these advanced degrees, and these degrees were incredibly important since graduates returned with a wealth of experience. Furthermore, they were the ones who introduced new things and taught others, not just the students, but also conversations with them to help other colleagues to develop and grow.

4.6.1.17. *Challenging situations*

Arif and Obinash perceived that putting themselves in challenging situations supported their academic enhancement because they could leave their comfort zone and think unconventionally. Arif mentioned that whenever academics were assigned new courses, they knew that they needed to face new students with their questions and concerns. As a result, academics prepared themselves well to teach well. Thus, every time academics taught a new course, they went through several impediments culminating in their professional enrichment. Obinash explained that he sought opportunities to develop himself, and he understood that he must create or place himself in difficult situations; he must leave his comfort zone. The following quotation reflected Obinash's thoughts:

If I do the things that make me happy, then I'll always do the same thing. So, I believe that young teachers seeking opportunities for growth should consider engaging in hitherto unexplored activities. Only when you leave your comfort zone and venture outside of it, you do find the means to grow.

4.6.1.18. *Link programme*

Mahveen reported a wide spectrum of benefits that she had experienced from a link programme that her university had with a famous British university, Warwick University. Mahveen had attended Warwick University to earn a master's degree in ELT through a link programme that her university had at the time. She developed significantly because of that link programme and her subsequent degree. In addition, international experts had visited the department and organised workshops and Mahveen learned considerably from those workshops. And these experiences enabled her to become a better teacher as she acquired unfamiliar approaches, activities, and teaching methods. The instructors from Warwick University discussed novel topics, and she learned about their new ways; collaboration with them helped also her greatly. Then her university established a second programme with the University of Manchester, which assisted academics in the production of two book publications.

Aysha, the administrative head of the same institution where Mahveen was a professor, appeared to imply the same link programme which her department established with Warwick University and how the university benefited from its international affiliations. Aysha explained that this was the case in the past when they had an international collaboration provision with Warwick University and some of their lecturers obtained master's degrees from Warwick. They

also had exchange programmes; teachers came from Warwick; and their teachers visited Warwick for PD.

#### 4.6.1.19. Mentors

Mahveen acknowledged one of her mentors, a senior professor within her department from whom she believed that she gained an enormous amount of knowledge:

A senior professor helped me a lot to develop myself to know all those bits and pieces that you need to learn especially in relation to writing a research paper. So, I think my writing developed a lot because I had a mentor like him because I had a teacher like him, who gave me feedback whenever I went to him. Whatever I have been writing he read it thoroughly and he gave me very detailed feedback, and you need teachers like that.

#### 4.6.1.20. Peer-observation

Sayed appeared to place substantial importance on peer observation. At his current university, there was no opportunity for peer observation; nevertheless, he noted that his prior institution had a culture of peer observation in which junior teachers could observe senior teachers' lectures and learn from that experience. Similar to Sayeed, Brian also found that he learned most through interacting with senior teachers, discussion, observation, and being observed, all of which honed his skills. According to Brian,

But I would say that the best thing you can do is to find a good school with committed and engaged senior teachers and talk to them and ask them how to do that or observe other people's classes. And as embarrassing and difficult as it is your own classes are observed by a senior lecturer and take on that feedback to become a better teacher.

#### 4.6.1.21. Critical reflection

Several administrators from the participating countries deemed critical reflection to be a valuable exercise scaffolding their professional upskilling. Jennifer reported that she seemed to believe that academics would require frequent conversation, pedagogical discourse, and participation in critical reflection on their teaching and sharing their experience with a view to becoming better teachers.

In line with Jennifer's perception of critical reflection, Shimu reported that their academic colleagues needed a variety of schemes to develop themselves professionally and catalysed their critical reflections. Aysha however, appeared to be more positively inclined to critical reflection as a sole PD method. The following excerpt captured her perspectives:

Just from reflection, reflecting on what my teachers taught me, how my teachers taught me and what they taught me. And especially trying to follow those whom I enjoyed listening to the classes.

#### 4.6.1.22. *Open-minded personality*

When it came to academics' access to PD opportunities, Gayle seemed to imply that much depended on their adaptable personalities. So, a person's willingness to exert additional effort to effectively implement change depended heavily on his or her personality. From Gayle's perspective:

Well, I mean, academics need to be open-minded and want to improve their pedagogy. And if you're like that, then you are sharing information with your colleagues for a start and helping each other. And then you're researching to find out what is happening in the latest literature.

### 4.7. Quantitative data on intercultural practice (academics' questionnaire)

This section discusses the experiences of TESOL academics in diverse classrooms, intercultural practice, and universities' assistance in fostering IC. This section describes the data collected from three closed questions, thus creating a fuller understanding intercultural paradigm of TESOL academics.

#### 4.7.1. *Teaching students from diverse cultures*

This section aimed to find out how many participants had the experience of teaching students from other cultures. Australian (100%) academics reported that they had expertise in educating students of diverse cultures. On the contrary, although 82.9 % of Bangladeshi academics reported a parallel experience of dealing with students of varied cultural origins, 17.1% reported a negative.

#### 4.7.2. *Academics' intercultural paradigms*

There were seven factors arranged in a table with Likert scale questions and presented (see Appendix B) in a fashion ranging from less to more (1 to 4) format: *not at all* (0%), *to some extent* (01-38%), *quite a bit* (39-59%), and *to a great extent* (60-80%) (See Table 4.5). Each of the seven questions prompts in the questionnaire had a specific purpose: three were designed to assess pedagogical techniques (*Skills to adapt my teaching for cultural diversity*, *Combine international and domestic students in study groups*, *Collaborate with colleagues*), two were intended to understand basic cultural awareness (*Raise awareness of cultural similarities and Raise awareness of cultural differences*) and two were focused on evaluating

deeper dimensions of IC (*Provide learning opportunities to reduce ethnic stereotyping, Train students to be flexible and mutually respectful*). For the sake of comparison, crosstabulation was run to emphasise the precise percentage of each IC index.

When it came to comparative practices, approximately 71.0% of Australian academics could largely prioritise *Skills to adapt my teaching to cultural diversity* and *Train students to be flexible and mutually respectful*. Bangladeshi academics, on the other hand, could incorporate moderately *Train students to be flexible and mutually respectful* (53.7%) and *Raise awareness of cultural similarities* (51.2%) and *dissimilarities* (43.9%) (see Table 4.5). Overall, the status of the specified nations' intercultural praxis was deemed subpar based on quantitative data findings.

**Table 4.5: Australian and Bangladeshi TESOL academics' intercultural paradigms.**

TESOL academic staff's intercultural paradigms		Australian university		Bangladeshi university		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Skills to adapt my teaching for cultural diversity	Not at all (0%)	0	0.0%	2	4.9%	2	2.8%
	Quite a bit (39-59%)	6	19.4%	20	48.8%	26	36.1%
	To a great extent (60-80%)	22	71.0%	11	26.8%	33	45.8%
	To some extent (01- 38%)	3	9.7%	8	19.5%	11	15.3%
Combine international and domestic students in study groups	Not at all (0%)	2	6.5%	6	14.6%	8	11.1%
	Quite a bit (39-59%)	9	29.0%	11	26.8%	20	27.8%
	To a great extent (60-80%)	17	54.8%	10	24.4%	27	37.5%
	To some extent (01- 38%)	3	9.7%	14	34.1%	17	23.6%
Raise awareness of cultural similarities	Not at all (0%)	1	3.2%	3	7.3%	4	5.6%
	Quite a bit (39-59%)	11	35.5%	21	51.2%	32	44.4%
	To a great extent (60-80%)	14	45.2%	11	26.8%	25	34.7%
	To some extent (01- 38%)	5	16.1%	6	14.6%	11	15.3%
Raise awareness of cultural differences	Not at all (0%)	1	3.2%	5	12.2%	6	8.3%
	Quite a bit (39-59%)	11	35.5%	18	43.9%	29	40.3%
	To a great extent (60-80%)	12	38.7%	9	22.0%	21	29.2%
	To some extent (01- 38%)	7	22.6%	9	22.0%	16	22.2%
Provide learning opportunities to reduce ethnic stereotyping	Not at all (0%)	1	3.2%	4	9.8%	5	6.9%
	Quite a bit (39-59%)	10	32.3%	14	34.1%	24	33.3%
	To a great extent (60-80%)	13	41.9%	14	34.1%	27	37.5%
	To some extent (01- 38%)	7	22.6%	9	22.0%	16	22.2%
Train students to be open, flexible and mutually respectful	Quite a bit (39-59%)	5	16.1%	14	34.1%	19	26.4%
	To a great extent (60-80%)	22	71.0%	22	53.7%	44	61.1%
	To some extent (01- 38%)	4	12.9%	5	12.2%	9	12.5%
Collaborate with colleagues	Not at all (0%)	0	0.0%	4	9.8%	4	5.6%
	Quite a bit (39-59%)	10	32.3%	12	29.3%	22	30.6%
	To a great extent (60-80%)	18	58.1%	11	26.8%	29	40.3%
	To some extent (01- 38%)	3	9.7%	14	34.1%	17	23.6%

### 4.7.3. University's support towards interculturality

This section attempted to determine the university's support towards the promotion of IC. A table with four questions with basic *No/Somewhat/Yes* options was shown. The first two question options were designed to investigate the surface level of support through cultural activities, games, and events. The third question was about intercultural pedagogy, while the final question prompt was designed to elicit whether any curriculum mandate existed in the individual universities (see Table 4.6).

An analysis of crosstabulation results (refer to Table 4.6) revealed that approximately 64.5% of Australian academics indicated that their universities organised multicultural events and 51.6% of the participants reported existing support to *Providing students with opportunities to understand issues of cultural discrimination*. On the other hand, approximately 61.0% of Bangladeshi academics suggested that their universities seemed to support arranging music, arts and sports events and nearly 51.2 % of the respondents indicated patronage for *Adopting teaching and learning practices that integrate global issues in the broader curriculum*. According to the quantitative data presented here, university's support for interculturality consisted predominantly of the organisation of cultural festivals in nominated nations. Australian academics indicated that their institutions provided assistance for students to increase their cultural awareness, whereas Bangladeshi academics accentuated global issues within a broader curriculum. Nonetheless, the university's support for the propagation of intercultural paradigms and a deeper understanding of interculturality appeared minimal.

**Table 4.6: Australian and Bangladeshi universities' support towards interculturality.**

Universities' support towards interculturality		Australian university		Bangladeshi university		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Supporting activities or groups (e.g. art/music/games/display)	No	3	9.7%	5	12.2%	8	11.1%
	Somewhat	11	35.5%	11	26.8%	22	30.6%
	Yes	17	54.8%	25	61.0%	42	58.3%
Organising multicultural events (e.g. cultural diversity day)	No	0	0.0%	15	36.6%	15	20.8%
	Somewhat	11	35.5%	11	26.8%	22	30.6%
	Yes	20	64.5%	15	36.6%	35	48.6%
Providing students with opportunities to understand issues of cultural discrimination	No	0	0.0%	10	24.4%	10	13.9%
	Somewhat	15	48.4%	17	41.5%	32	44.4%
	Yes	16	51.6%	14	34.1%	30	41.7%
Adopting teaching and learning practices that integrate global issues in the broader curriculum	No	1	3.2%	6	14.6%	7	9.7%
	Somewhat	15	48.4%	14	34.1%	29	40.3%
	Yes	15	48.4%	21	51.2%	36	50.0%

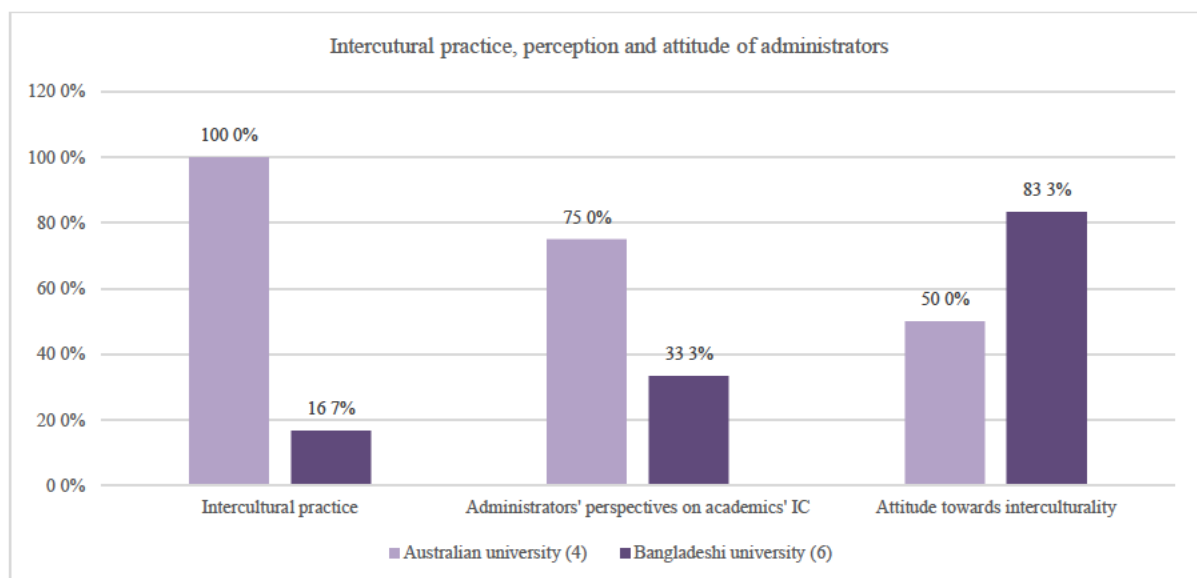
## 4.8. Qualitative data on academics' intercultural paradigms (academics' narratives and interviews with administrators)

The qualitative self-report statements of academics from the oral narratives indicated that both Australian (75%) and Bangladeshi academics (83.3%) integrated intercultural paradigms into their instructions. This finding required a thorough examination due to their inherent nature of subjectivity; therefore, academics and administrators' perspectives were triangulated, and these participants' evidence of practice was analysed within an intercultural theoretical framework.

### 4.8.1. Inductive and deductive themes on intercultural paradigms

The qualitative data from administrators' interviews revealed three deductive themes: Administrators' perspectives on academics' IC; their attitude to intercultural paradigms; and their intercultural praxis.

Regarding the thoughts of administrators on the intercultural paradigms of their academic counterparts, the majority of Australian administrators (100%) appeared to endorse their academic colleagues' interculturality (see Figure 4.6). In contrast, 16.7% of Bangladeshi administrators indicated that they were aware of the intercultural praxis of their academics. Australian administrators (75%), compared to 33.3% of Bangladeshi administrators, seemed to have a positive attitude towards IC. In terms of their intercultural praxis, the Australian administrative personnel (100%) surpassed their Bangladeshi counterparts by a significant margin.



**Figure 4.6: Administrators' practice, perception, and attitude towards interculturality.**



#### 4.8.1.1. Evidence of intercultural practice

This section investigates the respective accounts of academic and administrative professionals from the two countries in relation to intercultural paradigms.

Three Australian academics provided evidence of their intercultural praxis. Janene related that in the previous year, her university introduced IC in one of the ungraduated units and she was on the team collaborating and designing the course. To do that, Janene concentrated on social innovation and globalisation mindsets, and the interculturality of flexible minds and collaborating worldwide across diverse cultures.

In terms of intercultural practices in classrooms, I think that in our university, we have introduced into one of our first term undergraduate units, some concepts entered activities around social innovation mindsets, globalisation mindsets, and that interculturality of open-mindedness and working globally across different cultures and languages and backgrounds and people is embedded into new first-year curriculum units that I was involved in designing last year.

Michael maintained that his broad identity function as a symbol of interculturality. He considered himself to be someone who had the opportunity to study, live, and travel across: Asian and Australian Western cultures. Consequently, he regarded his identity and his hybrid role as an emblem of intercultural fluency. As for his intercultural praxis, he emphasised that when working with his students he was not surprised when his students spoke or wrote something that could not be considered standard English; in fact, he encouraged them to do so. So, for him, this was an example of taking a perspective shaped by his own identity, as a native of a different nation with a nonliving English-speaking past, while also considering the norms and expectations of the Australian culture.

Robert highlighted another aspect of interculturality and described cultural differences among learner populations and valuing the uniqueness of individual cultures. He shared his perceptions as follows:

Well, I guess through IC, which is a recognition of the differences from one learner to another differentiated instruction, how everyone's different and unique, and that everyone has their own kind of individual culture, not the national culture that they represent. But as individuals, everyone has a culture in themselves to respect differences, differentiating our teaching. That's how we kind of include interculturality in our classrooms.

From Bangladeshi participating universities, the majority of the academics provided examples of their intercultural awareness. Hira described students' first language and cultural value in intercultural practice and their eventual development of critical intercultural intelligence through reflection.

I believe that intercultural activities enable students to discuss their own cultural, linguistic, and educational experiences and perspectives with others. And it helped them to reflect critically on this as they tried to link them to their place of birth. When they talk, they are given the opportunity to discuss their cultural activities. They try to link them to their place of birth, or their family norms or social norm or expectation and language.

Due to the bilingual and multicultural nature of the English Department's materials, Obinash noted that he did not have to make many adjustments to his teaching or resources. He added that because their textbooks were written in the United States, the text settings and content were multicultural to a considerable extent. That was how, he discussed TESOL academics' materials assisting them to include multiculturalism, cultural similarities, and cultural variances in their classes.

Mahveen mentioned how intercultural ability could potentially establish a better society, and how IC could be developed through mutual respect, empathy, and a liberal approach (being non-judgemental and unbiased but rather, being respectful) towards people of other cultures.

So, we have students from different parts of the world and if you have intercultural knowledge, it promotes, it helps a lot to create a better society, I will say to respect each other's values, empathy, and open-mindedness. So, this is very important for TESOL academic's life.

While Sayeed provided evidence concerning his intercultural practice, he emphasised native-speakerism while the key to the intercultural paradigm was disregarding native cultural predominance and embracing all cultural artefacts. He reported that he sought to teach his students how to interact effectively in accordance with the dominant native culture and cultural etiquette. In Sayeed's opinion,

I try to put students in particular situations, where they use the language according to the culture of the native speakers. For example, I tried to teach them how to communicate in English properly. For example, I give them a situation where they need to contact their teachers about an emergency situation. In Bengali language, they would communicate in a different way. But, in English language, if they do not follow a certain amount of politeness or cultural etiquette,

the communication will not be successful. So, I try to include these things while I teach the language in my classroom.

Rahman argued that TESOL academics appeared to be more concerned than other academic staff about the intercultural practice at his university. TESOL academics had a good understanding of the intercultural world; hence, they endeavoured to foster interculturality. In Rahman's words,

To include interculturality in my class, I have done a few things including combing international and domestic students in the same study group, raising our awareness of cultural similarities, providing learning opportunities to reduce ethnic stereotyping and training students to be open, flexible, and mutually respectful.

Apparently all three Australian and three Bangladeshi academic staff provided pragmatic examples that reflected their intercultural understanding. While some respondents may have misunderstood the nature of the question (as evidenced, for example, by the verbatim replication of the questionnaire by one respondent).

#### *4.8.1.2. Administrators' perspectives on academics' IC*

Data collected from all three Australian administrators corroborated their academic colleagues' intercultural fluency. Jennifer shared her observation in the following manner, "I think most of the TESOL educators are well aware of the cultural practices and values. And they exercise interculturality in their teaching".

Gayle supported academics' intercultural praxis by arguing that they designed courses that incorporated intercultural dimensions, and they had to also engage in PD through the university's Human Resources Department. And they taught IC, therefore, they had to be competent in that regard. Similar to Jennifer and Gayle, John shared a positive perception,

Well, we teach the language which means our teaching is inevitably intercultural by nature. So, we learn from each other or students to have a better intercultural understanding, and we try to respect each other in terms of our cultural practice.

In contrast, data collected from Bangladeshi administrators seemed incongruous with their academics' intercultural praxis. Mrinmoyee recommended that they should practice, although she was dubious whether her academic colleagues practised interculturality or not. Shimu believed that her academic colleagues might include IC inadvertently, "I believe many of my colleagues' practice but unconsciously they do it. Being particularly aware of this very concept if they practice, it would be more beneficial".

4.8.1.3. *Administrators' attitudes towards interculturality*

Two Australian administrators showed positive attitudes towards IC. John, while valuing students' linguistic and cultural backgrounds as valuable resources facilitating IC, appeared to be critical of the prevalent attitude to students' first language. He argued that numerous schools had English-only language requirements. Instead of recognising these crucial learning assets (students' first language), they had been seeking to impose on them the expectation that their students would learn to speak English like monolingual English speakers. The prevalence of English or monolingualism, and the fact that the students were multilingual or, at the very least, bilingual, and other issues, such as critical awareness of English as the dominant language and the political implications this might have for other languages that TESOL academics needed to deconstruct. Thus, there were various vital pedagogical issues and crucial pedagogical strategies that he believed the students were expected to develop to address in their teaching. In the same manner, Jennifer explained that while practising interculturality TESOL academics might create an intercultural foundation by encompassing other cultures rather than a single dominating culture. According to her, "Some kind of being aware that we are learning English, but we do not have to succumb to teaching the native language culture. So, I really appreciate that opportunity".

Five Bangladeshi administrators had a positive disposition towards the promotion of intercultural awareness. Mrinmoyee and Aysha emphasised that they fostered intercultural mindsets in their individual departments. Shimu elaborated on the idea by indicating, "In fact, being a language teacher, intercultural teaching is vital; there is no denying this". Mohammed emphasised that the transformation of the world necessitated global citizens more than Bangladeshi citizens, hence he advised that future generations be prepared for global lives: Therefore, if we are incapable to accomplish so in a world that has transformed, we are incapable. Therefore, we must be multicultural and prepare our students to become global citizens; we cannot produce them as Bangladeshi citizens only; we must prepare our future generations for global lives.

Alam seemed to exhibit an unfavourable attitude towards IC when he reported that intercultural knowledge was unimportant in Bangladeshi circumstances. He argued that classes in Bangladesh were predominantly comprised of students of monocultural origins. He expressed his beliefs by emphasising that the issue of interculturalism in Australia and around the world was crucial. Because there were students from various cultural and regional backgrounds, social and ethnic groups, and social statuses. In Bangladesh, however, the classes

were quite homogenous. Therefore, the intercultural issue was not that significant in his context. In other contexts, such as Singapore, Canada, Malaysia, Australia, or New Zealand, it could be significant. However, this issue might not so severe here.

#### 4.8.1.4. *Administrators' intercultural practice*

The data from all four Australian administrators indicated their intercultural paradigms. Brian mentioned that he would constantly attempt to incorporate cross-cultural communication principles. He continued to explain that by mingling with people of different cultures and conversing with them about their origins and customs, as well as their respective cultures, one might gain a greater understanding of the world. Jennifer, when describing her intercultural understanding, underlined the unique role of students' diverse cultural backgrounds:

We give them the materials and encourage them to investigate, for example, adapting the teaching material so that it brings the local culture into the teaching practice of the preservice teacher, for example, if the students are from China, we encourage them to include the Chinese culture in their language session.

Gayle adopted a comparative approach in which she accommodated discussion of how an activity was conducted in students' culture and how that could be performed in an international setting and how did it vary based on diverse ethnic customs. John, like other Australian administrators, underlined the unique value of individuals' cultural backgrounds. Despite this, John was able to focus on a new aspect of IC in which he highlighted the creation of a space for critical reflection on the entire experience of comparison exercises.

We need to treat students' cultural backgrounds, as resources for learning and teaching as it has great potential for enriching the teaching process rather than a hindrance to effective teaching. So, we encourage students of different cultural backgrounds to share their own understanding and experiences. Through this kind of sharing, we create a kind of space where different students can ask and reflect. We can reflect on the perceptions we have about something, and then we can sort of try to compare our assumptions with the alternative assumptions that different people can have a particular issue.

In contrast, a Bangladeshi administrative employee indicated her multicultural sensitivity: Shimu suggested that TESOL academics should respect different cultures and seek to assimilate students' cultural identities. She continued by arguing that the classroom should be a place of diverse viewpoints. The following excerpt reflected Shimu's perception:

Linguistic realities of different cultures should be integrated into a classroom in a way that goes beyond potentially any boundaries. So, a broader perspective should be focused on when we will be critically aware of this intercultural concept. In fact, the very arts to know about this concept is intercultural awareness, this pedagogy that is taking a new paradigm shift, this should be addressed first, because cultural context, and people's language dynamics, are not taken seriously.

#### 4.9. *Quantitative data on critical evaluations (academics' questionnaire)*

This section evaluates the data relating to the predominant PD approaches in Australian and Bangladeshi universities. Ten factors were available for selection from (1-4 points) Likert scales: Strongly disagree, Disagree, Agree and Strongly agree in the given questionnaire.

Table 4.7 presents the crosstabulation results performed in SPSS. The crosstab findings revealed that Australian academics assessed that *Available professional developments are up-to-date, needs-based, relevant, and positively impact my classroom practices*. On the other hand, Bangladeshi academics positive assessment included *Available professional developments are relevant and contextualised*. In summary, out of ten question prompts, Australian and Bangladeshi academics tended to optimistically evaluate four and two components respectively.

**Table 4.7: Australian and Bangladeshi TESOL academics' critical evaluations of the current PD practices.**

Critical evaluations		Australian university		Bangladeshi university		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Available professional developments are relevant	Agree	22	71.0%	32	78.0%	54	75.0%
	Disagree	5	16.1%	6	14.6%	11	15.3%
	Strongly agree	4	12.9%	2	4.9%	6	8.3%
	Strongly disagree	0	0.0%	1	2.4%	1	1.4%
Available professional developments are contextualised	Agree	21	67.7%	31	75.6%	52	72.2%
	Disagree	8	25.8%	8	19.5%	16	22.2%
	Strongly agree	2	6.5%	1	2.4%	3	4.2%
	Strongly disagree	0	0.0%	1	2.4%	1	1.4%
Available professional developments are need-based	Agree	23	74.2%	24	58.5%	47	65.3%
	Disagree	8	25.8%	12	29.3%	20	27.8%
	Strongly agree	0	0.0%	4	9.8%	4	5.6%
	Strongly disagree	0	0.0%	1	2.4%	1	1.4%
Available professional developments are up-to-date	Agree	25	80.6%	16	39.0%	41	56.9%
	Disagree	4	12.9%	22	53.7%	26	36.1%
	Strongly agree	2	6.5%	2	4.9%	4	5.6%
	Strongly disagree	0	0.0%	1	2.4%	1	1.4%
Available professional developments positively impact my classroom practices	Agree	22	71.0%	19	46.3%	41	56.9%
	Disagree	5	16.1%	13	31.7%	18	25.0%
	Strongly agree	3	9.7%	8	19.5%	11	15.3%
	Strongly disagree	1	3.2%	1	2.4%	2	2.8%
Available professional developments help build cultural awareness and cultural sensitivity	Agree	16	51.6%	21	51.2%	37	51.4%
	Disagree	14	45.2%	11	26.8%	25	34.7%
	Strongly agree	1	3.2%	5	12.2%	6	8.3%
	Strongly disagree	0	0.0%	4	9.8%	4	5.6%
One-off professional trainings are effective	Agree	18	58.1%	23	56.1%	41	56.9%
	Disagree	11	35.5%	12	29.3%	23	31.9%
	Strongly agree	1	3.2%	5	12.2%	6	8.3%
	Strongly disagree	1	3.2%	1	2.4%	2	2.8%
Short-term professional developments conferences/seminars/workshops are more like recreation gatherings than real PD platforms	Agree	7	22.6%	19	46.3%	26	36.1%
	Disagree	20	64.5%	16	39.0%	36	50.0%
	Strongly agree	1	3.2%	3	7.3%	4	5.6%
	Strongly disagree	3	9.7%	3	7.3%	6	8.3%
Online professional trainings are interactive	Agree	20	64.5%	18	43.9%	38	52.8%
	Disagree	9	29.0%	21	51.2%	30	41.7%
	Strongly agree	1	3.2%	1	2.4%	2	2.8%
	Strongly disagree	1	3.2%	1	2.4%	2	2.8%
The contents of online professional developments are superficial	Agree	7	22.6%	15	36.6%	22	30.6%
	Disagree	20	64.5%	24	58.5%	44	61.1%
	Strongly agree	0	0.0%	1	2.4%	1	1.4%
	Strongly disagree	4	12.9%	1	2.4%	5	6.9%

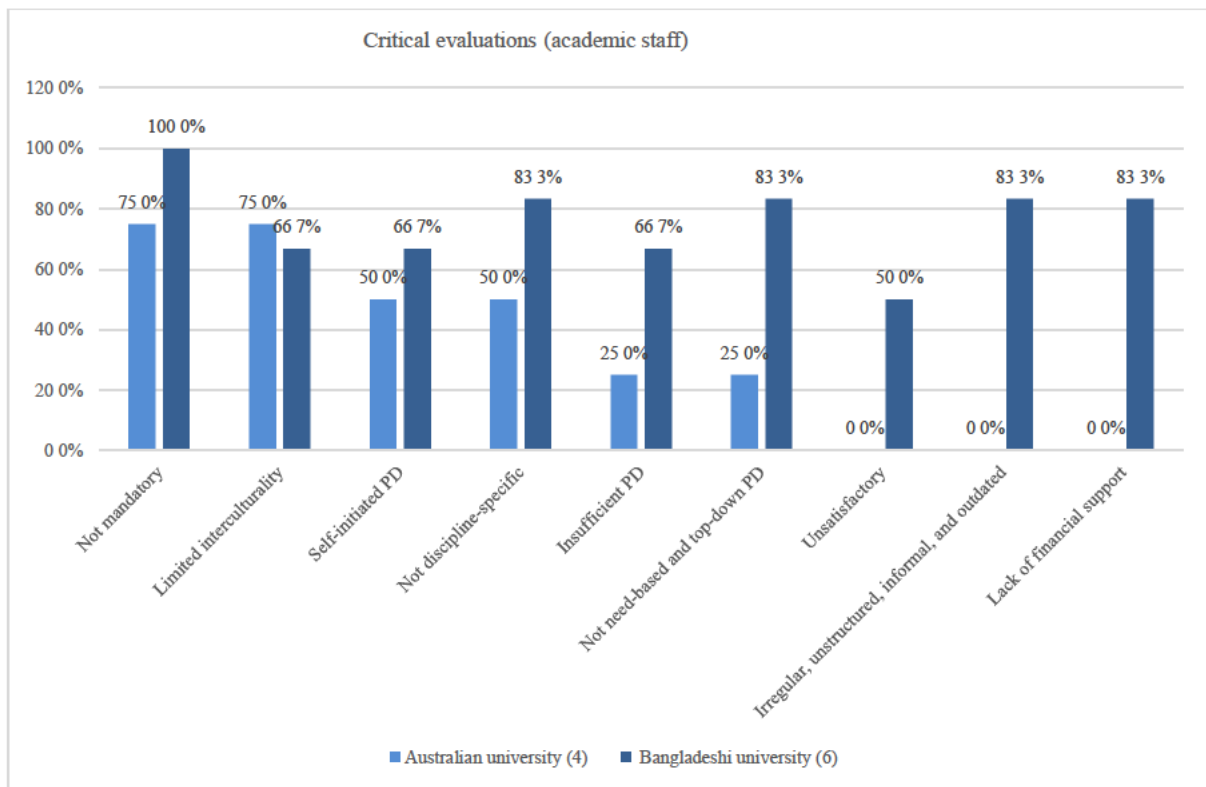
#### 4.10. Qualitative data on critical evaluations (academics' narratives and interviews with administrators)

Australian and Bangladeshi academics assessed their current PD condition as voluntary, and no participating academics raised any issue with that. Among administrators, however, there were arguments for and against mandatory PD. While some administrators (Mawla and Shimu) argued that obligatory PD could improve outcomes because their academic colleagues were busy with their second job and politics, others (Brian and Mrinmoyee)

countered by describing obligatory PD as “tick-boxy” and unnecessary for university-level teachers.

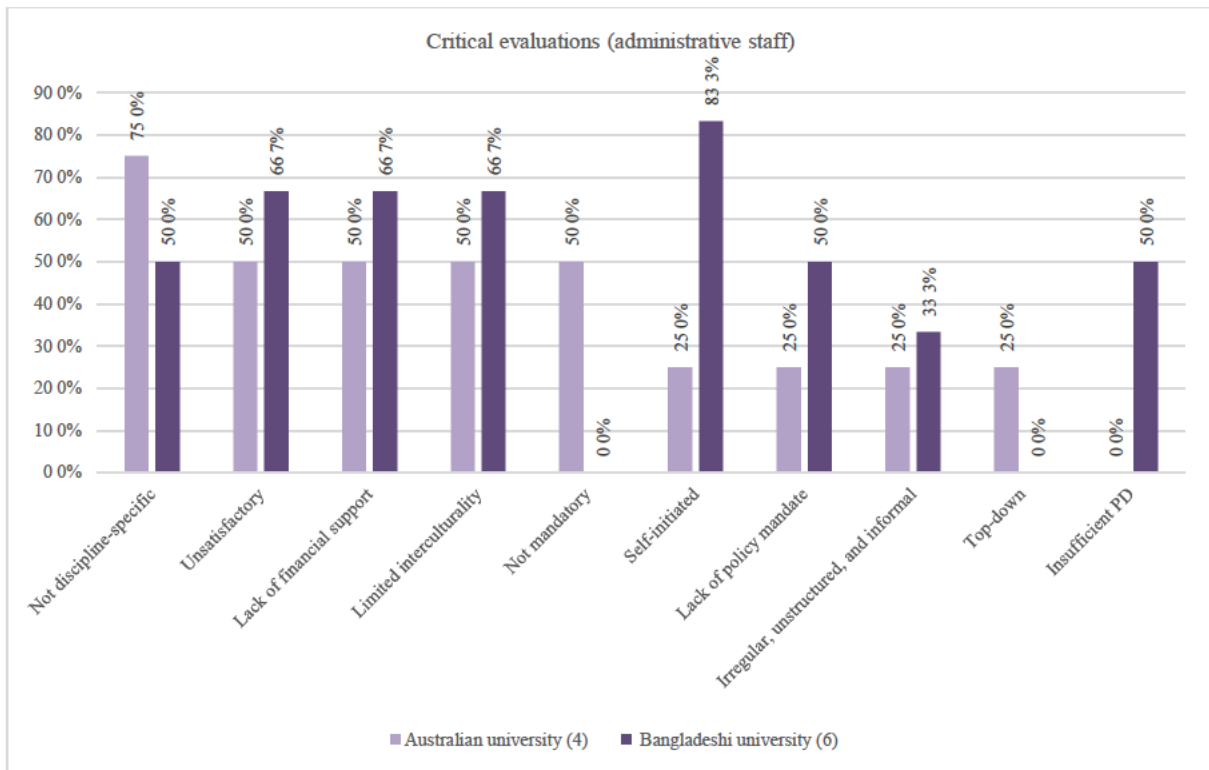
In broad terms, Australian and Bangladeshi academics evaluated contemporary PD status in a comparable manner: Australian academics showed significant concerns about *Limited interculturality*, *Not discipline-specific* and *Self-initiated PD* (refer to Figure 4.7). The evaluations from the two countries differed widely in that Bangladeshi academics tended to select *Irregular, unstructured, informal, and not updated*, *Not needs-based* and *top-down PD*, and *Lack of financial support* and *Unsatisfactory PD*.

In the majority of instances, Australian administrators concurred with their academic colleagues; however, in contrast to their academic counterparts, they expressed discontent with *Unsatisfactory PD* and *Lack of Financial Support*. Similarly to Australian administrators, Bangladeshi administrators accorded credence to their academics’ self-reports, albeit with varying percentages (refer to Figure 4.8).



**Figure 4.7: Critical evaluations on the current PD status of Australian and Bangladeshi academics.**





**Figure 4.8: Critical evaluations on the current PD status of Australian and Bangladeshi administrators.**

#### 4.10.1. Critical evaluations (inductive and deductive themes)

From the academics' narratives, the researcher generated six identical and three distinct deductive codes (in the contexts of each participating nation) for this core inductive code 'critical evaluation'. In addition, interview data revealed eight interconnected and two distinct deductive codes. These codes were incorporated into a cohesive research report that enabled repeated comparisons and facilitated a holistic perspective of the most prevalent critical appraisals of the contemporary PD environments.

##### 4.10.1.1. Not mandatory

Three Australian participants reported that existing professional advancement provisions in their corresponding universities were not compulsory.

Janene argued that PD training was not mandatory in the TESOL area. Michael maintained that this was not obligatory at the university level. Individuals were encouraged to participate in the university's numerous PD programmes, but participation is voluntary. Along a similar line, Robert maintained, "...we self-identify what kind of PD needs we have, sometimes with consultation with our performance supervisors, but they're not mandatory".

Similarly to their Australian counterparts, all six Bangladeshi academics emphasised that they had fewer PD opportunities, and attendances were not mandatory at all.

Similarly to Australian academics, two Australian administrators observed that PD options were largely optional. Brian and Jennifer indicated that they provided opportunities for participation in voluntary activities. Jennifer emphasised, “We do not have any mandatory training. That is the first thing, all of our training and workshops are optional from our end”.

#### 4.10.1.2. *Limited interculturality*

Three Australian academics pointed to the limited IC support prevalent in Australian universities.

Michael observed that his university was not particularly international, despite the fact that its vision of valuing the diversity of its students, languages, and cultures espoused its internationalism. He was critical of his university’s approach to English competence. For instance, he believed that focusing entirely on the English language skills of international students was a deficient attitude. While Michael opposed his university’s exclusive focus on English proficiency examinations for international students, Barbara questioned her institution’s restricted approach to IC. She continued that academics did not identify and emphasise the necessity for the development of broader IC for the future. Barbara shared her perceptions by emphasising on the limited number of undergraduate courses designed to train teachers for intercultural diversity, the current emphasis is on teaching awareness of Indigenous inclusion, while training teachers for the EAL requirements of students in schools receives less attention.

Four Bangladeshi academics expressed similar perspectives to that of their Australian contemporaries indicating limited support towards IC resulting in low interculturality. Sayeed reported that he did not perceive teachers’ intercultural practices in this university because mostly the students were from the same cultural background. Arif also offered a comparable justification by sharing the information that IC was unavailable. His institution did not engage in intercultural practices. Since, at his university, almost all of the students and faculty shared a similar cultural background and origins. Consequently, there was insufficient cultural diversity to warrant concern regarding intercultural practices.

Afterwards, he appeared to have contradicted his earlier statement and maintained that learners from other regions of the nation attended their classes. They had diverse socioeconomic backgrounds. Thus, certain cultural differences might be seen in the classrooms, but they had minimal impact on the perceptions of the interculturality of TESOL academics. Notwithstanding the fact that the institution did not assist in the promotion of

TESOL academics' IC, Hira emphasised that academics practised in their own way. Obinash also highlighted self-initiated intercultural paradigms in his instruction. According to his perception,

I think academics are left to their own devices; they're expected to do things their own way. In some cases, we are expected to advise others, and guide others. Many of our teachers have had international exposure, and our content is multicultural anyway, so you just can expect that we already know about it. So, the university does not really provide support in this regard.

According to Brian and John, there was considerable intercultural training regarding Australian Indigenous culture. Brian saw that there was official training on intercultural conversation, curriculum digitisation, and how to properly interact with Indigenous people. Similarly to Brian, John referred to Indigenous cultural training:

Yes, I think that recently, largely, the need to be aware of Indigenous and Aboriginal students' experiences at the university. And so, we have this intercultural understanding module for academics.

Similarly to Bangladeshi academics Sayeed and Arif, an administrator (Alam) did not see the importance of intercultural ability in his university atmosphere as just a few Indigenous students attended his classes. He expressed his thoughts in the following manner:

We have some tribal students in our class, we are welcoming some foreign students, and when our university grows into a multicultural university, we will obviously consider these issues, but currently, it's not a serious issue in our context.

Unlike Alam, Mawla and Mrinmoyee evidenced an optimistic attitude towards intercultural communication and argued that IC was necessary for the development of global citizens. Yet, they did not see any intercultural paradigms at their respective universities. They backed their arguments by illustrating that neither the plan nor the course material emphasised intercultural elements. Shimu felt that many of her colleagues engaged in unintentional IC praxis, however she did not elaborate how their colleagues were practicing IC unintentionally. It would be more advantageous if they practiced with a heightened awareness of this particular topic.

#### *4.10.1.3. Self-initiated PD*

Two Australian academics appraised their PD engagement as self-directed. Michael reported that the entire emphasis was placed on discipline professionals. They were responsible

for their own professional progress, was the message they received. Barbara, another veteran academic also maintained,

PD is oriented towards the attainment of universal risk aversion across the institution. Academics' PD is an individual's privilege to pursue and justify evidence-based performance to the management of the department as there are financial implications of time away and interim replacements.

Once or twice per year, according to Hira, her university hosted PD sessions. Hence, TESOL academics developed independently. Rahman added that TESOL academic's professional enrichment depended on them. Obinash summarised,

To be honest, I don't know of any system that is in place. I believe when it comes to professional development, it is up to the teachers themselves, to look after themselves, and look after their own development.

Arif had a similar viewpoint to that of Obinash. He emphasised the need for self-education and self-experience in the formation and maturity of competent TESOL practitioners. That was his perceived opinion, not only of his university but also of the majority of universities in Bangladesh.

John, an Australian administrator, corroborated the data from academic colleagues by arguing that academics' PD depended on how individuals attempted to organise something for themselves.

The thing I think, in most Australian universities, when you got into university, it all seems to be your own responsibility to deal with the current challenges unless there is a significant event like a pandemic, and then the university may introduce something.

Contrary to the perspectives that emerged from Australian administrators, all five Bangladeshi administrators perceived that academics' development was a result of their self-learning and self-efforts. Aysha supposed that academics' PD was managed largely informally by them. She underlined that there was a significant amount of self-learning, comparable to students. Alam shared a parallel observation and emphasised that they lacked PD programmes, and teachers were building their own professionalism by taking their own measures. Along a similar line, Mohammed added, "In public universities, every individual teacher is responsible for his or her own PD".

Mrinmoyee further remarked that teachers “rely on themselves” for their professional enhancement. Finally, Shimu emphasised,

Okay, in a setup like ours, there is a concept, that is self-learning. We need to be autonomous learners. We have to have that urge deep inside that I want to grow as a good academic, I have to focus on my PD, and I have to focus on my weaknesses and strengths so that I can grow through personal initiatives.

#### 4.10.1.4. *Not discipline-specific*

Janene narrated that her institution did not have many internal offerings of PD. But they also had access to online learning options and hybrid types of PD. Since COVID had been in place for the past two years or more, they had not had any face-to-face meetings or travel for PD. They attended some live conferences, although she could not recall any that were specifically oriented to TESOL. Hence, Janene identified this (no discipline-specific opportunity) as a PD challenge, “We have a lot of internal PDs offered within my university, around a lot of topics. Not so much around TESOL”.

Michael also deemed *Not Discipline-specific* opportunity as a PD failure. Michael emphasised that there was institution organising teaching-learning activities in a variety of areas, including the use of technology, curriculum design, rubric creation, evaluation, and other activities at his university. They offered PD activities throughout the year, and participation was encouraged. However, none of these activities was necessarily for TESOL academics only, rather they were universal PD platforms, open for all to participate. Michael cited an example supporting his observation:

If I want to learn something, which is directly related to my field, I couldn't find anything here. For example, I want to learn more about how we can incorporate the new varieties of English that we are talking about and how we can incorporate those ideas into our teaching, we don't have anything related to that.

Concerning discipline-specific PD, Mahveen observed that not all the PD events were useful to her academic enrichment. Activities that were truly centred on language programmes or the development of language teachers helped TESOL academics, which was why she believed that the programmes held by the Institute of Modern Language (IML) and some by the Institute of Education and Research (IER) were beneficial and of great use to them. Those were the institutions under the largest university in Bangladesh promoting TESOL education and research. While critiquing common platforms for PD, Arif illustrated,

We don't have any systematic plan or programme for TESOL academics. What happens in our university that is the teachers of all the departments, and academics will be from our faculty, they could be from business faculty or from science and technology. Hence, all the teachers are brought under some common training programmes, and they are given some basic ideas about classroom pedagogy, syllabus, curriculum, testing, assessment, and all these things.

Sayed had similar perceptions of PD offerings at his university. In his opinion, often the programmes emphasised the STEM disciplines, and the content of these events was not very pertinent to his areas of interest or competence. Therefore, he sometimes felt bored and demotivated when he attended these events since he believed they might be tailored to the needs of various faculties.

Similarly to academic counterparts, all four Australian administrators: Jennifer, Brian, John and Gayle reported that there was almost no PD exclusively for TESOL academics. They had access to a series of generic PD opportunities, however, there was nothing offered particularly to address TESOL academics' special PD requirements.

We've had one or two PD sessions about adult learning and how to create learning spaces, but it wasn't specifically for TESOL teachers. There are not many specific TESOL PD opportunities.

Following Australian academics and administrators, three Bangladeshi administrators concentrated on almost no PD targeting TESOL academics' needs. Mohammed explained, "Yes, it is a common platform. There is no specific training for TESOL teachers at our university".

#### *4.10.1.5. Not needs-based and top-down*

Both Sayeed and Rahman believed that their universities' PD activities should reflect academics' needs. According to Mahveen,

Though we had all these workshops, they were not designed according to our needs. If they followed a particular structure, they would have identified our needs first. After identifying our needs, if all those workshops and seminars were organised, that would have helped us to develop ourselves more as professionals.

Hira perceived that "unfortunately, I do not observe a system for keeping track of academics' demands, and it is alarming that all choices are taken by governing party members".

John shared a comparable perception to that of Hira when he reported that the PD activities at his universities were determined by the administration and were, therefore, top-down initiatives.

#### *4.10.1.6. Insufficient PD*

One Australian academic expressed discontent with the inadequacy of current PD provisions. Michael stressed that he would like to learn a great deal more, “In terms of the sufficiency of existing provisions, definitely I would like to learn many more things. Of course, it depends on how you define your needs”.

In contrast, four Bangladeshi academics were concerned over the insufficiency of PD provisions in their corresponding universities. Rahman indicated that PD opportunities at his university were neither obligatory nor adequate. Likewise, Mahveen maintained that they were not mandatory, and she would not claim that they were adequate. Sayeed also argued that the PD programmes available for teachers at his current university were insufficient. Obinash captured the essence and illustrated, “There is not much support really. If I said, there is no support, that wouldn’t be appropriate. I believe there is some support, but it’s not enough or adequate”.

Regarding insufficient PD, administrators from Bangladeshi universities observed that there were not sufficient PD opportunities for academics. While indicating that there was insufficient PD available for academics’ professional upskilling, Mrinmoyee shared her thoughts:

I don’t think that is enough for TESOL academics’ PD. But I think compared to the last 10 years when there was not anything, now there is something happening for teachers’ PD. And I’m hopeful that the situation will change very soon.

Alam observed that his academic colleagues were managing despite the lack of PD opportunities for their professional learning. Mawla shared a comparable thought, “There are few opportunities, but they are insufficient in comparison to the number of teachers; they must be increased”.

#### *4.10.1.7. Irregular, unstructured, informal, and outdated*

Five Bangladeshi academics emphasised that the contemporary PD provisions in Bangladeshi universities were largely irregular, unstructured, and informal. Arif maintained that his university did not provide academics with coordinated PD opportunities. According to

his report, “For a critical assessment of the existing PD picture in our university, I’d say that there is no well-structured PD system right now”.

Hira reported that “unfortunately, we do not receive any academic professional development”. She continued that academics at her university did not find any framework for teachers’ PD. Mahveen indicated that she would argue that it existed and aided in the development of instructors, but it was not very structured. Even though they had workshops, they were not regular, or she would say that they did not adhere to any particular format. Rahman emphasised that “occasional PD activities” were provided by his university. Later, he elaborated on his observation that:

Okay, the current PD picture of my university is not satisfactory to me. Currently, this university is providing very few PD opportunities to teachers. The PD activities are carried out by the university irregularly and most PD activities are not up to date in terms of TESOL academics’ PD needs. And moreover, due to a lack of financial support, incentives, time constraint, and lack of motivation, TESOL teachers are being deprived of their much-needed professional development.

Similarly to other academics in Bangladesh, Obinash noted that “there was no particular structure...everything was informal”. Rahman reported that his university occasionally organised PD events; however, these PD activities were not updated.

Two administrators from Bangladesh acknowledged contributing to the PD of their academics through casual interactions. Aysha emphasised that everything was informal and that there were no formalised measures for the development of academics’ professional character under the present PD norms. The following quotation reflected Aysha’s opinion:

Informally, I think, it is addressed. Indirectly, we do train our junior colleagues by talking to them when we meet. For instance, through the academic committee meetings, or when we are working together, when we are preparing and moderating question papers, we interact with each other and that’s how there is a lot of learning happens.

Alam appeared to share Aysha’s thoughts, although he was representing a university in an entirely other division of Bangladesh. The following excerpt captured Alam’s thoughts:

Basically, we do not have any structured programme, but we informally talk to each other, we have group discussions among the teachers, and we talk about different issues among the teachers. And this is how we actually try to develop ourselves in our profession.



The contemporary PD status was largely described as irregular and unstructured by one Australian participant. John felt that PD at his university was somewhat haphazard, scattered, and random. Furthermore, there was no specific time or hour requirement for PD. John expressed his observation in the following manner:

Everything seems to be a bit ad hoc, spread out, and sporadic. And there's no set amount of time or hours required, not even by the professional associations. For instance, we have Australian Association for Planning Groups, but they don't really mandate certain hours for members to take...there's no compulsory attendance, that even has to do with the Australian TESOL Association.

Alam and Aysha, both from Bangladeshi universities, emphasised the identical tendency of existing PD regulations. Aysha demonstrated that self-improvement is more important than formal PD delivered on a regular basis, "The current PD has a great deal to do with self-improvement, rather than regular structured professional growth".

#### *4.10.1.8. Lack of financial support*

Five Bangladeshi academics were seen to address the lack of institutional support. Hira was displeased with the current level of institutional assistance at her university. Later, she elaborated:

We think that we can take on a new challenge in our current position, we can apply for various projects, long-term projects or short-term projects, it is our own responsibility. Sometimes they sponsor something, the other time they don't.

Mahveen expressed a parallel perception about the paucity of institutional support concerning research grants, international conferences, and other related constructs. She suggested that you would feel driven if the university offered you financial aid. Teachers wished to travel, but their institution failed to provide adequate funding for them to attend seminars, workshops, and conferences; they needed this type of assistance. Obinash illustrated more concretely,

How much do you probably need- around two lakhs, and you get 30,000 BDT from the university so in that case, what do you do? If you really want to go, you give from your own pocket so that's a huge challenge, attending international seminars and conferences.

Rahman appeared to summarise the dearth of institutional support that he perceived ranging from a lack of PD opportunity to no need's assessment, from lack of incentives to a low research grant. The following excerpt represented Rahman's thoughts:

Lack of financial support or incentives for the PD programmes, and lack of opportunities to participate in international seminars or conferences. TESOL academics are unable to find a proper institutional platform to inform the PD needs, unable to find any Institutional Teachers Training Programme. Moreover, they find very low research grants, and importantly; time, very limited time that they can use for their PD because of the overburdened class loads and other responsibilities.

Unlike Australian academics, Australian administrators deemed limited financial support as problematic. John referred to post-pandemic financial difficulties. All of these things, such as requesting leave, paying a fee, and receiving funding for conference attendance, were becoming increasingly difficult because universities were experiencing financial difficulties. It used to be a reality, as part of PD, there existed a mechanism for providing incentives for all of these activities, such as the expiration of conference leave grants. According to John,

All these things are getting a bit increasingly difficult like wanting leave, wanting fee, giving you grants for conference participation, this is becoming increasingly limited because university having a difficult financial time. So, the conference leave grants having to be up, it used to be a reality, like part of professional development reality, that there was a structure for providing incentives with all these things.

When discussing the lack of departmental budgetary allowance allowing them to remain independent, Brian held similar views:

In fact, at our department level or Institute level, we don't have any financial authority or any allocation and budget department level right now. But central university authority has some research fund which is given to only one or two colleagues per faculty per year. So, this is very scant and not sufficient.

Similarly to Brian, a Bangladeshi administrator focused on budgetary restrictions and particularly on the lack of departmental budgets, allowing administrative personnel to provide financial assistance for academics' continuing education. Mrinmoyee described the nature of financial barriers and the available financial aid at her university in the following manner:

In all universities, actually, the department cannot fund anything for academics' PD, because the department doesn't have any funds for it. 50% fund is granted by the university, and the UGC offers some scholarships for research and training throughout the year. I have also heard that universities fund 50% of research activities to very few, like one year for a single academic.

Aysha reported an absence of incentives for academics' professional upskilling. As a result, motivation fell to a low level. Aysha believed that the university might reimburse a percentage of their expenses, such as airfare if they travel to India or neighbouring countries to present a paper. Likewise, Mohammad sketched a widespread financial aid condition at his university. His institution refunded him only 22,000 BDT, despite the fact that he spent close to 100,000 BDT on his trip to Thailand. Due to the inadequate remuneration structure, he argued that it was nearly impossible for Bangladeshi professors to go to other nations. Alam appeared to have captured the essence of the financial support structure when he remarked:

We offer them some sort of financial aid, for example, travel grant within the sub-continent countries. There is a rate for the sub-continent countries, and there is another rate for outside sub-continent countries. Sometimes, we offer them registration charges. So, this is the way institutions actually support academics' PD.

#### *4.10.1.9. Unsatisfactory PD*

Two Australian administrators (John and Gayle) appraised the current PD status to be "unsatisfactory". Presumably, Gayle captured the essence and illustrated, "I think PD for TESOL teachers is falling behind across the world. I have marked several doctoral theses over the past five years that have come from other countries. And the messages are the same".

Moreover, four Bangladeshi administrators deemed the prevailing PD state to be unsatisfactory. Aysha assigned a "minimum grade" to the existing PD approach at her university. Mrinmoyee elaborated by indicating that she would not give the university, department, or institution a high ranking if she were to appraise their PD offerings. Mrinmoyee was not convinced that the institution, despite its intelligence, supplied the academics with the necessary PD:

But if I want to assess the university, the department I mean, and the institution, I do not want to give them a good category. I don't think the institution, being smart, is providing things necessary as academics' PD.

Mohammed indicated that the existing PD condition was not at all satisfactory. We did not participate in any PD activities. Alam emphasised that their PD journey did not begin at all. According to him, "I think it's not up to the mark. Even in some sense, we haven't started yet".

#### 4.10.1.10. Lack of policy mandate

One Australian administrator raised concerns over the lack of a policy mandate creating a functional PD state for TESOL academics. John reported the value of policy specification in regard to ensuring PD provisions, even for a particular group. He believed that without any clear policy specification, the institution would not address a certain group of academics' (e.g., TESOL academics) needs.

Bangladeshi administrators were more concerned than their Australian counterparts that there was no policy mandate for academics' PD and that the absence of policies allowed instructors to neglect their responsibilities. Mawla regarded the lack of policy specificity as the primary factor aggravating academics' PD conditions in Bangladeshi universities. Shimu elaborated that the main university administrators were unconcerned about the need for their lecturers to participate in such PD events. Aysha, on the other hand, was dissatisfied with the poorly defined policies about the indifferent attitude of some academics towards their academic positions in Bangladeshi public universities. According to her perception,

I say this with a lot of regrets that at university, once you become an academic, there are a lot of guarantees that you will not be sacked for the negligence of your duties, for not coming to class regularly or say for instance, five days a week, teachers select three days or two days to come, and they will not come the other four days or three days. And then if I have some work, and I need that teacher X Y Z, she or he (mostly she) will say that "No, I can't, I don't come those days".

### 4.11. Quantitative data on proposed improvements (academics' questionnaire)

This section focuses on improvements offered by academics to effect changes in their PD procedures through a questionnaire (Appendix B). Overall, Australian academics and Bangladeshi academics proposed similar improvements: *Current PD should consider day-to-day work challenges and be more needs-based, aim at disbursing the most recent developments of the academia, take account of contexts in which they operate and be made more relevant.* The perceptions differed slightly while Bangladeshi academics recommended that *Current PD provisions should be guided by research and made effective, and Short-term conferences/seminars/workshops should enhance teachers' collaboration and professional dialogue* as presented in Table 4.8. Fundamentally, TESOL academics recommended that PD

should be needs-based, modern, contextually appropriate, relevant, research-driven and collaborative.

**Table 4.8: Australian and Bangladeshi TESOL academics' proposed improvements on the current PD practices.**

Suggestions for improvements		Australian university		Bangladeshi university		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Current professional developments should be made more relevant	Agree	20	64.5%	18	43.9%	38	52.8%
	Disagree	5	16.1%	1	2.4%	6	8.3%
	Strongly Agree	6	19.4%	22	53.7%	28	38.9%
Current professional developments should take account of contexts in which they operate	Agree	19	61.3%	15	36.6%	34	47.2%
	Disagree	2	6.5%	1	2.4%	3	4.2%
	Strongly Agree	10	32.3%	25	61.0%	35	48.6%
Current professional developments should consider day-to-day work challenges and be more need-based	Agree	21	67.7%	16	39.0%	37	51.4%
	Disagree	2	6.5%	0	0.0%	2	2.8%
	Strongly Agree	8	25.8%	25	61.0%	33	45.8%
Current professional developments should aim at disbursing most recent developments of the academia	Agree	21	67.7%	16	39.0%	37	51.4%
	Disagree	3	9.7%	0	0.0%	3	4.2%
	Strongly Agree	7	22.6%	25	61.0%	32	44.4%
Current professional developments' provisions should be guided by research and be made effective	Agree	17	54.8%	14	34.1%	31	43.1%
	Disagree	2	6.5%	0	0.0%	2	2.8%
	Strongly Agree	12	38.7%	27	65.9%	39	54.2%
Professional development schemes should focus on enhancing intercultural practices of academics	Agree	15	48.4%	23	56.1%	38	52.8%
	Disagree	1	3.2%	0	0.0%	1	1.4%
	Strongly Agree	15	48.4%	18	43.9%	33	45.8%
Short-term professional developments conferences/seminars/workshops should enhance teachers' collaboration and open dialogue	Agree	18	58.1%	16	39.0%	34	47.2%
	Strongly Agree	13	41.9%	25	61.0%	38	52.8%
Online professional trainings should be more like a two-way conversation than a monologue	Agree	13	41.9%	17	41.5%	30	41.7%
	Disagree	2	6.5%	0	0.0%	2	2.8%
	Strongly Agree	14	45.2%	24	58.5%	38	52.8%
	Strongly disagree	2	6.5%	0	0.0%	2	2.8%
Virtual professional development platforms should aim at discussing pros and cons of any relevant topic	Agree	18	58.1%	24	58.5%	42	58.3%
	Disagree	2	6.5%	0	0.0%	2	2.8%
	Strongly Agree	10	32.3%	17	41.5%	27	37.5%
	Strongly disagree	1	3.2%	0	0.0%	1	1.4%

### 4.12. Qualitative data on proposed improvements (academics' narratives and interviews with administrators)

The findings of crosstabulation (refer to Figure 4.9) on academics' narrative data revealed that Australian and Bangladeshi academics proposed *Support towards intercultural practice* and PD responsibility should be borne by both the institutions and individuals, hence, it should be a *Joint responsibility*, and there should be *Discipline-specific PD* addressing their specific disciplinary needs. The recommendations diverged when Bangladeshi academics, suggested *Systematic and regular, Increasing incentives and research funds, Needs-based PD, In-service PD, University should support collaboration, Workshops, conferences, and seminars and Peer-observation and Mentoring*.

With two front-line academics' proposals, Australian administrators appeared to concur: *Support towards intercultural practice and Discipline-specific PD* and they proposed a new suggestion, *Raising awareness of needs* (refer to Figure 4.10). Bangladeshi administrators, in the majority of instances appeared to agree with their academic contemporaries and suggested a new improvement *Increasing PD number*.

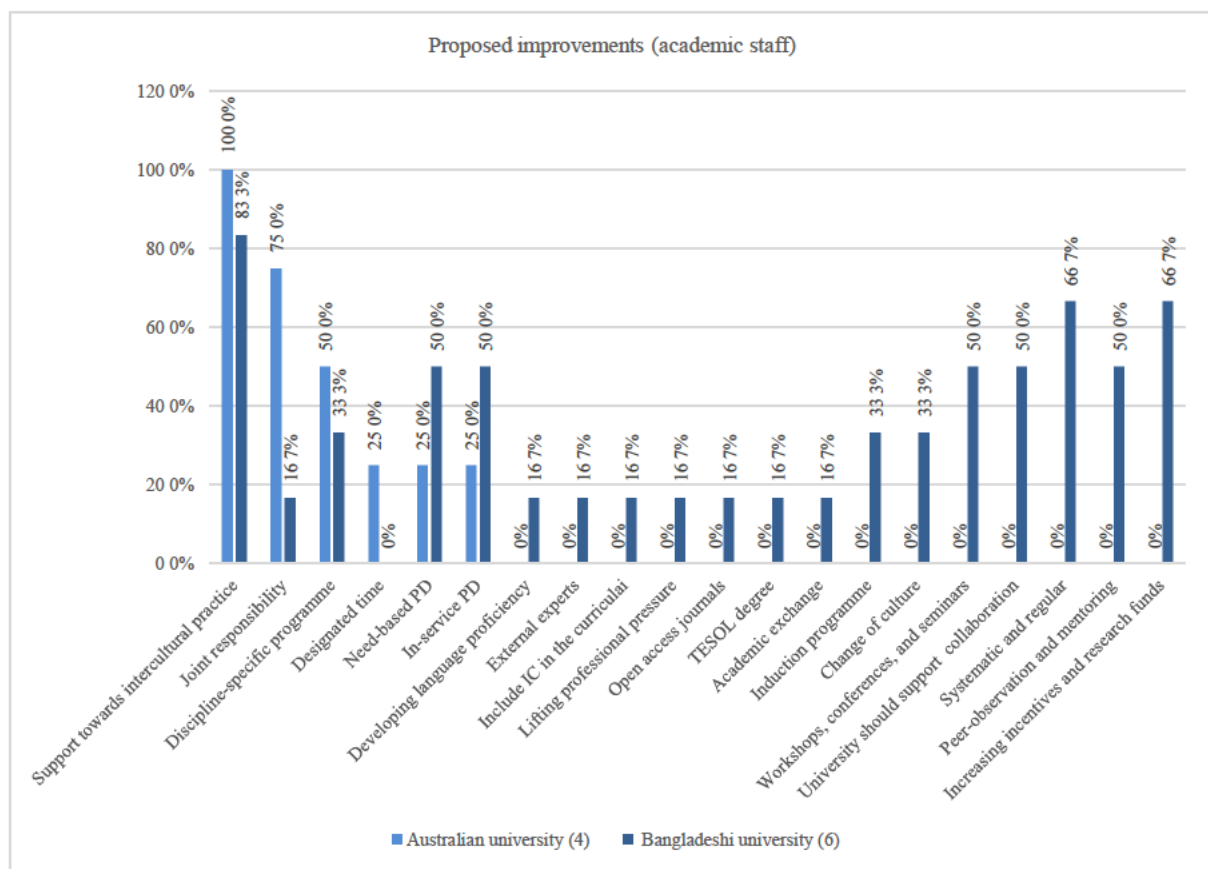
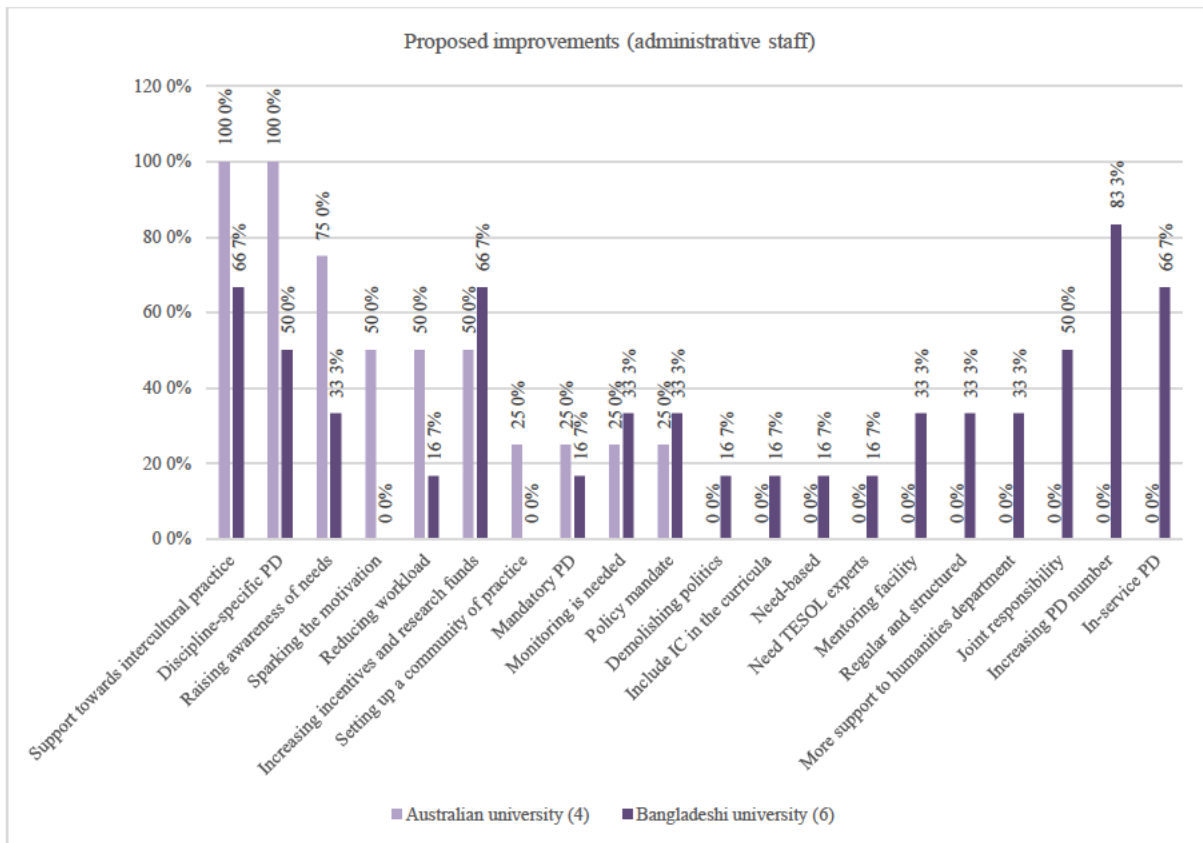


Figure 4. 9: Proposed improvements offered by Australian and Bangladeshi academics.



**Figure 4.10: Proposed improvements offered by Australian and Bangladeshi administrators.**

#### 4.12.1. Inductive and deductive themes on proposed improvements

From academics' perspectives, five identical and fifteen different deductive codes (in the contexts of each participant nation) emerged for this essential inductive code "suggestions for improvements". In addition, interview data revealed eight interwoven and twelve separate deductive codes. These code sets were merged into a unified research report that allowed for repeated comparisons and the creation of a comprehensive list of improvements.

##### 4.12.1.1. Support towards intercultural practice

Three Australian academics appeared to be dissatisfied and revealed that while current support of intercultural practice incorporated Australian Indigenous perspectives, it often neglected to do so for other cultures. The following excerpt captured Janene's perception:

We certainly have Indigenisation of our curriculum as well, where the history and whatnot of Indigenous Australia are being built into many of our units across universities as well.

Robert mentioned that his university fostered interculturality by arranging adequate PD programmes for academics. Michael indicated that his university was not doing enough in this space due to their preoccupation with learners' English proficiency. Barbara appeared to summarise,

The university is being guided to recognise that in a multicultural university, those academics with TESOL qualifications have valuable input to PD for their colleagues and themselves to lift English language comprehension and production expression standards. Academics from a range of ethnic backgrounds will be in a position to offer substantially greater input for all to benefit than has hitherto been considered.

Similar to Australian academics, five Bangladeshi academics seemed to be dissatisfied that the university hardly promoted IC. They indicated that there was scarcely any contribution on the part of universities towards achieving this objective. Rather academics were left to their own discretion whether they fostered intercultural dimensions in classes. Mahveen suggested that patronage from universities was critical to building better societies, and interculturally competent citizens:

So, if you can create intercultural awareness in the classroom, you can do all those different activities in the classroom, and they ultimately help your students to become better citizens, they can improve their values, and they really become better human beings. And those are really needed, you understand each other cultures, you will become a more sharing person, you will become a better person.

Four Australian administrators described the level of support extended to fostering IC. Gayle seemed to share their university's motto that they used for the public domains as "Living in a multicultural society, working with indigenous people, and having to work with people abroad as well". Brian and John both focused on mandatory training for accommodating Indigenous cultures. John observed, "Indigenous and aboriginal culture training is a compulsory module for all academics. We do have this aboriginal cultural celebration on campus, but not for others".

Jennifer mentioned various ethnic events and food sharing as part of a university's cultural celebration. She continued that diversity was a term frequently associated with a sense of belonging and community. These were the lofty ideals we employed in our vision. The university offers various ethnic and cultural activities, such as the Diwali festival night, so that individuals could participate in the Indian cultural day. Then, the space was made for calligraphy, the Chinese writing system. During this time, they supplied complimentary Asian food. In addition, they offer multicultural week. They also fostered Indigenous culture.

While two Bangladeshi administrators shared that their universities did not do anything, in particular, to promote IC at their universities, another administrator (Alam) shared that his university organised some cultural events to celebrate the Indigenous cultures. The following excerpt reflected Alam's perception:



We have some cultural groups like we have some tribal students here, they organise their cultural activities, and we join them while we organise our cultural activities or programmes, they join us.

#### 4.12.1.2. Joint responsibility

Three Australian academics proposed that PD should be an outcome of the collaborative efforts between individuals and institutions. Based on their experience, Barbara and Janene argued that the development of a person's skills was dependent on specific organisations and persons. Michael reported,

I would say that PD for TESOL academics is the responsibility of the institution. And at the same time, it is also the responsibility of the professionals themselves. So there has to be some sort of agreement between how the institution is going to support and what kind of initiatives TESOL professionals will take, how they go on with the ongoing learning and their PD. So, it's kind of a joint responsibility in my understanding.

One Bangladeshi academic, Sayeed shared a parallel observation, "I think, TESOL academics can work both personally and through their institutions as professionals".

On the contrary, no Australian but three Bangladeshi administrators recommended that TESOL academics' PD responsibility should be a collaborative scheme where both institutions and individuals take initiative. Mawla indicated that instructors must decide to improve themselves; they should not rely solely on institutional support; instead, they should seek out new possibilities for their PD and share what they learn with their colleagues. Shimu argued that it is also the responsibility of the school to provide academics with sufficient time and opportunities to develop into competent academics. Finally, Mohammed appeared to summarise that only the department would be unable to accomplish this. Only the university would be unable of doing so. They needed a joint effort, which might commence shortly.

#### 4.12.1.3. Discipline-specific PD

Two Australian academics recommended that universities should customise their PD offerings according to their subject-specific PD requirements. Janene deemed the absence of discipline-specific PD as a challenge. Michael argued, based on his experience, that his PD demands were not similar to those of other colleagues in different schools and departments. In his opinion,

We already have a culture of listening to staff members, but I think we would need more, perhaps we need to have activities at the level of the department as well. So that will be more

helpful. You know, we don't have to think about the whole university. So, these local-level activities can be more useful.

Along a similar line, two Bangladeshi academics suggested TESOL-focused PD. Sayeed and Mahveen reported universities should prioritise TESOL teachers' PD needs. If all of these programmes should be based on their needs, only then PD experience would be more effective, and they would become better TESOL academics. Sayeed indicated that there could be some general sessions that are beneficial for instructors from various faculties, as well as some individual sessions for teachers of certain subjects because TESOL academics, might be a small community but they appeared to play a vital role. He shared his thought by indicating that he believed there should be TESOL-specific PD since TESOL academics were a crucial component of the university, despite their small size, because all faculties and departments require language instruction.

More administrators than academics indicated that there was no subject-specific PD. Four Australian administrators reported that the PD programmes that they provided were not targeted specifically at TESOL academics. Brian maintained that he had three or four sessional lecturers under his supervision who had minimal TESOL training experience, and no TESOL training or PD was provided. John explained his perception in detail by augmenting that it appeared that there was always a great deal of training accessible. However, his concern was that they tended to be very generic and did not address the demands of a specific academic group, such as TESOL or Applied Linguistics. Within this large university, TESOL or Applied Linguistics professors represented a minuscule portion of the university's intellectual community. Gayle shared an interesting perspective by indicating that there were few opportunities for PD that address the necessary transformation required for TESOL academics, "I think that there is not a lot of opportunity for professional development, that will address the change that needs to occur in the teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages".

Three Bangladeshi academics also reported that they did not have access to any specialised PD programmes. Alam and Shimu discussed that there was no framework or PD for TESOL academics' professional progress. Along a similar line, Mohammed observed a similar thought: "Actually, there is no specific training for TESOL teachers in our university".

#### *4.12.1.4. Needs-based*

One academic from Australia suggested that the existing PD programmes should be needs-based. Michael described in detail a type of needs assessment that existed at his

university. Since he knew what the institution would and would not accept, they tended to narrow their demands. Michael emphasised that his university had a culture of attentiveness to academic concerns and demands. It would be ideal if they didn't have to filter based on the knowledge that his university might approve some forms of PD but not others and could simply communicate their actual PD requirements.

Three Bangladeshi academics, on the other hand, suggested needs-based PD in an effort to bring about changes in PD practices. Rahman and Sayeed reported that their universities' PD initiatives should take account of academics' needs. In Sayeed's opinion,

There should be more systematic ways to conduct those PD programmes; there should be relevance according to the needs of academics from different backgrounds. All academics should get equal opportunities while getting PD facilities.

Similarly, Mahveen expressed the view that academics had numerous obtainable workshops, but those workshops were not structured. If those workshops and seminars had followed a specific structure, academics' needs would have been assessed first. All of these workshops and seminars may have been targeted after determining academics' PD needs, which would have aided in their professional growth.

Mohammed proposed needs-based PD for the faculty; PD should reflect academics' demands by evaluating what faculty members believe about their PD, what they need, what obstacles they foresee, and how they intend to overcome these obstacles.

#### 4.12.1.5. *In-service PD*

One Australian academic shared her perception about the best in-service PD that she had undertaken. Janene illustrated that among the certifications she had earned, TESOL was likely the best. The programme or credential was issued by the South Australian Government in 2010. She, along with ten of her colleagues, had worked for the English Schools Foundation, they had completed the project over a period of approximately 12 weeks, which was a distinct advantage due to its length of time compared to short-term PD. Then, they were required to demonstrate the implementation or application of these strategies in the classroom with second language learners via a portfolio. Janene believed that the programme was most beneficial because it was administered over a longer time period. In addition, as part of the evaluation, participants were required to submit evidence of the application of the strategies they learnt.

On the contrary, three Bangladeshi academics proposed in-service PD provisions. Arif, Rahman, and Mahveen observed that to resolve PD concerns, academics should be provided with opportunities for ongoing PD that enable them to confront obstacles. Arif shared the following suggestions, “Definitely, PD programmes should be strengthened in a university like ours. And the number of training programmes needs to be increased for a very effective output from this effort”.

Finally, Mahveen appeared to reinforce the need for in-service PD as she argued that they required on-the-job training, which neither their university nor their department offered. They had workshops, conferences, and seminars, but no in-service PD programmes.

Similarly to Bangladeshi academics, five Bangladeshi administrators proposed in-service PD for academic advancement. Aysha stressed that “in-service training is very essential”. Mohammed also believed that teachers require PD; they lacked professionalism. Hence, according to his understanding, they should introduce some courses so that teachers become more knowledgeable. Alam, similar to Aysha and Mohammed, considered, “I feel that they need to have the training, they need to have courses either short courses or long courses to attend to develop their professionalism”.

Shimu expressed the opinion that qualification was stagnant, but teaching was an ongoing process. Hence, universities should offer in-service PD for ensuring continuing refinement of their colleagues. Mawla also recommended an increased number of PD, “...there are few opportunities available, but these things are not enough compared to the number of teachers, they have to be increased”. Finally, Mrinmoyee believed that to effect change, TESOL academics should be provided with adequate in-service training: “So, if we really seek a paradigm shift, we must provide them training”.

#### *4.12.1.6. Designated time*

Time was seen as a universal challenge impacting academics’ PD. Hence, Robert proposed a “designated time” for engaging in PD activities instead of spreading out throughout the year. He suggested that it could be done during the break between semesters, for instance, the institution could recommend that it expected all professionals to complete 10 hours of PD activities, so something a bit more concentrated. In his own words,

I don’t have any specific suggestions other than saying that maybe we can have designated times of the year in the calendar when TESOL academics or academics from any other area are particularly expected to get a certain number of hours done towards their PD. So that it is not

spread all across the year which can be challenging because of teaching, which is another commitment.

#### 4.12.1.7. *Increasing incentives and research funds*

Four Bangladeshi academics suggested that their universities should increase incentives and funds for research. Hira and Rahman regarded research funds as critical to fostering academics' research activities. Rahman perceived,

And last but not the least, financial support provided by the university in PD programmes are really inadequate. University doesn't provide any financial grants in terms of scholarships or incentives to pursue a higher degree and providing research funds always remains insufficient to conduct the research work properly.

Along a similar line to that of Hira and Rahman, Mahveen indicated that the university could provide them with more resources to help them become better researchers, publish more, and promote a more professional atmosphere. Obinash argued for an increased level of incentives for publication and presentation so that people feel compelled to act, they might feel that there was a reward for that. Obinash seemed to reiterate that "people talked about funding that you need funding to help teachers conduct research. Yeah, more funding would be helpful".

Along a similar line to the academics, four Bangladeshi administrators suggested that the academics should be given research funds and incentives. Alam, Shimu, and Mrinmoyee perceived that research funds and incentives were critical so there should be funding for academics' research activities and PD. Mawla indicated:

...incentives also have to be there. I mean, if anyone attends a seminar, he should be given leave. They can share whatever they have learned by attending a workshop with their colleagues in the institution, and the institution should have its own policy for giving incentives to the staff.

While no Australian academics proposed increased funding, two administrators believed that increased incentives and funding might facilitate academics' research and PD engagements. Jennifer indicated that more encouragement and incentives from the Heads of Schools might motivate academics for their PD activities. Similar to Jennifer, John also advocated for funding and incentives:

Of course, what the university could do, they can bring back that conference scheme even sort of a financial incentive for paying colleagues to participate in the kind of professional development days or classes, programmes, and suchlike.

*4.12.1.8. Systematic and regular*

Four Bangladeshi academics (Arif, Rahman, Sayeed, and Mahveen) suggested that the PD offerings should be systematic and regular instead of haphazard and sporadic.

*4.12.1.9. Peer observation and mentoring*

Peer observation and mentoring were seen as effective PD mechanisms, so three Bangladeshi academics recommended that these PD should be available for them. Hira and Arif indicated that academics should be familiar with peer observation, be provided opportunities to share their experience and thoughts, and be encouraged to ask questions to their mentors; senior faculty members of the department could be promoted as mentors to address these matters. Sayeed shared a comparable perception,

There should be classroom observations, and there should be mentoring. So, I think the university has a lot of work to do in the case of professional development of the TESOL academics.

*4.12.1.10. University should support collaboration*

Perceiving collaboration as a meaningful PD activity, three Bangladeshi academics (Mahveen, Sayeed, and Rahman) suggested that universities should extend support for collaboration. Rahman revealed that there was scant evidence of university-wide collaboration, such as memorandums of understanding or foreign academic exchanges. By means of their personal and professional development networks, the majority of academics at his university collaborate with other university specialists or worldwide experts. Sayeed recommended mostly local collaboration,

Our university should play a more important role to promote collaboration between teachers because when senior teachers and mentors, guide the young teachers, the young ones are actually hugely benefitted from this as the senior teachers have more experience in this field.

*4.12.1.11. Workshops, conferences, and seminars*

Three Bangladeshi academics (Sayeed, Rahman and Hira) suggested that their universities should support academics so that they could engage in research activities and attend and present their research work at conferences. They also added that their universities

should organise national and international workshops, seminars, webinars, and conferences regularly for the development of their academics. Finally, Sayeed explained:

The university can arrange conferences or encourage the teachers to attend different conferences to get engaged with the community, with the TESOL community. So, I think that there are a lot of things to do in this sector at this university.

#### *4.12.1.12. Change of culture*

Mahveen and Obinash argued that to bring about reform in current PD practice, Bangladeshi universities needed to establish an academic culture more than anything. The following excerpt reflected Obinash's perception:

But more than anything, I think we need to change if we need to create a culture of research, a culture of seminars, conferences, talks, discussions, and dialogues. We need to create a culture where people feel encouraged to talk about ideas, talking about research, talking about scholarship not just inside the classroom, but all the time.

#### *4.12.1.13. Induction programme*

Arif and Rahman both considered a systematic and regular induction programme necessary for a meaningful PD practice. While suggesting an induction programme for the academics' PD, Arif provided an elaborate guideline as to how systematic PD practice might be ensured. He argued that there could be segments, for instance, at the entry level for the first six months, academics should know the fundamentals of teaching and basic concepts, as well as how to conduct classroom instruction for TESOL. Then in the second stage, they could be guided for further skill development in research. In addition, these PD programmes should be well-planned and appropriately implemented by senior and experienced faculty members. Then, the new teacher should be properly evaluated by the teachers' organisation and provided with constructive feedback.

#### *4.12.1.14. Academic exchange*

Rahman indicated that this is very important for the personal advancement of TESOL academics to create opportunities for academic exchange.

#### *4.12.1.15. TESOL degree*

In Bangladeshi universities, both TESOL and Applied Linguistics and Literature majors work in the English Department. Sometimes, literature-specialised academics also teach TESOL courses. Sayeed argued if literature major teachers intended to teach in the language programmes, they required a TESOL degree:

If you want to work in a related field, of course, a degree in TESOL is necessary. In different universities of Bangladesh, both public and private, students from English literature are also teaching the language to tertiary-level students. And it's not mandatory for them to have a TESOL degree.

#### 4.12.1.16. *Open access journals*

Sayed recommended that universities should ensure open access to indexed journals.

#### 4.12.1.17. *Reducing workloads*

Mahveen suggested that the university could alleviate some of our professional pressures, such as those administrative tasks. If they did not have to perform these tasks, they would have more time to devote to developing activities such as reading, publishing, action research, attending more workshops and conferences, presenting papers, and doing all that.

Like Mahveen, Mrinmoyee also proposed that "...we must also give them enough time to relax to develop themselves professionally".

Although no Australian academic suggested reducing workload, two Australian administrators recommended that decreased workload might improve the current PD praxis. Jennifer believed that granting academics some additional time by removing some obligations so that PD could be prioritised. John seemed to summarise,

Well, I mean, unless they have a few classes and a few hours, but then this subject depends on a kind of collective negotiation with the university. So, reducing teaching loads is one way to overcome time constraints.

#### 4.12.1.18. *Include IC in the curricula*

Mahveen proposed that IC should be a curriculum mandate instead of leaving the responsibility on academics' shoulders to practice IC. She deemed incorporating IC into the curricula as critical. Apparently, she emphasised,

Certainly, if you could incorporate how it existed in other cultures into your curriculum and learn from it, you increase your own awareness and that of your students. These are extremely vital considerations for TESOL academics.

Mohammed, a Bangladeshi administrator proposed a comparable adjustment. He continued that they must modify their curriculum so that students were prepared for the globalised world. In the meanwhile, they were creating the OBE (Outcome Based Education) curriculum and that would be implemented at the beginning of the upcoming school year.



*4.12.1.19. External experts*

Sayed recommended that the university could invite experts from related fields to share their knowledge with TESOL academics.

*4.12.1.20. Developing language proficiency*

Obinash argued that TESOL academics were supposed to have advanced language skills. In addition, they must possess pedagogical, textual, and cultural understanding. Hence, it was not enough to simply teach a language; it was also about knowing the language itself. Because many of them might be second-language or non-native English speakers. In addition to developing their English skills, individuals must also acquire pedagogical knowledge.

*4.12.1.21. Raising awareness of needs*

Three Australian administrators seemed to point out that their academic colleagues lacked awareness of PD. Jennifer observed that academics did not realise the need to attend the training. But, if they attended the training, they would be able to perform tasks more effectively. Brian perceived a similar issue and argued:

The problem with PD is people don't know what they don't know. So, you know, I might not be aware of my deficiencies, and therefore, I don't know that I need PD and that's difficult. I don't think access to PD is really difficult. I think if people want PD, they can get it. It's about knowing that they need it, it's about having the time to do it.

Similar to Brian, Gayle perceived that access to PD was not a big challenge in the era of technology, collaboration and community of practice; however, the lack of awareness of PD needs was considered a big issue:

TESOL academics do not necessarily realise what their needs might be in order to take advantage of changes in technology and the ability to collaborate and also implement the more social constructivism-type theory in their teaching. So, I think there needs to be more of the raising of awareness of why PD for them is important.

Two Bangladeshi administrators, on the other hand, reported that their academics hardly realise the needs and benefits of PD. Shimu and Mawla observed that her academic colleagues hardly had an idea that PD could contribute to their academic advancement.

*4.12.1.23. Policy mandate*

One Australian administrator (John) emphasised the value of policy mandate while proposing improvements:

So, unless there's a policy mandate from the government or legal requirements, the university has to provide this kind of training, and then we do. Other than that, I don't think that the university will be voluntarily providing certain kinds of training or PD in response to a certain group of people's needs or TESOL academics' needs.

In contrast, two Bangladeshi academics shared the perception that policy mandate was essential to bring about a reformation in the existing PD paradigms. Mawla observed that teachers who began their careers at the university level should be able to develop themselves by attending various seminars and engaging in further research for the benefit of their students. Shimu expanded on the idea of policy matters in detail:

A few words, I can tell you, we have to work from the root. So, prior to implementing anything we have to do research because we need currency analysis. In public universities, this type of trend is not very popular. So, if they can give us some instructions, then we can proceed. So, we have to get some solid or concrete instructions from the University Grants Commission of Bangladesh. Until or unless they provide some guidelines, you cannot proceed with that. This type of programme should be included in our assessment. When the UGC will instruct respective universities, then they can instruct their respective departments to offer this kind of PD activities. If that sort of specific instruction comes from higher authority, then I think all the professionals will be motivated and only then they will feel encouraged to participate.

#### *4.12.1.24. Sparking the motivation*

Jennifer and Gayle suggested that perhaps their academic professionals needed more encouragement as the global pandemic might have waned their enthusiasm for PD events. In Gayle's words:

So, we need more, sort of motivational things to spark people to want to find out more about what's happening, because everybody's sort of beavering away from working. And with COVID, over the last two years, actually motivation has subdued, I guess, enthusiasm has waned.

#### *4.12.1.25. Setting up a community of practice*

Gayle proposed a community of practice through which some leadership schemes might grow along with collaborative accountability. In her observation, "...where there are monthly meetings of all the people, that are very keen to be involved in professional development for TESOL academics. So, then there is more leadership in that space".

#### 4.12.1.26. *Mandatory PD*

One Australian administrator proposed mandatory PD; however, in conversation with academics, she believed that the decision could be made. Similarly, one Bangladeshi administrator recommended obligatory PD, “if they offer us some kind of instructions, some programmes quarterly or yearly, I think it should be made compulsory”.

#### 4.12.1.27. *Monitoring is needed*

One Australian administrator (Gayle) suggested that collaborative accountability or monitoring through the community of practice platforms might bring better PD results. Two Bangladeshi administrators (Mohammed and Shimu), by contrast, recommended deliberate intervention of the mainstream university authorities to ensure PD engagements and subsequent results. Shimu appeared to insist,

So, I deliberately mentioned the intervention of the authority to do something that will compel them to feel the necessity to participate in this kind of programme, like PDs that will contribute to their academic career.

#### 4.12.1.28. *Demolishing politics*

Politics in academia was regarded as a drawback inhibiting academics from doing the needful. The following quotation reflected Shimu’s thoughts with regard to politics, “In fact, I can tell you one thing if we can demolish politics from our academia or from academic culture, then people can concentrate more on their potential, and they can explore”.

#### 4.12.1.29. *Need TESOL experts*

Alam perceived the lack of TESOL experts as TESOL was still a budding discipline in the context of Bangladeshi universities.

#### 4.12.1.30. *Mentoring facility*

Two Bangladeshi administrators made the suggestion that mentoring facilities were needed to improve the existing PD conditions. Aysha argued that their students had access to mentoring programmes, but teachers required mentoring facilities as well. Mohammed also added, “We need some professional mentors to be introduced”.

#### 4.12.1.31. *Regular and structured*

Two Bangladeshi administrators appeared to recommend regular and structured PD programmes with a view to making a difference in the existing PD state. Alam indicated, “We need to have some more extensive programmes for the development of professionalism of our

TESOL teachers”. Aysha explained that PD needed to be more structured, such as on a regular basis; however, this was not the case due to the work pressure they faced and the fact that there were 182 students in the class.

#### 4.12.1.32. More support to humanities departments

Two Bangladeshi administrators suggested more support for humanities departments. Aysha observed that there must be more support for individual departments, particularly in the humanities, where they did not receive private funding from private organisations when they discussed partnerships in the sciences and social sciences. She invited,

So, come forward to help these students to help these humanities departments. Who is going to come forward to give us funding to teach Shakespeare or to teach how to teach speakers of foreign language learners in English? So, more support has to come from the authorities and that has to be structured.

Shimu appeared to suggest a similar level of support to humanities departments like that of Aysha:

The research funds in humanities are really poor in Bangladesh and academia should focus on that. Unless we get a real structure or unless we get incentives, it would be difficult for ensuring better professional development. If we do that, academics will proceed to develop themselves as good professionals and contribute to the academia.

### 4.13. Summary

PD provision was analysed from three perspectives: induction, task-based PD, and PD activities, in the quantitative phase of data analysis. Around 50% of Australian and Bangladeshi academics agreed that they had access to preparatory programmes. Nonetheless, Bangladeshi academics chose informal induction activities more than twice as often did Australian academics. This indicated that induction opportunities were inadequate and do not correspond effectively to demands. Regarding task-based PD provision, academics in Australia and Bangladesh selected comparable areas for PD: ICT, online materials and resources, and student assessment. Bangladeshi academics were more likely to recognise curriculum knowledge than their counterparts in Australia. In general, Australian and Bangladeshi academics determined several identical self-directed activities: *Reading professional literature*, *Attending/Presenting at international conferences*, *Critical reflective practice*, *Peer-reviewed research submissions/publications*, *International collaboration*, and *Collegial conversation*. However,

there appeared to be a disparity in the proportion of academics from participating nations who reported self-initiated PD programmes.

The qualitative data on PD provisions revealed that 75% of Australian academics reported having access to PD provisions, whereas 83% of their Bangladeshi counterparts reported favourable PD arrangements. While 50% of Australian academics indicated that there was little or no PD in Australian universities, fewer than 100% of Bangladeshi academics reported the same. A comparable percentage of Australian administrators (100%) reported positive PD provision and the same proportion mentioned *Not much PD*. Bangladeshi administrators (33.3%) appeared to agree with their academic counterparts, whilst 66.7% reported limited access to PD opportunities.

Concerning PD requirements, Australian and Bangladeshi academics identified parallel PD activities, including ICT, writing for publication, and research incentive. When Australian academics reported their PD needs related to intercultural and multicultural settings, the responses were notably diverse. It appeared that Bangladeshi academics disregarded intercultural PD requirements.

According to the qualitative data, the majority of Australian academics reported that their PD needs were assessed, and none of them reported that their universities failed to examine their PD needs. In comparison, less than 15% of academics in Bangladesh reported that their needs were evaluated, and over 80% reported that their needs had never been reviewed. Similarly, no Australian academics indicated that their *Voices are not heard*, despite a quarter of them reported that their *Voices are heard* in connection to their PD choices at their respective universities. In contrast, less than 20% of Bangladeshi academics claimed that their *Voices are heard* in relation to their PD requirements, while over 30% expressed the opposite.

Concerning PD needs assessment, in contrast to 50% of Australian administrators whose PD demands were evaluated, no Bangladeshi administrators reported having a needs assessment system in their respective educational institutions. In contrast to more than 80% of Bangladeshi administrators, only 25% of Australian administrators reported that their universities lacked a needs assessment provision. While discussing PD activities, half (50%) of Australian administrators claimed that their *Voices are heard*, but no administrators reported the opposite. In comparison, less than 66.7% of administrators in Bangladesh indicated that their input was disregarded when creating PD activities.

Regarding PD for the purposes of academics' growth, the highest number of Australian academics (between 90% and 80%) rated *Colleagues helped me on the job, Collaboration with associates in the same field, Independent use of online resources, Reading professional literature, and Attended online courses/webinars*. In contrast, Bangladeshi academics ranked highly (between 90%-80%) *Independent use of online resources, Doing research/publication, Reading professional literature, Critical reflective practice/teaching journals, and Attended online courses/webinars*.

The qualitative data regarding PD for academics' growth revealed that Australian and Bangladeshi academics both selected *Collegial dialogue, Collaboration, Online resources, Reading, and Research* as PD mechanisms contributing to the formation of their professional identities. Their preferences varied, as Australian academics favoured *PhD supervision, Reviewer in the journal, and Training programmes*, whilst Bangladeshi academics favoured *Teaching experience, and Workshops, conferences, and seminars*.

According to Australian administrators' perception, 75% of Australian administrators identified *Collaboration and community of practice* as the best form of PD, however, 30% of Bangladeshi administrators shared similar viewpoints. Rather, Bangladeshi administrators argued that *Workshops, conferences, and seminars, Online resources and Learning through Research* might have contributed to the professional upskilling of their academic colleagues. Australian administrators, similar to their Bangladeshi counterparts, acknowledged *Online resources and Learning through research* as beneficial PD activities.

In relation to TESOL academics' intercultural paradigms, roughly 71.0% of Australian academics could emphasise *Skills to adapt my teaching to cultural diversity and Train students to be flexible and mutually respectful*. Bangladeshi academics, on the other hand, could integrate moderately *Train students to be flexible and mutually respectful (53.7%) and Raise awareness of cultural similarities (51.2%) and dissimilarities (43.9%)*.

Regarding universities' support for interculturality, 64.5% of Australian academics maintained that their universities organised multicultural events and 51.6% of the participants reported existing support for *Providing students with opportunities to understand issues of cultural discrimination*. On the other hand, approximately 61.0% of Bangladeshi academics suggested that their universities seemed to support arranging music, arts, and sports events and nearly 51.2 % of the respondents indicated patronage for *Adopting teaching and learning practices that integrate global issues in the broader curriculum*.

The qualitative self-report affirmations of academics from the oral narratives revealed that both Australian (75%) and Bangladeshi (83.3%) academics incorporated intercultural perspectives into their lessons. Australian administrators (100%) appeared to endorse the interculturality of their academic colleagues. In contrast, 16.7% of Bangladeshi administrators reported being aware of their academics' intercultural praxis. Compared to Bangladeshi administrators, 75% of Australian administrators appeared to have a favourable view of IC. In terms of intercultural competence, the Australian administrative staff (100%) considerably outperformed their Bangladeshi colleagues.

With regard to critical evaluations of existing PD condition, Australian academics evaluated that *Available professional developments are up-to-date, needs-based, relevant, and positively impact my classroom practices*. On the other hand, Bangladeshi academics positive assessment included *Available professional developments are relevant and contextualised*. In summary, out of ten question prompts, Australian and Bangladeshi academics tended to optimistically evaluate four and two components respectively. Australian and Bangladeshi academics evaluated four and two components optimistically, respectively, out of ten question prompts.

According to qualitative data, in general, Australian and Bangladeshi academics evaluated contemporary PD status in a comparable manner: Australian academics showed significant concerns about *Limited interculturality, Not discipline-specific and Self-initiated PD*. The evaluations from academics from the two countries differed widely in that Bangladeshi academics tended to select *Irregular, unstructured, informal, and not updated, Not needs-based and top-down PD, and Lack of financial support and Unsatisfactory PD*. In most cases, Australian administrators agreed with their academic colleagues, however, unlike their academic counterparts they expressed frustration over *Unsatisfactory PD and Lack of financial support*. Bangladeshi administrators, similarly to Australian administrators, lent credence to their academics' self-reports, however, with varied percentages.

In terms of proposed improvements, on the whole, Australian academics and Bangladeshi academics proposed similar improvements: *Current PD should consider day-to-day work challenges and be more needs-based, aim at disbursing the most recent developments of the academia, take account of contexts in which they operate and be made more relevant*. The perceptions differed slightly while Bangladeshi academics recommended that *current PD provisions should be guided by research and made effective, and Short-term*

*conferences/seminars/workshops should enhance teachers' collaboration and professional dialogue.*

The findings from qualitative data indicated that Australian and Bangladeshi academics proposed *Support towards intercultural practice* and PD responsibility should be borne by both the institutions and individuals, hence, it should be a *Joint responsibility*, and there should be *Discipline-specific PD* addressing their specific disciplinary needs. Their recommendations diverged when Bangladeshi academics, suggested *Systematic and regular, Increasing incentives and funds for research, Needs-based PD, In-service PD, University should support collaboration, Workshops, conferences, and seminars* and *Peer-observation and Mentoring*.

With two front-line academics' proposals, Australian administrators appeared to concur: *Support towards intercultural practice* and *Discipline-specific PD* and they proposed new suggestions, *Raising awareness of needs, Sparking the motivation, Reducing workload, Increasing incentives and research funds*. Bangladeshi administrators appeared to suggest two new improvements *Increasing PD number and In-service PD* and supported two of the top-ranked PD recommendations of their academic colleagues: *Increasing incentives and research funds* and *Support towards interculturality*. The majority of Bangladeshi administrators appeared to concur with their academic peers and propose a fresh improvement *Increasing PD number*.

Apparently, Australian and Bangladeshi academics and administrators appeared to be in concord with each other's suggested reforms. The following chapter devotes itself to an in-depth examination of the findings and their contextual and theoretical ramifications, while positioning the current research within the broader TESOL teachers' professional development, their intercultural praxis, the discourse of Applied Linguistics, and other pertinent constructs.



## CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

### 5.0. Introduction

This chapter interprets and discusses the findings from the previous Chapter Four. It analyses significant findings from the anonymous questionnaire to address the study questions in 5.1.1, 5.2, and 5.3 along with the deeper illustrations from the academics' narratives and the semi-structured interviews with the administrators. The study's conceptual evolution and the ramifications for theory and practice are examined. It does so while making appropriate references to pertinent literature. The findings' limitations are integrated into the relevant sections. It concludes with a brief chapter summary.

### 5.1. Addressing the research questions

The findings from each of the methods used to collect data, namely the questionnaire, academics' narratives, and semi-structured interviews with administrators, are synthesised to answer the three research questions of the study.

#### 5.1.1. *Research question 1.*

*What are the comparative provisions and needs for TESOL academics' professional development in Australia and Bangladesh?*

#### 5.1.2. *Quantitative data (academics' questionnaire on professional development provisions)*

The PD provisions in Australia and Bangladesh were examined through an anonymous questionnaire survey, from three different viewpoints: PD induction provisions, task-based PD provisions, and PD activities. The findings demonstrated that most participants perceived that Australia and Bangladesh both had formal and institutional induction PD provisions. The findings projected a comparable PD induction provision in which roughly 50% of academics supported PD induction opportunities in the selected nations. Indeed, there are several occasions where there are no apparent substantial differences between the existing PD status in participating countries, which only serves to highlight the perception that TESOL academics' PD is underdeveloped.

To assist the readers' understanding of the discussion that follows, it is necessary to provide a detailed description of the contexts from the participants' perceptions of the equivalent formal induction provisions in Bangladesh and Australia respectively. First of all,

despite being one of the leading nations in the world for TESOL education, the findings in this study indicate that some Australian academics tended to report below-par PD induction opportunities. On the contrary, a number of Bangladeshi academics appeared to indicate the availability of positive PD induction programmes. While Bangladeshi academics provided evidence in support of their positive PD induction data by concentrating on that a relatively new Bangladeshi university established a tradition of a three-day induction training regimen for academic newcomers. Another Bangladeshi university, *Bangladesh Agricultural University*, set up a PD college for university academics, where other universities could send their academics for induction. Another new university administrator corroborated that they also sent their early career academics for induction to Agricultural University broadening the examples of PD induction provisions. This series of evidence lent credence to the general pattern of identical induction PD opportunities in the designated countries. At the same time, the success of isolated examples of induction PD provision highlights that it can be done, even in new underfunded institutions. This, in turn, highlights the incongruency of the induction PD gaps that exist more broadly.

This finding of equivalent PD induction provisions in participating countries is important because the current literature gap (identified in Chapter 2) emphasised that there is hardly any introductory PD programme for academics' preparatory development. Hence, this research outcome is inconsistent with the findings of MacPhail et al. (2019) who investigated the needs and provisions of sixty-one university academics in six European countries. These researchers demonstrated that the participating academics received no formal induction and depended primarily on informal discourse and personal connections. The infrastructure of universities did not appear to provide time to facilitate or mentor early stages teacher educators, with several reporting they were simply required to "hit the ground running" upon their first day of employment (MacPhail et al., p. 857). In a few other studies, it was shown that among university-based ESL professionals, there was an unmet demand for PD induction provisions (González & Ospina, 2005; Yumru, 2015). The EFL teachers in Yumru's study underlined the importance of establishing induction programmes for early career language teachers in their local communities to share their educational experiences with newly appointed faculty members.

Despite the aforementioned discussion of unfavourable PD induction provision, Pramastivi (2018) revealed comparable (to this research finding) PD introductory

opportunities by demonstrating that the newly recruited schoolteachers were given proper induction for their preliminary development. According to Pramastiwi (2018),

The school system has provided a comprehensive professional development system that meets the professional needs of these teachers. As part of the induction programme, the new recruits are put under a mentoring system whereby mid-career and senior teachers are assigned to supervise and guide them. (p. 76)

In the Introduction Chapter of this thesis, it was indicated by the researcher that in-service PD institutions established by the government provide mandatory PD provisions for primary, secondary, and college teachers; however, the same was not accessible to university teachers (Khan, 2008; Liyanage et al., 2016). This strengthened the case that university instructors need access to these support systems from concerned allies.

When it came to the selection of informal induction opportunities in the selected nations, a remarkable difference was perceived. More than twice as many Bangladeshi academics (34.1%) chose informal induction opportunities as Australian academics (16.1%) did, indicating that formal and institutional induction PD options were scarce in Bangladeshi universities. The result must be viewed in conjunction with the veteran academics' reports who perceived that there was a dearth of PD preparatory programmes in Bangladeshi universities. This result aligns with that of Utami and Prestridge (2018) who maintained that the teachers in Indonesia were inclined to do self-directed learning due to the lack of institutional PD opportunities for their academic advancement.

The next section in the questionnaire gathered information about task-based PD provisions, which were examined considering the areas where TESOL academics had access to PD opportunities and those where they did not. Australian academics identified three broad areas: ICT (83.9%), the development of online resources (83.9%), and evaluation procedures (80.6%) where they had obtainable PD. While, by comparative percentage, Bangladeshi academics also recognised ICT (80.5%), the development of online resources (82.9%) and assessment practices (82.9%), they, unlike their Australian counterparts, also indicated curriculum knowledge (90.2%) as receiving the most PD attention.

Due to various contextual inferences for the availability of PD opportunities concerning ICT and the development of online resources and evaluation, these findings merit extensive explanation. In particular, the researcher collected data during COVID-19, a period when educational landscapes underwent a major shift towards hybrid instruction (Dhawan, 2020;

Talib et al., 2021). Since Australian universities were already offering online education worldwide, blended teaching was not a novelty in Australia. During the pandemic, the number of Australian international students enrolling in distance education increased because the border closure restricted the number of international students coming to Australia for non-virtual education. In this regard, Howard (2021, p. 84) observed the following, “The COVID-19 pandemic has had the effect of accelerating online learning in Australia as higher education institutions sought to transition their teaching programmes to online or remote learning and assessment”. Thus, Australian academics reported that they had undergone a considerable amount of PD in ICT, online teaching via Zoom and Microsoft Teams, as well as related pedagogical dimensions for their efforts in overcoming the enormous challenge of transitioning to virtual teaching by limiting physical pedagogical interactions and contexts.

With almost no prior experience in comparison to their Australian counterparts, hybrid teaching presented a substantial problem for Bangladeshi academics (Bashir et al., 2021; Khan et al., 2021a). During the qualitative data collection phases, participants reported that using technology for online teaching presented a far greater challenge for many Bangladeshi academics than it did for Australian academics (particularly for seniors compared to young and then females compared to male academics). The best aspect, as these academics perceived, was that they received training from IQAC, the Department of Computer Science, and in certain cases, the university, to provide academics with the fundamentals of online pedagogy and assessment. There were also anecdotal accounts of adversity and self-learning utilising YouTube and other online resources (Khan et al., 2021b). Nonetheless, there was evidence that collegial collaborations were to be more effective where more technologically skilled, but young academics trained more veteran but technologically naive academics.

Next, when it came to the discussion of academic spaces where there were fewer PD provisions, Australian academics identified as relevant in the questionnaire all the cultural, intercultural, and multicultural question prompts such as *cross-cultural priorities*, *intercultural collaboration*, and *multicultural teaching*. It could, therefore, be argued that the intercultural domain represented the principal arena where there was a perceived lack of PD. To illustrate this point, several Australian academics and administrators specified that they had undertaken mandatory training for building awareness of Aboriginal Australian culture, they related that their intercultural training, university assistance for fostering IC, and their accountability to universities all reported being subpar. Similar IC practice scenarios were stressed in Bangladeshi university contexts where IC was neither a part of the curricula nor did universities

promote intercultural paradigms. This comparable finding of prevalent PD provisions and conventional support system for fostering IC and consequent identification of needs to refine it reflects that the broader IC praxis is in quandary in participating nations. Substantial support through systematic and empirically recommended PD opportunities and concerted efforts from all stakeholders may be required in an effort to improve the prevailing intercultural paradigms.

The third, quantitative section of professional enhancement focused on PD activities. The primary objective of this section was to establish whether the participants believed that PD opportunities for TESOL academics in Australia and Bangladesh were arranged by their affiliated universities or were an outcome of their personal initiatives. Overall, the top-ranked PD mechanisms were those that were self-directed. On the whole Australian and Bangladeshi academics identified similar activities *Reading professional literature, Attending/Presenting at international conferences, Critical reflective practice, Peer reviewed research submissions/publications, Collegial discussion, and International collaboration* as self-driven PD activities. The responses from the two countries differed slightly in those Bangladeshi academics tended to select *Online short courses /webinars*. However, there was an apparent incongruity in the percent of academics (a higher percent of Bangladeshi) who did so point to the more self-initiative PDs for Bangladeshi academics compared to their Australian contemporaries.

Again, the data relating to some PD activities demonstrated considerable divergences between the PD-providing contexts in Australia and Bangladesh. The largest gap in PD provision was reported in peer-reviewed research papers, where rates were for Bangladeshi academics (80.5%) just slightly less than double the Australian rates (41.9%). This distinction highlighted the perception of multiple deficiencies prevalent in Bangladeshi universities.

The first of these apparent deficiencies, as reported by Academics in Bangladesh related to a heavy workload, which was exacerbated by enormous clerical tasks and a large volume of script checking followed by a series of tabulations. Some participants in this research emphasised that the workload had been increased, for example, when their university adopted the trimester system in place of the dual semester system coupled with big class sizes. Additionally, they were overseeing the grades and evaluation processes of the college teachers who were affiliated with their university's network of government colleges.

In addition to a lack of time and PD in this area, several Bangladeshi participants reported significant difficulty in accessing high-indexed journals. According to some

participants, certain universities in Bangladesh provided inadequate funds to cover the publication fees for open-access peer-reviewed journals. It may be argued that other than free-access peer-reviewed journals, other journals do not charge for quality publications. However, both the time and procedure of free referred journals may be protracted and therefore demoralising. In addition, academic scholars may find open-access journals more appealing due to their wider distribution and accessibility. In many ways, this lack of financial aid to compensate for publication fees is restricting. Hence, it cannot be denied that inadequate support for research and publication impedes the research and publication activities of Bangladeshi academics.

The next finding concentrated on *Reading professional literature*. Here, nearly 80% of Bangladeshi academics reported that they read professional literature on their own initiative, reinforcing their limited access to indexed academic publications.

In addition to these institutional deficiencies, a Bangladeshi scholar underlined that Bangladesh failed to cultivate the research culture that he perceived across Oxford University. While Obinash was pursuing his doctoral study at King's College, he visited this most respected and famous university in the world. Subsequently, Obinash elaborated that research was deeply ingrained in the surroundings and discovered that there were book readers all around:

We need to create a culture where people feel encouraged to talk about ideas, talking about research, talking about scholarship not just inside the classroom, but all the time. When I went to Oxford, for a visit, I felt that the entire atmosphere was steeped in research and scholarship. If you step into that place, you realise that this place is different. You see people reading books, you see people getting together in a circle discussing something. Research is in the environment, in the atmosphere, this is what we need.

Obinash emphasised that Bangladesh needed to establish that sort of culture where academics would engage in quality research, and be motivated to share research activities, and interests instead of discussing personal belongings, savings, and topics like that.

About 50% of the participating academics from Australia and Bangladesh acknowledged that attending or presenting at international conferences was a self-initiated PD activity. Most Australian universities offered their faculty members between AUD 1000 and AUD 1200 annually for their professional upskilling. In the study, some academics maintained that they had previously utilised this fund for overseas conferences and short online courses.

Concerning the financial assistance from their corresponding universities, Bangladeshi academics indicated that the amount was negligible, and insufficient to cover their trip, let alone lodging, meals, and other expenses. It is worth noting that although the participants from both countries appeared to report that some PD activities were self-driven, in the case of Australian academics, they had other institutional provisions to bear the expenses. It may be argued that with the continuation of the yearly PD fund, Australian academics have a better support system when compared to Bangladeshi academics' inadequate financial assistance failing to cover any associated expenses.

With certain PD arrangements, the predominant PD circumstance appeared to be more intricate due to the variances between the participating nations, for instance with *Collegial discussion*, *International collaboration*, *Mentoring/being mentored*, and *Online short courses*. For Australian academics, PD was a combined effort from individuals and institutions, while for Bangladeshi academics, the same PD programmes seemed to be either self-initiated or nonexistent highlighting the absence of adequate institutional support enhancing Bangladeshi academics' professionalism.

In summary, the quantitative data from the questionnaire reflected comparable representations of current PD offerings in Australia and Bangladesh. Concerning PD introductory provision, Australian (41.9%) and Bangladeshi academics (53.7%) reported closely similar PD preparatory programmes. Nevertheless, there was a perceived divergence prevalent in Australian and Bangladeshi universities in terms of choosing informal induction activities due to a lack of adequate institutional PD introductory provisions in Bangladeshi universities. With regard to task-specific PD opportunities, Australian and Bangladeshi academics recognised comparable activities including ICT, the development of online resources, and assessment practices. The responses from the designated countries varied marginally when Bangladeshi academics tended to select curriculum knowledge. Regarding PD activities, academics from participating countries identified parallel PD activities as self-driven: *Reading professional literature*, *Attending /Presenting at international conferences*, *Critical reflective practice*, *Peer-reviewed research submissions/publications*, *Collegial discussion*, and *International collaboration*.

Overall, the data depicted that the PD landscapes in selected nations provide little to no PD opportunities. Most of the conventional PD mechanisms were self-initiated, with a few exceptions in task-based PD and PD preparatory provisions. These conclusions may be better

comprehended with the aid of qualitative data, where two inductive child codes—*PD opportunities* and *Not much PD*—emerged from the deductive *PD provision* code.

### 5.1.3. Qualitative data (academics' questionnaire on professional development provisions)

To fully interpret and compare PD provisions in Australia and Bangladesh, a detailed explanation of the aforementioned accessible PD opportunities and a precise definition of the term 'not much PD' through qualitative data is necessary here. This is part of *Research Question One*, investigating comparative PD provisions and needs through academics' narratives and interviews with administrators in Australian and Bangladeshi universities.

Through their oral narratives, the majority of Australian academics reported that they had access to a wide spectrum of PD opportunities, some of which were university-funded. Some Australian academics mentioned that there was a separate department for coordinating PD activities for all academics irrespective of disciplinary affiliations. Furthermore, several Australian academics also stressed the importance of communicating with their supervisors in order to take advantage of PD opportunities. Some universities, participants reported, provided one-to-one PD programmes that used technology and produced video lessons based on actual teaching-learning scenarios. The positive institutional PD provision statements, in this case, appeared to establish that there was a wide range of generic PD opportunities in Australian academic milieus. This finding contrasts with those from Belgium, Netherlands, Spain, and the Czech Republic teacher educators who cited a lack of support from indifferent team leaders and supervisors paying the least attention to their PD needs, and built-in bureaucracies in the educational system (Klink et al., 2017).

Evidently, as per Australian academics' perception, PD was abundant in Australian academia; nevertheless, it was broad and general, targeting all disciplinary academics instead of TESOL academics alone. The academics appeared to be discontent about the lack of specialised programmes designed to meet their academic and professional needs. As a result, *Not much PD* became a prominent response, as the conventional universal PD events failed to address their specific disciplinary needs.

Almost all academics from Bangladesh seemed to emphasise the minimal or non-existent institutional PD provision in their respective universities. They concentrated on the biannual or annual general professional progress sessions run by International Quality Assurance Cell (IQAC), a few sporadic seminars and workshops arranged by the departments,



and a small number of PD platforms created by the Bangladesh English Language Teachers' Association (BELTA). Here are a few points from the Findings Chapter that are important to note: IQAC does not offer PD opportunities at universities in Bangladesh, whether they are public or private unless there is a contract between the university and IQAC. Universities need to sign an agreement to partially contribute financially (in the case of private universities) to those PD workshops. Besides, IQAC training is intended for new lecturers, senior academics are unlikely to benefit from those PD platforms.

The preceding discussion demonstrated that in Australian institutions, ample generic PD opportunities were organised for all academics. Similarly, in Bangladeshi universities, the minimal PD opportunities available were intended for all academic disciplines. Several researchers (Crandall & Christison, 2016; Diaz-Maggioli, 2003; Zhang, 2018) found that academicians derived little benefit from the currently prevalent, one-size-fits-all PD provisions. After examining various models of PD in his review paper on the various aspects of PD including prospective strengths and problems, Zhang (2018, p. 71) concluded that there was no "one-size-fits-all" approach that was effective in all educational settings. Thus, it is prudent to combine multiple strategies for enhancing teachers' professional skills and maintaining a balance between teacher autonomy, institutional prospects, and social demands.

In relation to PD instruction delivered by external lecturers in Bangladeshi universities, Sadeghi and Richards's (2021) description of the PD of Iranian English language teachers as a top-down, expert-driven framework in which outsider guest lecturers discussed the teaching models, created a PD status that was similar to that of Bangladeshi universities' PD provisions. The training sessions, which covered procedures, strategies, and a presentation-practice-production model for teaching English, could be helpful for new teachers. The participants indicated that this institutional support had little effect on experienced teachers. Additionally, discussions with the participants made it clear that not all of the Bangladeshi universities were able to host conferences, workshops, or seminars for the professional growth of academic staff. Only a small number of large, established universities had taken the lead in developing these PD programmes. Similarly to this, BELTA hosted an annual large conference for English language teachers for all levels (high school, college, and university). Bangladeshi academics scarcely had access to any systematic PD provisions, whatever they had, sporadic, infrequent, and insufficient PD provisions.

Thus, Bangladeshi academics expressed a high level of concern over the paucity of PD programmes evaluating minimal general and marginal particular PD opportunities. A succession of similar research findings (González & Ospina, 2005; Jacob et al., 2015; Joshi et al., 2018; Zein et al., 2020) undertaken in a vast array of contexts (Columbia, Australia, UK, USA, and China, Nepal, and Indonesia) were consistent with the finding of scant PD provision in the pertaining literature. For example, in their international research, Jacob et al. (2015) began with more general findings in Western and non-Western university environments and argued that PD provision for faculty members was insufficient, and teachers seeking intellectual enrichment were expected to do so on their own funding. Later, Jacob et al. expanded on their comments and maintained that a more improvised level of PD provision was available in the low-ranked Asian university environments.

#### *5.1.4. Qualitative data (semi-structured interviews with administrators on professional development provisions)*

Australian administrators (100%) focused on the fact that they had a very vibrant PD culture and plenty of organised and systematic institutional PD options in their universities. However, when it came to discipline-specific PD status, an equivalent percent of Australian administrators expressed their dissatisfaction with the paucity of specialised PD programmes for TESOL academics. Some administrators (33.3%) from Bangladeshi universities emphasised infrequent PD occasions including IQAC training for academic newcomers, departmental workshops, and seminars, and the BELTA conference, while the majority (66.7%) denied having access to PD options.

Despite the fact that quantitative data presented comparable PD conditions regarding the existing PD provision by indicating that there seemed to be inadequate PD opportunities in the designated countries. The qualitative data underlined the distinctions by augmenting that in Australian universities, there was an abundant amount of generic PD opportunities. However, Australian academics appeared disconcerted by the lack of discipline-specific PD. In terms of Bangladeshi universities, there seemed to be minimal general and marginal subject-specific PD. So, the qualitative data clarified the gap between the PD provision landscapes in Australian and Bangladeshi universities when classifying both generic and discipline-specific PD opportunities.

In spite of that, it may be argued that in Australian contexts, scant discipline-specific provision is a problem as Australian universities should have a much higher benchmark for

training, given their international status as premier providers of education. This may indicate the weaker institutional drivers and structures for PD. Non-disciplinary PD is strong because it is often centrally funded and coordinated. But disciplinary knowledge and responsibility are held within TESOL teaching units. Perhaps the lack of disciplinary PD indicates that these units are not empowered to deliver customised PD addressing academics' specific needs.

Apparently, in Australian contexts, the problems cited by most academics and administrators in relation to their PD status may require a few minor adjustments, such as organising some PD activities that cater to their subject-specific requirements. In fact, in both the Australian and Bangladeshi contexts, offering some discipline-specific PD alongside broad PD may optimise their PD experience and subsequent classroom instruction. Universities should prioritise localising PD provisions in addition to universal PD by empowering individual departments with adequate funding and resources. One of the Australian academics may be seen as representative of the perception that "we don't have to think about the whole university...local-level activities can be more useful".

Creating an equal opportunity for all should also be a PD objective, regardless of the number of TESOL academics employed at particular universities. Failure to do so may call into question the equity and balance of opportunities for all. TESOL academics play an essential part in every university, not only by imparting TESOL and Applied Linguistic knowledge, but also by advancing intercultural paradigms, which every department, institution, and nation requires. In this regard, Bangladeshi academics' opinions may be thought-provoking and insightful:

I think there should be specific programmes for the PD of TESOL academics. Although we are small in numbers, we are an important part of the university as all the faculties and all the departments of the university need to conduct language courses.

In the case of Bangladesh, it may be argued that a comprehensive overhaul of its current PD framework requires multiple paradigm shifts. In Bangladesh, academics (paradoxically) have access to a variety of positive PD praxis: needs assessment, some general training provided by IQAC, and PD workshops and conferences organised by BELTA and the respective departments; however, everything is informal and unstructured.

While emphasising sporadic, informal, and unstructured PD, almost all Bangladeshi academics and administrators in this study demanded more formalised, systematic, and regular PD. Thus, based on this research participants' viewpoints and the outcomes of several

researchers (Hartono, 2016; Jacob et al., 2015; Joshi et al., 2018; Wichadee, 2012; Zein et al. 2020), the entire PD procedure should be governed by meaningful, efficient, and empirically adequate (much like the current study) PD ideologies and principles. Simultaneously, increasing the number of in-service PD and ensuring their consistency may result in the desired transformation. It requires resources and time, but by taking small steps at a time, the objective may one day be accomplished. Therefore, prioritising academics PD may facilitate the translation of interdependent concepts such as quality education and optimal student learning.

#### 5.1.5. *Triangulation*

Data triangulation between the viewpoints of Australian academics and administrators throughout the qualitative stages (narratives and interviews) revealed that administrators (100%), like academics, emphasised the positive PD general provision status in their affiliated universities. However, the data suggested that PD opportunities triggering TESOL academics' needs were minimal. Likewise, Bangladeshi administrators supported minimum PD opportunities that existed in designated universities aligned with Bangladeshi academics. The academics' and administrators' perspectives in relation to PD needs and provisions were, therefore, in concord with the finding of inadequate PD provisions for TESOL academics for their professional progress. Thus, data triangulation plays a crucial role in this research by not only bolstering the interpretation of the data regarding PD needs and provisions, but also reinforcing the research rigour through the comparability of the research outputs of two corresponding tools leveraging academics' and administrators' perspectives.

#### 5.1.6. *Professional development during the pandemic*

Although the question was about “institutional and mental health support”, it appeared that some Australian and Bangladeshi academics also discussed PD during the COVID-19 pandemic apart from sharing general institutional support extended to them. The study was conducted during the peak of the pandemic. When the researcher ascertained that the data had been generated with the pandemic in thought, she took conscious efforts to gain additional insights while conducting interviews with the administrators. Using NVivo, narratives and interviews revealed three common subthemes regarding institutional PD support during the pandemic. They are integrated into a cohesive discussion here.

Given that a few Australian academics appeared to draw a correlation between COVID-19 and institutional PD, it may not be reasonable to compare on the meso-level between Australian and Bangladeshi *PD for hybrid pedagogy* and *Devices and other support*. According

to Australian academics' perceptions, their robust generic PD provisions included ICT and the creation of online materials and resources, as discussed in the preceding sections. Arguably, the theme of *Devices and other support* did not emerge in the Australian context due to its irrelevance. Presumably, Australian academics did not find a lack of support for the device and related constructs in Australian universities. However, a few Australian academics and the majority of administrators reported optimal health and mental welfare support; consequently, a comparative analysis of well-being support is feasible. Apparently, the finding is important because it is a contemporary PD issue and revealed a non-Western country context through Bangladeshi academics and administrators' data.

#### 5.1.6.1. PD for hybrid pedagogy

Regarding *PD for hybrid pedagogy*, Australian academics detailed the institutional PD provisions for blended pedagogical context. They reported that when it was decided that they would transition to hybrid learning last year, the university made many PD activities available, such as how to use Zoom, Microsoft Team-Viewer and how to manage various online activities, etc. Thus, there had been a multitude of programmes to adjust their pedagogical skills during COVID-19.

Bangladeshi academics appeared to indicate mixed PD opportunities to facilitate blended teaching and learning. Some academics (about 50%) reported that their universities organised workshops, tutorials, online PD programmes and webinars with a view to enabling them to teach in virtual classes.

There were counter reports as well as some academics argued that universities provided limited access to PD training. They emphasised that institutional support was inadequate and that the prevailing COVID eruption was not an anomaly. There were almost no accessible hybrid forms of PD to combat COVID's virtual and non-virtual workplace obstacles. In that case, they discussed the role of self-learning utilising various online platforms (for example, YouTube) and collegial dialogues in the transition to distance education. A few academics elaborated that they had some younger colleagues who were highly qualified and of great assistance. Without this collaboration, they would not have achieved the same level of success. Collegiate collaboration allowed them to successfully complete online courses and examinations and they undoubtedly gained a great deal of knowledge.

This finding appears to be in congruence with those of Khan et al. (2021b), who revealed that a large percentage of English instructors at public universities were not given the

training to implement online programmes. These investigators additionally found that Bangladeshi academics pursued self-directed PD by participating in YouTube instructional videos online free courses and webinars.

Australian administrators appeared to lend credence to their academics' observations of positive institutional support extended to them during the pandemic. They indicated that with the emergence of the pandemic, their fundamental concern was to prepare academics adequately for Zoom, Microsoft Teams, and other relevant e-Learning tools.

Bangladeshi administrators (50%) shared parallel perspectives as their academic counterparts. They reported that academics were instructed prior to the start of classes and once more prior to the administration of standardised testing assessments. They also provided blended teaching-learning activities, as well as in-house programmes, so that their academics might gain insight into how to overcome the barriers of online pedagogy. Teachers from the CSE and IT departments, IQAC, as well as university administration, continued to host online workshops for teachers and students.

However, there were debates regarding IQAC training as a few administrators criticised IQAC training because their teachers did not benefit from the training. The administrators who argued against PD support in the wake of COVID-19 exemplified that the vast majority of faculty members' endeavours were individual. They attempted to manage the situation by consulting the Internet, YouTube, or knowledgeable fellow employees and friends as part of self-learning. Resultantly, they had a very difficult start.

Through a qualitative study of Bangladeshi public universities' EFL students, Bashir et al. (2021) revealed similar challenges to the current study. The researchers emphasised that virtually all private universities and a handful of public universities had begun offering online courses with little or no preparation. The findings indicated that the major constraints to virtual education were connected to a shortage of digital devices and fast broadband, expensive data, unstable power supply, and a lack of technological capabilities among both teachers and students (Dhawan, 2020; Islam, 2021; Talib et al., 2021).

#### *5.1.6.2. Devices and other support*

Concerning *Devices and other support*, a few Bangladeshi academics underscored that they received devices and other assistance. They explained that their university provided them with economic rewards to continue online classes and ensured that they were leveraging all technologies correctly throughout the COVID outbreak.

Apparently, some Bangladeshi administrators acknowledged, as did their academic colleagues, that the university administration assisted them by providing young teachers with laptops and students with internet connectivity and data, so they were able to use the equipment. They added that they were offered 50,000 BDT for the purchase of laptops for those without one, and 10,000 BDT for the purchase of a device that would be advantageous for attending online classes. Similarly, some other administrators disclosed that COVID-19 caught them by surprise and for which they had no preparations. Even so, they provided equipment and monetary support to facilitate virtual education. Moreover, they made available an interest-free loan for academics so that they could proceed.

Notwithstanding, several administrators did not notice that the academic group receiving any logistical support. They emphasised that the teachers were not provided with any devices or other logistical assistance.

With regard to free data, some administrators indicated that they did not provide free bandwidth to teachers and students, but they did have a service agreement with the largest telecommunication company in Bangladesh. It was basically a memorandum of understanding between the university and the data provider, allowing the university to take advantage of the opportunity as a corporate client. Some administrators, nonetheless, mentioned that they had availed themselves of a similar approach to MOU with the mobile internet vendor; however, the facility was unsatisfactory, and academics did not stick with the inexpensive data plan for long.

#### 5.1.6.3. *Health and well-being support*

In relation to *Health and well-being support*, most of the Australian academics (75%) appeared to be satisfied with the health and wellness assistance that they received during the global pandemic. They suggested that the university offered guidance and support through a frequently updated website to address health and well-being during the COVID pandemic. Academics were strongly encouraged to implement the abundance of health and well-being tools, resources, and information, including the Employee Support Services.

Similarly to Australian contemporaries, Bangladeshi academics (nearly 70%) observed that their universities provided substantial assistance during the pandemic. When they were unable to obtain the vaccine, the university assisted them in enrolling and receiving it. In addition, they could receive discounted treatments. Some other academics focused on the

counselling services that there were psychiatrists and counsellors who were easily accessible and assisted instructors and students with their mental health.

Australian administrators shared comparable perspectives to that of their academic colleagues regarding the health and well-being support they received. They reported that there were a number of webinars and seminars that they could attend, and some of them remembered attending a few in which they practised group meditations and discussed ways to deal with mental health issues. Brian revealed a very interesting level of welfare assistance:

I feel that mental health is very well catered for at this university and I thank them for their genuine care. Quite frequently through the pandemic, I've got letters in the mail from the Vice Chancellor. I've had care packages of chocolates and little funny things to make me smile from my supervisor, as well as from the Human Resource Department. They really have done their best to care for us and help us through this difficult process, through encouragement through communication, and through PD.

This research outcome was in congruence with Howe et al. (2021) who argued in the US context that many organisations resourced vital measures for addressing the emotional, psychological, and physical wellness of their employees. Their efforts to boost the morale and well-being of their employees ultimately culminate in their feeling better and being more productive. Comparable socioeconomic conditions in Australia and the United States, as well as a culture of prioritising employee wellness to safeguard future productivity, may explain a similar approach to employee mental health.

Unlike Australian administrators, Bangladeshi administrators had arguments for and against favouring *Health and well-being support*. Some administrators seemed to concur with academic colleagues' positive assessment of health and wellness services, and they perceived that their corresponding universities had health centres where psychologists extended psychological support to stress elimination and related issues.

Many other administrators, on the contrary, presented counterarguments. They reported that there was no specific plan in place to ensure the mental health of academics (Dhawan, 2020). Mrinmoyee attempted to summarise Bangladeshi contexts:

I truly know a country like ours, the people at any level, at any profession, at any institution, the employers hardly care about employees' and academics' mental health. It's not only about the TESOL teachers, and it's true for all teachers. I don't think the teacher receives any extra care. And I don't think any teacher receives any care about this thing.



At a time when distance education is becoming more of a routine than an exception, assessing academics' digital literacy needs may be a priority. In addition to safeguarding PD requirements, institutions may also be responsible for their mental welfare (Howe et al., 2021). While transitioning to hybrid pedagogy in a non-Western country like Bangladesh, academics may encounter a number of barriers: a lack of technological skills, a stable internet connection in mostly rural areas, expensive data packages, and laptops and other equipment necessary for online education (Bashir et al., 2021; Dhawan, 2020; Khan et al., 2021b). Academics may find it challenging to manage everything on their own in the midst of so many obstacles without adequate institutional assistance (Dhawan, 2020; Khan et al., 2021b; Talib et al., 2021). Therefore, the institution should play a pivotal role in preparing its academic employees with sufficient PD and other resources.

#### 5.1.7. *Quantitative data (academics' questionnaire on professional development needs)*

Within the sphere of task-specific PD needs, Australian academics recognised three major domains, such as *Information and communication technology*, *Incentives to research for higher study and publications*, and the *Intercultural realm* as their task-based PD needs. In contrast, Bangladeshi academics highlighted a need for assistance with *Writing for publication*, *Research incentives for higher study*, *Information and communication technology*, and *Teaching higher order cross-curricular skills*. Some parallel themes were replicated in task-based PD demands, nonetheless, there were notable incongruities in how these needs were prioritised.

Academics from Bangladesh prioritised *Writing for publication*, while Australian academics ranked *ICT* as their top PD need. Western academia including Australia is considered as the hub for top-notch research with available resources (e.g., international research centres, labs, books and online journals and other resources). The majority of Australian academics (22) held a doctorate and had already gained essential research expertise. Nevertheless, technological education is perpetual because technology is constantly evolving (Lin, 2015). By providing countless opportunities for those at the novice level to develop and for those at the advanced level to refine their technological skills, as well as by staying current with the constant evolution of technology.

On the contrary, Bangladeshi academics with minimal assistance and enormous challenges continued to struggle to build research status and make their research portfolios

known internationally. The classic adage ‘academics must publish or perish’ is applicable to Bangladeshi circumstances as well. Additionally, academics’ promotion to the next level and salary increases were highly contingent on their research activity. Hence, there was both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation for publishing written work.

Irrespective of disparities in the comparative percentage, it is evident that Australian and Bangladeshi academics indicated their task-specific PD needs as manifested *in ICT, research and publication incentives, and Intercultural domains*. Online resources and PD programmes are growing increasingly popular as independent and flexible PD platforms. Lin (2015) captured Australian teachers’ perspectives:

...the flexibility and accessibility in time and location as well as the convenience and the range of learning activities and resources available online were the most salient, and they have thus formed another theme of the findings – the advantages of online PD. To be more specific, many participating teachers pointed out that the online mode may save time and energy and reduce the cost. (p. 538)

Like Australian academics, Saudi (Hazaea, 2019) and Indonesian (Zein et al., 2020) academics displayed substantial needs for maneuvering technology for online classes and internet-based teaching. This finding validated the identical conclusion of Guo et al. (2019), whose reviews of 147 publications published in indexed journals indicated ICT as the highest PD need.

Along a similar line of Australian academics’ intercultural PD needs, Turkish and American TESOL professionals expressed PD requirements concerning cultural pedagogy. A little over 40 Turkish university EFL professionals shared their PD needs to improve their pedagogy in multicultural classes as they felt overwhelmed in performing their roles in addressing diverse learners’ populations (Celik et al., 2013). Likewise, Hiatt and Fairbairn (2018) concentrated on 126 American TESOL teachers’ PD needs in the cultural realms so that teachers could raise their awareness of the varied cultural origins of learners as well as pertinent resources.

In terms of task-based PD needs of Bangladeshi academics within the sphere of research writing, a few previous studies laid the groundwork. Some twenty British TESOL professionals suggested that research training should be an integral component of in-service teachers’ professional knowledge building. Similarly, Hazaea (2019) identified the highest PD demands for research activities espoused by thirty-two native and non-native male TESOL professionals,

such as conference attendance and presentation, action research, and journal publication. The divergence between Australian and Bangladeshi academics' PD demands was noticeable in intercultural dimensions since Bangladeshi academics did not regard interculturality as their top-ranked PD need. The implications of this finding will be considered in-depth in the intercultural practice section of this discussion.

The rising popularity of ICT as PD providing platform could account for those online activities as a medium of self-directed PD establishment. Moreover, the emergence of the global pandemic that compelled face-to-face educational environments to move to digital settings contributed to its popularity. In addition, online programmes are evolving and improving with the development of ICT (Barahona, 2018; Lin, 2015) potentially strengthening the presence of online activities as part of teachers' PD now and more in the coming days, be it self-driven source or institutionally organised or even a combination of both. Hence, there may not be any plausible alternative to sound technological education to avail the best of digital educational milieus.

The intercultural PD needs of Australian academics may have multiple repercussions. The most obvious implication lies in the needs of Australian academics that their PD requirements may not have been treated seriously by their respective departments and institutions. Without addressing their needs, and furnishing them with adequate training, nobody can expect them to perform appropriately towards achieving the objective, namely, intercultural paradigms. This not only suggests weaker institutional PD provisions prevalent in Australian universities but also foreshadows that academics may not be practising interculturality as they are not equipped with sufficient knowledge and training. This could be achieved by taking a few simple steps, such as by centrally ensuring some discipline-specific PDs along with a generic cluster of PDs; or by allocating some funding to individual departments, thereby empowering them to do what is necessary and what they deem important (Ling & Mackenzie, 2001; Viscovic, 2006).

#### *5.1.8. Qualitative data (academics' narratives on professional development needs)*

In this study, all Australian academics reported that their institutions conducted some form of needs assessment. Given that a greater proportion of Australian academics cited discipline-specific PD needs as their top priority, the validity of their needs assessment is called into question. If academics had a productive needs assessment system in place, their discipline-

specific PD needs would have been fulfilled. It could be argued that their needs assessment was not entirely effective as 50% of administrators appeared to agree with their academic contemporaries. In addition, 25% of academics mentioned the ambiguity of their current needs assessment.

Concerning the inefficacy of the prevailing needs assessment at an Australian university, Michael, while noting that an annual needs assessment system was in place, emphasised the underlying dynamics of how the entire system operated in both liberating and limiting ways. He reported that they had a method for documenting their needs, while their awareness of what would be approved acted as a filter preventing academics from utilising the needs analysis system effectively. John, an Australian administrator, expressed a similar viewpoint when he indicated that he did not believe his university conducted a systematic PD needs assessment. It may also be argued that Australian TESOL academics had been expressing their needs for subject-specific PD, however, their demands had not been taken seriously or no appropriate measures had been considered to address their subject-specific PD needs.

In contrast, the majority of Bangladeshi academics appeared to be dissatisfied that there was no need's assessment in their respective universities. Bangladeshi academics (83.3%) maintained that they had needs assessments administered by their institutions. This indicated that there was an informal discussion of their needs with the departmental chairpersons, but there were no systematic and formal provisions for assessing their PD needs. Regarding their professional agency in determining their PD experience, participating academics from both nations were equally concerned.

The qualitative data revealed that TESOL academics from the selected countries mostly prioritised their agency and the value of the educational atmosphere. Indeed, academics wished to have a say in the decisions made for their PD (Reed, 2019; Wichadee, 2012). MacPhail et al. (2019) further emphasised the need of having an effective PD process in place that was linked to individual requirements and the changing circumstances. In the study by McChesney and Aldridge (2021), both native and non-native instructors in the UAE emphasised that acceptable PD should be needs-based, contextually appropriate, and relevant to broader cultural contexts. Academics expressed appreciation for their professional autonomy and the opportunity to consult with administrators when planning their PD programmes. When this was not the case, they tended to reject ideas and methods of professional advancement.

Evidently, organising PD activities for academics without their input may be inefficient and wasteful of the time and resources of pertinent stakeholders. Academics' professional

autonomy appeared to be a key factor in achieving improved PD outcomes. Diaz-Maggioli (2014) was making a connection between sociocultural theory and learners' professional agency, he argued that teachers' autonomy assisted in repositioning the roles of the teachers by empowering the latter to seek additional control over the learning process. The research (McChesney & Aldridge, 2021; MacPhail et al., 2019; Wichadee, 2012) also indicates that academics tend to reject or disengage from those activities when their ideas are not incorporated into the design of their PD. It may be necessary to integrate academics' perspectives into the content selection process given that PDs are intended to educate them. To finish, a productive PD praxis should begin with a comprehensive needs' assessment of academics. Alongside this, recognising their professional autonomy may assist in the reformation of traditional PD cultures.

#### *5.1.9. Qualitative data (semi-structured interviews with administrators on professional development needs)*

In Australia, 50% of administrators who participated in semi-structured interviews disputed the existence of needs assessment provisions and academics agency in designing their PD events. This served as a reminder for Australian administrators that there were no TESOL-specific PD needs assessments existed in Australian universities. Most Bangladeshi administrators (83.3%) reported that neither a needs assessment nor their voices (66.7%) were heard in the determination of their PD activities.

This finding is consistent with Kabilan and Veratharaju (2013) who argued that this was primarily due to the relative absence of opportunities for teachers to express their preferences for meaningful and applicable PD schemes. According to these researchers, in many contexts around the world, especially in developing and Third World nations, teachers articulated their frustration at not having access to PD programmes that matched their interests and needs. Reed (2019, p. 73) expressed comparable frustration while conducting research on Australian TESOL teachers associated with ELICOS centres. Reed indicated that there were almost no opportunities for TESOL teachers to offer input to their PD, to which she responded, "this is surprising" given that this had been a long-standing demand for reform.

#### *5.1.10. Triangulation*

The views of half of the Australian administrators appeared to contradict those of academics: administrators reported that the academics' opinions were taken into consideration when creating their PD events. The administrators' observation could be supported by the

perceived reports where a few academics indicated having surveys and supervisor consultation opportunities at their universities. Triangulation also reflected the disagreement between the perspectives of academics and administrators in terms of PD needs assessment where 50% of the administrators appeared to contradict 100% of academics perceived PD needs for PD assessment perception, thereby indicating the inefficacy of the conventional needs assessment system available in Australian universities.

On the contrary, regarding professional agency and needs assessment in Bangladeshi universities, academics and administrators in Bangladesh found comparable results. Due to the fact that veteran academics in this study were also acting in administrative capacities in addition to their teaching and research responsibilities, they were academics first and administrators second, as opposed to administrators only or administrators first, which might help to explain the congruities between the findings of academics' narratives and administrators interviews in participating nations. The more compelling argument (Crandall, 1993; Richards & Farrell, 2005), however, might be that the problems had existed for decades, and all stakeholders involved want a thorough revamp of the existing PD frameworks. Additionally, these triangulations improve the validity and dependability of the study's findings.

In conclusion, data collected in response to *Research Question One* emphasised that there were systematic and adequate PD provisions in Australian universities. However, the PD opportunities were not exclusively for TESOL academics; rather there were generic opportunities targeting all academics in respective universities. Academics appeared to be dissatisfied with universal PD provisions as they believed they needed more contextualised, and discipline-specific PD provisions. Bangladeshi academics, on the other hand, created an insufficient PD provision status because there were few, and in some university environments, no institutional PD options.

Broadly, PD provisions in relation to this research findings could be described as largely unsystematic, ad hoc, and insufficient. Since there were not many PD events aimed primarily at TESOL academics' PD, Bangladeshi academics raised similar reservations about the contemporary PD provision phenomenon as did their Australian counterparts.

The research on the demands of Australian academics focused on *ICT, research and publication incentives, and Intercultural domains*. However, while Bangladeshi academics expressed a similar PD preference for *ICT*, they also emphasised *Journal publishing* and

*Incentives for research and higher education.* Another notable distinction was that intercultural PD needs were not prioritised by Bangladeshi academics. However, academics from the participating countries unanimously made clear demands for needs-based PD, where they would be in charge of their own PD experiences.

These findings are in line with social constructivism theory and thus have several theoretical ramifications. The conceptualisations of this study derived from social constructivism theory, which emphasised the role of specific educational context, relevance to a particular pedagogical environment or needs-based, and learners' agency in determining the course contents. With regard to the particular influence of social surroundings and the contexts where teaching-learning happens within the realm of constructivism theory, Postholm (2012) indicated,

Within the constructivist paradigm, the social surroundings are seen as decisive for how the individual learns and develops. Individuals construct knowledge and learn through mediated acts in the encounter with one or more persons and the surroundings in which they live and act. (P. 406)

Here the findings concerning PD provisions and needs reflect three powerful social constructivists' theoretical tenets that include discipline-specific PD provision, needs-based PD, and learners' voice in deciding their PD contents. While establishing the relevance of contemporary teacher education with sociocultural theory, Johnson (2015) highlighted the profound implication of teachers' agency in determining their PD programmes:

Finally, the extent to which engagement in the practices of L2 teacher education will become internalised psychological tools for teacher thinking depends, in large part, on teacher agency and the affordances and constraints embedded within teachers' professional worlds. (P. 519)

All these findings (for example, discipline-specific PD, needs-based, and academics' needs for professional autonomy) have crucial and far-reaching practical implications because optimum PD depends on those preconditions. Incorporating them into any educational context (in this case, PD milieus) can generate a meaningful PD experience. Additionally, a favourable ambience may lead to the eventual internalisation of information, resulting in enhanced student performance (Utami & Prestridge, 2018). Moreover, this study has several new findings (e.g., positive PD induction provisions, discipline-specific PD needs, PD needs within intercultural spheres) advancing contemporary TESOL academics' PD provisions and needs literature in

Australia and Bangladesh first, then for other Western and non-Western, and native and non-native contexts due to their universal values.

## 5.2. Research question 2.

*What are the resources and mechanisms TESOL academics used in Australia and Bangladesh for their academic growth?*

### 5.2.1. Quantitative data (academics' questionnaire on professional development mechanisms for growth)

According to the findings of the questionnaire, Australian academics identified *Colleagues helped me on the job*, *Collaboration with associates in the same field*, *Independent use of online resources*, *Reading professional literature*, and *Attended online courses/webinars* as the best PD mechanisms.

Lankveld et al. (2017) in their study reflected similar findings concerning collegiality and collaboration as the most effective PD mechanisms. In their summary of 59 publications on university academics in general, Lankveld et al. (2017) noted that collegial dialogues and supportive direct work ambience sustained university academics' professional enhancement. Educational support formed a positive community of like-minded practitioners, which was critical for university teachers' professional enrichment because instructors became emotional (at times), and they required constructive patronage from their peers. Price (2020), too, in relation to the importance of collegial conversations, demonstrated that peers and collegial consultation were the most stimulating PD practices. Guo et al. (2019) also found, when they examined 10 out of 147 articles on language teacher education published in *SYSTEM* that most of the researchers believed that reflection and collaborative learning were the most enriching PD means for enhancing their pedagogical capacity and skills.

Regarding the benefits of *Independent use of online resources*, Kiely and Davis (2010) demonstrated that the participating UK ESOL teachers valued reading in relation to validating their practice and reflecting on pedagogical aspects. Kabilan et al. (2011) focused on Malaysian and international TESOL professionals' virtual collaborative projects and figured out that online collaborative platforms sharpened those TESOL teachers' five skills encompassing planning and researching, problem-solving, active involvement, language skills, and computing skills. The top-ranked PD mechanisms, according to Macalister's (2018) large-scale



survey of 465 ELT professionals from multiple Western and Non-Western nations, were reading current literature and performing research activities.

Bangladeshi academics recognised *Independent use of online resources*, *Doing research/publication*, *Reading professional literature*, *Critical reflective practice/teaching journals*, *Attended online courses/webinars* and *Critical reflective practice* as the most meaningful PD strategies for enhancing their academic mindset, which contrasted the mechanisms that Australian academics preferred. In terms of online resources, Sadeghi and Richards (2021) described the Internet as a major source of PD for both public and private school EFL teachers. Watching educational resources was the most frequently used PD activity in Iran. Barahona (2018) evaluated ICT as a core element of most modern approaches to PD as a result of the potential of ICT to provide widely available and flexible educational opportunities, in addition to ready options for effective online collaboration among a larger collection of educators from various locations. Burgeoning forms of advanced technologies, such as Internet sites, digital materials, rich e-learning platforms, and mobile phone applications are increasingly being incorporated as vital PD programmes.

Due to the inextricable connection between teaching and research, a wide range of researchers rated research activities highly while discussing productive PD engagements. Klink et al. (2017) reported findings from a large-scale international study (twenty-five participants and ten countries) that the vast majority engaged in research inquiries, which they viewed as critical to their PD. Writing research articles was depicted as an activity with a greater cognitive value. Lankveld et al. (2017) revealed a comparable approach towards research and publication experience by emphasising that writing research articles is a high-value learning activity driven by intrinsic inspiration. Additionally, they stressed research frameworks and results to align their classroom practice. In both situations, they felt the need to reflect, and as a result of taking ownership of the information and understanding gained via reflection, they eventually grew into more confident, coherent, and transformative professionals. Dikilitaş and Yaylı (2018) documented through qualitative research, that 15 Turkish university EFL professionals recorded action research, teachers' engagement with students, and engaging in the research were cited as rewarding PD experiences. When the participants felt a need to modify and advance their classroom practices, they engaged in self-reflection and self-evaluation.

There is a significant implication of the independent use of online resources as one of the highest-rated mechanisms for PD in this research. The research was undertaken amid a

global epidemic when academics, along with other professionals and the general public, were quarantined in their homes. As a result, they had a greater reliance on browsing and learning from online resources. In addition, academics reported that they participated in online workshops and seminars as well as presented in online conferences for their professional progress.

It seems to be that the majority of the PD mechanisms contributing to the development of TESOL academics' professional character irrespective of contexts are self-initiated PD strategies. Such self-driven PD activities might be problematic due to their innate subjectivity. Academics may fail to objectively view the broader needs and arguably engage themselves in PD programmes which were of immediate value to them. They may also avoid any training that might be time-consuming and expensive. Stewart (2014, p. 1) argued, "It is posed that passive and individual activities are insufficient to prepare instructors for implementing the cognitive and academic skills that students require for both college and workplace readiness".

More convincing PD engagements were identified, such as that of some Australian academics, specifically, who believed that participating in a professional community was more efficient than conventional techniques of continuing education. Perceiving the enormous potential of collaboration, Barahona (2018) suggested that to facilitate teachers' enduring examination and reevaluation of their own practices, PD should encourage teacher collaboration with those around them. Therefore, the integration of teachers into contexts enables them to collectively develop the insights, skills, and dispositions necessary to formulate and execute the finest pedagogical approaches for inclusive classrooms.

In light of the aforementioned discussion and based on the participants' viewpoints (both Australian and Bangladeshi academics), it may be stressed that collaboration is treasured because innovation occurs through collaboration. Collaboration not only generates new information and concepts, but also fosters a culture that encourages and facilitates further education (Hadar & Brody, 2010). The generation of ideas and artefacts and the formulation of a common objective should not be overlooked. Apparently, various individuals may contribute in a variety of ways with differing views and open minds potentially enriching everybody's experience.

Some researchers (Zhang, 2018; MacPhail et al., 2019) also considered several constraints that needed to be addressed for a meaningful collaboration scheme. Real collaboration success in PD may be challenging to attain due to the importance of variables

such as organisational culture, individual preferences, and the tools at your disposal. Notably, collaboration may take multiple shapes: between institutions and individuals, administrators and academics within and outside of institutions, and even with international specialists. On the whole, the participants of this research argue that collaboration through communities of practice safeguards productive PD engagements by securing a certain level of accountability (Barahona, 2018; Kabilan et al., 2011) and open dialogue relating to pedagogical issues, and other pertinent constructs (Dikilitas & Yayli, 2018; MacPhail et al., 2019).

### 5.2.2. *Qualitative data (academics' narratives on professional development mechanisms for growth)*

Overall, Australian (100%) and Bangladeshi academics (66.7%) appeared to identify comparable PD activities: *Colleagues helped me on the job*, *Collaboration with associates in the same field*, *Independent use of online resources*, *Reading professional literature*, *Doing research and publication*, and *Attended online courses/webinars* as the productive PD mechanisms for their professional upskilling. Their viewpoints regarding successful PD strategies marginally differed when Bangladeshi academics ranked *Critical reflective practice/teaching journals*, *Teaching experience* and *Workshops, conferences, and seminars* for the emergence of their academic mindset.

These findings are consistent with a series of research conducted in mostly Western and a few non-Western contexts (details in the later part of this discussion). While exploring the UK ESOL PD setting, Kiely and Davis (2010) documented that collaboration and classroom research practice led to a wider impact entailing multi-layered thinking, informing the decisions, reflections, and actions of an experienced practitioner. Similarly, Wichadee (2012) argued in Thai EFL university teachers' contexts that conversing with co-workers, reading scholarly papers, and attending workshops contributed to their academic growth. When researching twenty British TESOL teachers, Tavakoli (2015) generously credited teaching experience, collegial discussions, and research as the most rewarding PD mechanisms. The participants reinforced that their academic mindset emerged through their everyday practice, their lived experience and learning that occurred out of their involvement in these processes.

In both Western and non-Western contexts, pedagogical learning was regarded as a valuable PD resource (Joshi et al., 2018; Price, 2020; Tavakoli, 2015). Twenty British TESOL teachers, as reported by Tavakoli (2015), acknowledged that the teaching experience itself provided them with the most beneficial educational insights and opportunities. Joshi et al.

(2018) found that Nepalese tertiary EFL teachers believed that a sizeable portion of their PD occurred through their own teaching practice. According to Price (2020), the participants' emphasis on daily pedagogical experience, working with people, and providing assistance contributed to their professional upskilling.

Furthermore, regarding collaboration and electronic materials, Pramastiwi (2018) observed that after participating in an online collaboration for a MOOC on ICT, the participants acknowledged the simple incorporation of novel concepts and reconfigured the proposed virtual tools to address classroom instructional challenges. In addition, the teachers utilised their metacognitive abilities to engage in collegial discussion with a diverse professional network and collaboratively construct comprehension.

Concerning *Critical reflective practice*, a substantial corpus of literature (Chitpin, 2011; Dikilitaş & Yaylı, 2018; González & Ospina 2005; Guo et al., 2019; Kiely & Davis, 2010; Ravandpour, 2019; Richards & Farrell, 2005; Wichadee, 2012) aligns with the current research outcome. Reflecting on her own practice is crucial, according to Chitpin (2011), because she connected it to understanding her own position, and the better she became cognizant of her position, the more she was able to meditate on and adjust her personal capabilities and weaknesses. Dikilitaş and Yaylı (2018) demonstrated that self-examination and self-reflection emerged while individuals perceived an obligation to modify and advance their educational practices. Finally, Ferrell (2019) opined that reflective practice constitutes a vital component of teachers' PD because it could aid in synthesising theory with practice.

Although Australian and Bangladeshi academics identified similar strategies through questionnaires and narratives, their judgements differed. In the Australian setting, there was no divergence perceived in terms of *Collegial discussion*, however, fewer academics appeared to rate *Collaboration, Online resources and Reading* while narrating their best PD experiences. Likewise, with Bangladeshi academics' narratives, *Collegial discussion and Teaching experience* replaced *Online resources, Research, and Reading*. Hence, academics' ratings of similar PD mechanisms and resources varied. This minor incongruity could be explained by the fact that in the questionnaire survey, the participants were improvised with answer choices while with narratives, academics independently recorded their data. There could be another argument that the questionnaire was long and time-consuming. Denscombe (2014, cited in Cohen et al., 2017, p. 474) observes that a lengthy questionnaire can cause respondent fatigue.

Even after piloting and filtering, the participants may experience minor fatigue or fail to comprehend the appropriate meanings of certain question prompts.

Overall, there is almost no divergence in the selected PD mechanisms that academics selected. This may strengthen the arguments in favour of the strong design of data collection tools. Several new PD strategies (not found in the existing TESOL PD literature so far, the researcher's knowledge involved) also emerged through Australian academics' narratives as part of the findings of qualitative data involving *Reviewers in the journals*, *PhD supervisions*, *Role-modelling non-native teachers*, and *Various roles in different organisations* enriching contemporary PD mechanisms and resources for academics' development of professional character and pertinent literature.

### 5.2.3. *Qualitative data (semi-structured interviews with administrators on professional development mechanisms for growth)*

Data from the semi-structured interviews indicated that, overall, Australian administrators rated *Collaboration and community of practice*, *Online resources* and *Learning through research* as the most rewarding PD strategies for their academic advancement. This result is consistent with those of Canagarajah (2012) and Tavakoli (2015) in American and British settings. Canagarajah (2012) valued research publications and embraced the communities of practice perspective, which had been widely cited as a paradigm for professionalisation, as well as shared repertoire methods, reciprocal involvement, and cooperative endeavours. Likewise, Tavakoli (2015) found that educational experience and ownership of CoP knowledge were critical players in the development of TESOL teachers.

With regard to online resources, Utami and Prestridge (2018) demonstrated that teachers can learn online from the work of others and seek curriculum resources as well as methods of practice which have been applied by others. This is what led them to do self-directed online learning. They mentioned that the possibility of obtaining relevant knowledge was greater in their professional learning through browsing the internet or through self-chosen PD. For them, attending PD events, such as seminars or workshops, which were self-chosen was suitable to their needs and was as effective as online professional learning.

Bangladeshi administrators (66.67%) gave the highest rating to *Workshops*, *conferences*, and *seminars* as the best PD mechanism for their academics, denoting a sharp contrast with Australian administrators' ideal PD strategy. However, this result reflects the findings from a variety of studies (Joshi et al., 2018; Klink et al., 2017; Topkaya & Celik,

2016). Topkaya and Celik (2016) acknowledged that non-native secondary Turkish school teachers might acquire valuable knowledge and learnt through participating in courses and seminars, following professional publications, working with colleagues, and reading extensively about teaching.

While undertaking international research including six jurisdictions, Klink et al. (2017) highlighted successful PD approaches where participants from all countries indicated attending conferences, courses, workshops, or training, as well as work-related forms of PD, such as team meetings, collegial consultation, and collaboration with co-workers. The participants' self-efficacy, progress, and confidence were all enhanced by attending and giving presentations at the conference. MacPhail et al. (2019) identified an additional interesting advantage of attending workshops, conferences, and seminars. Participants suggested, due to a shortage of time to read a large number of articles, they attended workshops and conferences that would expose them to recent developments in a relatively short amount of time.

#### 5.2.4. Triangulation

The triangulation of academics' narratives and administrators' interviews yielded disparate findings. While Australian academics ranked *Collegial discussion* as the top PD mechanism, Australian administrators rated *Collaboration and community of practice* as the best PD practice. Bangladeshi administrators proposed *Workshops, conferences, and seminars* as the most stimulating PD mechanism for their academics in contrast to Bangladeshi academics who deemed *Collegial discussion* and *Teaching experience* to be the most important.

The discrepancy between narrative and semi-structured interview findings could be attributed to the degree of emphasis or in some cases, it could simply be that administrators were unaware of the preferable PD resources used by their academic colleagues. This finding from triangulation appears to have strengthened the argument for a weaker needs assessment system and the exclusion of academics' input in their own PD in the participating universities. Nonetheless, a few administrators from Australia and Bangladesh organised workshops, seminars, and conferences, and they saw positive enthusiasm among academics to participate and present in those conferences. In addition, they indicated that *Workshops, conferences, and seminars* were forums where like-minded academics could discuss their research interests, which might open avenues for future collaboration and networked learning. This incongruence between the perspectives of Australian and Bangladeshi administrators highlighted the need

for future research to explicitly acknowledge that the use of PD mechanisms is not always universal and that any research experiments have geographic and sociocultural limitations.

The research outcomes from all three data collection instruments concentrated on the fact that both Australian academics (*Collegial discussion, Collaboration and community of practice, Online resources, Reading, and Research*) emphasised collaborative, transformative, and individual (Kennedy, 2005, 2014) PD mechanisms. Bangladeshi academics and administrators, however, focused on the individual, transmissive, and transformative PD strategies (Kennedy, 2005, 2014) through the use of *Online resources, Research, Reading, Critical reflective practice, Collaboration, Collegial dialogue as well as Workshops, seminars, and conferences*. These research outputs have both contextual and theoretical implications.

In the case of Australia, approximately 100% of academics considered *Collegial interaction and Collaboration* as the most stimulating PD techniques. This choice implied that there could be a collegial environment in Australian academia which was conducive to academics engaging in research with each other, culminating in productive research collaboration. A large body of literature (Canagarajah, 2012; Coryell et al., 2021; Kiely & Davis, 2010; Klink et al., 2017; Levin & Marcus, 2010; MacPhail et al., 2019; Price, 2020; Tavakoli, 2015; Viscovic, 2006) conducted in Western contexts (New Zealand, USA, UK, Italy, and multiple other European countries) revealed that academics recognised collaborations, community of practices and collegial interactions as the most stimulating PD mechanism. Arguably, this may explain the parallel socio-economic atmosphere and PD institutional structures prevalent in Western countries.

At the same time, Australian academics also appreciated individual PD pursuits such as *Reading professional literature* with full access to high-indexed journals and *Independent uses of online resources*. Australian administrators, who rated *Collaboration and community of practice* as their best PD resource, concurred with academics' preference for collaborative and transformative PD methods; therefore, data triangulation improved the interpretation of the research outcome.

In contrast, Bangladeshi academics rated *Online resources, Research, and Reading* (access to the journal was an issue according to some participants of this research) as the most rewarding PD strategies. *Collaboration* within the department and *Collegial consultation* were reportedly prevalent in a few Bangladeshi universities that were well-known for their academic excellence according to a few participants' perceptions. Participants from a prominent

university deemed the collaboration and collegial exchanges rewarding among the six Bangladeshi universities that participated. The majority of academics at this university hold degrees from the UK, the USA, and a few European universities. In the past, they also had fruitful collaborations with the University of Warwick and the University of Manchester, which contributed to their higher education, academic advancement, and collaborative publications. As a result, it could be argued that they could disseminate these Western ideas for PD to that university due to their Western education.

However, in most of the Bangladeshi universities featured in this study, participants reported political conflict, animosities, professional jealousy, and rivalry among colleagues, which, according to several academics and administrators negatively impacted relationships and subsequent collaboration among academics. There were almost no provisions, according to the perceptions of Bangladeshi academics and administrators, for international collaboration, restricting their opportunities of creating a varied community of practice (CoP) that could include international experts.

In addition to the above-discussed PD strategies (for instance, online resources, reading, research etc) some of the administrators acknowledged the role of BELTA in organising workshops and conferences on top of the ones arranged by IQAC attributing to the popularity of workshops, seminars, and conferences with the Bangladeshi administrators indicating the availability of this form of PD in Bangladeshi universities. Some of these interview participants were also directors of IQAC, which bolstered their roles in organising those PD platforms.

The theoretical implications of the findings in relation to effective PD mechanisms entailing collaboration, collegial dialogues, and community of practice heighten one of the critical conceptualisations of the social constructivism theory, namely collaborative learning. Vygotsky (1978, p. 86) emphasised the value of collegial discussion and collaborative efforts in resolving professional issues:

...the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem-solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance or in *collaboration with more capable peers* [emphasis added].

Individual popular PD strategies (independent use of online resources, reading, and research) in this research might reflect academics' professional autonomy, individual choice, and relevance to individual needs and contexts which were not evident in the broader university PD provisions. This in turn draws attention to the core theoretical principles (relevant,



professional agency, needs-based, context-based) of social constructivism theory. In this regard, Yurtsever (2013) perceived that,

From a constructive point of view, teacher development cannot be presented or managed by others. Rather it is the teacher who decides which activities and/or resources should be used and for how long they should last for his/her own development. (p. 668)

The genesis of all learning within the realm of social constructivism is collaboration (Johnson, 2015). Constructivism emphasises professional agency, contextual and personal relevance, and motivation. In accordance with sociocultural theory, the conventional PD practices highlight the profound significance of collegial dialogue, collaboration, and community of practice in place of solitary PD engagements due to multiple benefits: dialogic and collaborative PD helps solve problems, removes monotony, and creates accountability within the forum of like-minded professionals. Indeed, this trend has been long identified by a series of researchers (Canagarajah, 2015; Johnson, 2009; Stewart, 2014) and described that the prevailing PD was moving towards the collaborative direction. Canagarajah pointed out that PD in TESOL shifted from its traditional attributes that solicited the acquisition of professional competence and the capacity to enact prescribed methods—to more interactive and positioned approaches with a greater emphasis on inclusive classrooms.

Overall, there are some contextual parallels and contrasts with respect to meaningful PD avenues by academics from Australian and Bangladeshi universities. With regard to similar PD strategies: *Online resources, Reading, and Research*, it may be stated that apart from *Online resources, Reading, and Research* have conventionally been deemed as universally popular and favourite PD resources among academics across nations. With technological innovations, consistent evolutions (Barahona, 2018; Lin, 2015; Paramastiwi, 2018) and the emergence of blended pedagogy, online resources appeared to be included in the best PD mechanisms and may continue to be in the set of effective PD resources. According to Pramastiwi (2018, p. 82), “...the reflective-collaborative online environment is integral to what constitutes a desirable CPD that is metacognitive teacher inquiry”.

All these researchers (Lin, Paramastiwi, and Barahona) have argued that ICT may dominate the future educational ambience due to its myriad advantages: flexibility in connection to space and time, relevance, and affordability (relatively inexpensive when compared to non-virtual options). Additionally, ICT offers collaboration opportunities with skilled professionals from all over the world. Apparently, the future success of the PD paradigm

may depend on the success of collaborative efforts and ICT skills. Hence, Bangladeshi academics may take solid initiatives to hone their technological knowledge and operating proficiency.

From the contextual divergences in relation to PD techniques, Bangladeshi academics may gain insights from Australian academics and improve collegial exchanges and stimulate more collaboration to the point of establishing a thriving community of practice culture. In non-Western nations, such as Bangladesh, where an economic crisis appears to be rife, this scheme could be of immense benefit. Internal support from academic peers, collaborative research endeavours, and pedagogical discussions can make a colossal difference in the Bangladeshi PD paradigm.

Academics may not be able to accomplish a flourishing collaborative and the culture of collegial dialogues on their own; a coordinated effort is mandated by the chief administrative authorities. They may address widespread political issues, professional envy, and unhealthy competition among academics in Bangladeshi universities to foster an optimal academic culture. Several other researchers (Al-Harbi & Ahmad, 2022; Phothongsunan, 2018) in various Asian contexts (for instance, Thailand and Pakistan) emphasised similar perspectives. Leveraging mutual benefits, such as motivation strategies and systematic compensation structure and establishing some professional integrity and protocols through central policy mediation may help to achieve this objective to a large extent (Lankveld, 2017).

Bangladeshi academics emphasised a few PD mechanisms compared to their Australian counterparts: study abroad and link programmes. Studying abroad was considered liberating by various Bangladeshi academics and administrators concurrently. They indicated that studying abroad unlocked multiple avenues for learning and academics returned with enhanced potential and pedagogical creativities. They introduced innovative mechanisms to the department and in turn, get promoted.

According to the Bangladeshi participants, the benefits of studying abroad included access to books, interactions and exposure to a multicultural society, and interactive classes. Perceiving multiple benefits of studying abroad, Bangladeshi academics seemed to make it their academic goal and preferred to pursue higher education in Western countries. Hence, some academics demanded financial support towards achieving higher degrees from foreign universities. This perspective derived from research showing that (Chien, 2020; Milian et al., 2015; Phothongsunan, 2018) Arabic (Middle East), Chinese, Thai, and Taiwanese academics

maintained that they pursue higher degrees as a means for PD, career advancement, and pay raise. Thai university academics, similarly to Bangladeshi academics, expressed their frustration as there was no financial aid for studying abroad despite those Thai academics having access to considerable PD opportunities.

Mahveen reported a wide spectrum of advantages that she had experienced from a link programme that her university had with a famous British university, Warwick University. Mahveen had attended Warwick University to earn a master's degree in ELT through a link programme that her university had at the time. She developed significantly because of that link programme and her subsequent degree. In addition, international experts visited the department and organised workshops and Mahveen learned considerably from those workshops. And these experiences enabled her to become a better teacher as she acquired innovative approaches, activities, and teaching methods. The instructors from Warwick University discussed novel topics, and she learned about their innovative strategies; collaboration with them helped also her greatly. Then her university established a second programme with the University of Manchester, which assisted academics in the production of two book publications.

Aysha, the administrative head of the same institution where Mahveen was a professor, appeared to imply the same link programme which her department established with Warwick University and how the university benefited from its international affiliations. Aysha explained that this was the case in the past when they had an international collaboration provision with Warwick University and some of their lecturers obtained master's degrees from Warwick. They also had exchange programmes; teachers came from Warwick; and their teachers visited Warwick for PD.

Academics from Bangladeshi universities demanded the exchange of academics and international collaboration opportunities at the institutional level believing that personal endeavour may fail to create the intended outcome. Australian academics may show similar interests in academic exchange programmes and international collaboration with non-English speaking countries to learn more about their cultures, customs, deep social values, and systems by prioritising firsthand learning opportunities (Troudi, 2005; Yang, 2020).

On the whole, there were almost no perceived incongruities between Australian and Bangladeshi academics regarding the optimal macro-level aspects of PD: needs-based, context-based, professional autonomy, peer-collaborative, and subject-specific PD. Individual PD activities may exhibit context-dependent differences. While Australian academics ranked

highly *Collaborative PD*, Bangladeshi academics ranked individual *PD Teaching experiences* in addition to *Workshops, conferences, and seminars*. This may also indicate, based on a combined understanding of the prior research (González & Ospina, 2005; Joshi et al., 2018; Wichadee, 2012) and the perceptions of Bangladeshi academics, that the availability of these PD in Bangladeshi universities and the lack of collaborative PD are the result of unique contextual structures, resources, and administrative policies. This discussion appears to strengthen the argument that an effective PD model should incorporate some meso-level optimal PD features while leaving room for micro-level contextual subtlety, uniqueness, and variety.

### 5.3. Research question 3.

*How do TESOL academics integrate intercultural awareness into their teaching practices?*

#### 5.3.1. Quantitative data (academics' questionnaire on intercultural paradigms)

Quantitative data indicated mixed results in Australian academics' intercultural paradigms. The data indicated that around 70% of Australian academics perceived that they adapted their pedagogical skill sets to accommodate cultural diversity in the class. Around 40% of those who supplied examples of their intercultural praxis indicated that they emphasised *Cultural similarities* and *Cultural dissimilarities* although more than 50% indicated that they integrated *International and domestic students in study groups*. With deeper intercultural practice dynamics (for instance, *Provide learning opportunities to reduce ethnic stereotyping and Train students to be flexible and mutually respectful*), about 42% and 71% respectively, of Australian academics reported that they included those dimensions in their instructions.

Byram (2021), the proponent of the intercultural theory, proposed five components of IC that included attitudes (relativising self and valuing others), knowledge (of self and other of interaction: individual and societal), education (political education, critical cultural awareness) skills (interpret and relate), skills (discover and/or interact) to communicate appropriately. Keeping these IC tenets in mind, the researcher examined the Australian academics' intercultural practice: the analysis indicated that Australian academics incorporated intercultural understanding into their lesson delivery; however, it could be argued that the state of their IC practice was not satisfactory given the disproportional correlation between the low percentage and their status as a premier education provider.

Regarding Bangladeshi academics' intercultural praxis, the quantitative data depicted a positive status. Approximately 50% of Bangladeshi academics reported that they modified their teaching to address cultural diversity, while less than 35 % emphasised intercultural collaboration among colleagues. When discussing fundamental pedagogical strategies, a little over 40% indicated that they attempted to improve their students' awareness of cultural similarities and differences, and they mixed local and foreign students in the same study groups. With profound aspects of intercultural competence (for example, *Train students to be flexible and mutually respectful* and *Provide learning opportunities to reduce ethnic stereotyping*) nearly 53.7% of Bangladeshi academics emphasised that they provided training so that their students could be more open, flexible, and respectful to individuals of other cultures, while 34.1% reported that they established learning opportunities to reduce ethnic stereotypes. Overall, the quantitative data revealed that Bangladeshi academics perceived that they integrated intercultural awareness into their pedagogy; however, the degree of inclusion or practice repertoire may have been insufficient because only a small percentage of teachers reported intercultural praxis.

An analysis of this quantitative finding through qualitative data and from different perspectives (academics and administrators) might provide further insights into quantitative outcomes of TESOL academics' intercultural paradigms in the participating countries.

### 5.3.2. *Qualitative data (academics' narratives on intercultural paradigms)*

In the oral narratives, academics were asked to provide concrete examples of how they incorporated intercultural awareness into their instructions (as opposed to quantitative data where they selected from the given question prompts). Australian academics (75%) said that they practised interculturality, and they gave evidence (Chapter: 4) to support their IC paradigms.

The examples provided by the academics were viewed through the intercultural epistemological lens that Byram advocated. One Australian academic appeared to emphasise open-mindedness and an ability to work across different cultures globally, which aptly reflected one of the intercultural principles; consequently, it could be argued that she possessed a solid understanding of intercultural dimensions. Likewise, another academic focused on similarities and differences within and across cultures as well as the uniqueness of individual cultures; this viewpoint was also consistent with intercultural perspectives as IC stressed learning about individuals' first culture. Yet another academic's disregard for native-speakerism and

advocacy for World Englishes is consistent with one of the intercultural epistemological ideas. It might, therefore, be argued that Australian academics are well-versed in intercultural paradigms. Barili and Byram (2021)

To cultivate this 21st-century competence is to develop skills, of discovering, relating, and interpreting knowledge of processes that result from historical and sociological contexts and that give rise to the unspoken rules of behaviour, and of using this knowledge in interaction with others. It presupposes the development of attitudes of openness and curiosity, and of “critical cultural awareness”. (p. 4)

Similarly to Australian academics, Bangladeshi academics (83.33 %) reported that they incorporated intercultural awareness into their instructions. Through the intercultural evidence (Chapter: 4), Bangladeshi academics emphasised the value of one’s own cultural and linguistic backgrounds while being open and mutually respectful to other cultures. These aspects of Bangladeshi academics’ interculturality are aligned with the intercultural theoretical lens because IC solicited the development of flexible approaches to other cultures and gradually growing non-judgemental, unorthodox, and compassionate toward people of various cultural origins. Nonetheless, one academic reproduced the questionnaire section verbatim, and another academic celebrated hegemonic native-speaker dogma led to scepticism about the intercultural proficiency of Bangladeshi academics. It is because the fundamentals of IC focused on learners’ first cultures and language rather than dominating native culture given the seismic shifts and the rise of English as a lingua franca (Scarino, 2010). Findings relating to the replication of the questionnaire and mediation of native-speakerism of Bangladeshi academics prompted the realisation that they might not fully grasp the principles and concepts of intercultural paradigms.

### *5.3.3. Qualitative data (semi-structured interviews with administrators on intercultural paradigms)*

Another perspective, such as that of administrators may assist in creating a fuller perspective of the status of intercultural practice in participating nations. Australian administrators (75%) corroborated that their academics included an intercultural focus in their lessons. The researcher then attempted to determine how they, as veteran academics-cum-administrators approached IC and how they infused an intercultural dimension into their instructional practice.

Half of the Australian administrators showed favourable attitudes to a broad intercultural interface, and almost all the administrators from both countries maintained that they integrated intercultural awareness into their teaching. The researcher adopted a similar approach to that applied to academics for examining their practice samples with the aim to justify their practice. Most of the Australian administrators appropriately exhibited their understanding of IC by concentrating on the value of learners' own culture, their ways of doing things, and most importantly, by advocating the worth of students' first language as a vital resource to TESOL pedagogy rather than an interference.

With respect to Bangladeshi academics' intercultural paradigms, one administrator indicated that her academics might practice this unconsciously. Another administrator failed to substantiate whether interculturality was practised, and two other administrators reported that their academics should include interculturality. Against 83.33 % of Bangladeshi academics' positive statements pertaining to their intercultural paradigms, 16.67% of administrators could support them. When asked about their IC, one administrator was able to cite examples by stressing the importance of blending local and global cultures, comparing how things were done in students' native cultures, and exploiting learners' linguistic and cultural backgrounds as important learning resources in the classroom.

Regarding administrators' attitudes towards IC, Bangladeshi administrators (83.3%) showed a positive disposition towards intercultural awareness and (16.67%) of administrators seemed to exhibit an unfavourable attitude towards IC. This administrator reported that intercultural knowledge was unimportant in Bangladeshi circumstances. He argued that classes in Bangladesh were predominantly comprised of students of monocultural origins. He expressed his beliefs in the following manner:

So, the issue of interculturalism in Australia and beyond is important. Because, you have students from different cultural backgrounds, different regional backgrounds, different social statuses, and different ethnic groups there. But in Bangladesh, the classes are quite homogenous. So, the intercultural issue is not actually that important in our context. It's important in other contexts, such as in Singapore, Canada, Malaysia, Australia or New Zealand. But the issue is not so serious here.

Some academics also reported that they did not perceive teachers' intercultural practices in this university because mostly the students shared homogenous cultural backgrounds. Below is a quotation from academics who claimed that monolingual classrooms did not require intercultural paradigms:

I would like to say that IC is not available. Intercultural practices are not observed at this university. Since, in our university, the students are almost from the same culture and same background and the teachers have similar cultural backgrounds. So, there is not enough cultural variation, or we don't need to face a lot of variations or diversity in this regard. So, intercultural practices are not a very big concern here.

Several researchers (Alvarez, 2020; Sercu, 2006) have demonstrated that an attitude to intercultural intelligence is a prerequisite to optimal IC practice. Sercu (2006) showed through her research that teachers who were positively disposed towards interculturality implemented IC while teachers who lacked the proper disposition appeared to overlook the intercultural dimension in their lessons. Alvarez emphasised that if teachers appeared to acknowledge interculturality as a pedagogical objective, they tended to practice intercultural fluency.

Apparently, a positive attitude is essential for the adoption of intercultural paradigms. Academics and administrators in Bangladesh appeared indifferent to the importance of intercultural awareness in TESOL classes, neglecting the reality of a globalised world and internationalising higher education. About this, Barili and Byram (2021) presented the argument that the internationalisation of higher education necessitated that we prepared our learners to converse with those who held different worldviews, with whom they might interact daily in their home countries, neighbourhoods, and educational institutions, as well as during their trips to foreign land.

The authors argued further that the language instructor should focus not only on the linguistic competence of the students, but also on their critical awareness of cultures and cultural identities and, based on this, their ability to interact with individuals from various cultural backgrounds. They also underlined that contemporary classrooms require intercultural praxis irrespective of monocultural and multicultural dichotomies and connected IC with global citizenship and humanistic education. According to (Barili & Byram, 2021, p. 4), "Humanistic purposes are a general educational aspiration across the curriculum with particular contemporary relevance, within both monolingual and multilingual environments".

Despite some unfavourable views from a number of Bangladeshi academics and administrators, a few other administrators held a constructive attitude towards intercultural communication by emphasising global citizenship education. The result ultimately lent support to Barili and Byram. It is important to share Bangladeshi administrators' optimistic outlook on the promotion of IC. The following passage represents their thoughts:



So, if we are unable to do that in a world that has changed. So, we have to be multicultural, we have to prepare our students so that they become global citizens, we can't build them as citizens of Bangladesh only, we have to create our future generations for global lives.

Along the line of a few administrators' positive approach to IC, some Bangladeshi academics also reported that IC might potentially bridge the gap between Western and non-Western countries and help construct better societies. This finding is in alignment with Kaowiwattanakul (2016) who argued that fostering global citizenship qualities is a key objective of higher education worldwide. Indeed, students should be equipped with the skills and information essential to navigate a borderless world, and institutions have a responsibility to furnish them with intercultural skills.

In short, Bangladeshi academics and administrators need to go beyond the dualities of monocultural and multicultural, monolingual and multilingual, homogenous and heterogenous classrooms and mediate IC while considering wider society and possible communication patterns of present and future generations (for instance, virtual communications including emails and through multifarious Apps). They should not lose sight of their vital obligation of building intercultural speakers and consequently global citizens.

#### *5.3.4. Triangulation*

Triangulation between Australian academics' narratives and semi-structured interviews with administrators indicated congruence concerning academics' intercultural paradigms which subsequently strengthened Australian TESOL academics' positive approach to intercultural praxis. Apparently, there was an incongruence between Bangladeshi administrators' and academics' perspectives in relation to academics' intercultural practice questioning the veracity of Bangladeshi academics' intercultural practice. Evidently, data triangulation through comparative perspectives between academics and administrators (particularly in Bangladesh contexts) played a crucial role in discovering a wider disparity between the academics' self-reports and the actual status of IC in their curriculum. In addition, administrators' insight into academics' intercultural paradigms aided in achieving an accurate depiction of academic interculturality in Bangladesh.

#### *5.3.5. Universities support towards interculturality*

The researcher examined the data to gain insight into each university's support for intercultural paradigms within the universities. Australian academics (50%) reported that their designated universities hosted festivals and multicultural events. The remaining 50% of respondents stressed that their universities offered opportunities for facilitating students'

comprehension of cultural discrimination as well as implementing teaching approaches that integrated global issues into the broader curriculum. In response to the researcher's request for qualitative explanations, for instance, they emphasised that their universities fostered an understanding of Indigenous cultures. The participants reported that Indigenous education was mandatory in Australian universities. Consequently, academics received training on how to effectively interact with Aboriginal students, but no such training appeared to exist for similar understanding or interacting with international students or for broader IC practice.

This finding is consistent with those of Deardorff (2006) and Probert (2015) who argued that the development of IC among learner populations is a significant outcome of internationalisation efforts in tertiary institutions, nonetheless, a few universities address this as an educational objective. According to Probert (2015),

Australians are more comfortable discussing the same kinds of qualities using the more prosaic language of 'graduate attributes'. The project identified 'global citizenship' as a widely shared attribute that included the development of both 'global perspectives' and a sense of local/domestic social responsibility. Twenty-two universities included a statement about social or civic responsibility (though most of these statements referred to attitudes of mind rather than requirements to act). (p. 16)

Since Australian academics participated in cultural training, it might be considered that they were aware of the intercultural paradigms when all relevant factors were considered. However, with no accountability to universities, no formal curriculum mandate (reported by 50%), and a narrow, justifiable focus on Indigenous culture instead of broad interculturality, the intercultural practice of Australian academics is in doubt. It might be argued that institutions had a greater role to play in ensuring, and monitoring academics' intercultural paradigms. In this sense, Pasquale (2015) indicated,

In contemporary society, promoting intercultural principles becomes the task of the school that, as one of the main educational agencies, is called upon to respond to the new needs of a multicultural society. (p. 2609)

Although Australian academics were knowledgeable in IC principles and concepts, engaged in research, and received cultural training in Australian Indigenous culture, they might not always engage in broad intercultural paradigms in the classroom. It might also be argued that their intercultural practice might not be as adequate as revealed in quantitative data where 75% of academics' self-reports revealed that they included intercultural understanding in their lessons. Barbara, a veteran academic, through her narrative, summed up the essence of their intercultural praxis as follows:

Given the few undergraduate courses specifically aimed at training teachers for intercultural diversity, the current priority is towards teaching to awareness of indigenous inclusion and limited focus on training teachers for the EAL needs of students in schools. Developing broader intercultural skills for the future among academics is not recognised and a prioritised need for academics.

In the case of the Bangladeshi participants, around 33.3% of the academics appeared to show a lack of awareness of IC concepts and principles indicating that they might not promote their students' intercultural ability in class. Subsequently, their administrators were unaware of their intercultural paradigms. When it came to universities' support, fewer than 40% of participants reported that their corresponding universities held multicultural events or created opportunities to enrich students' understanding of cultural discrimination. During qualitative discussions, some academics and administrators noticed that IC was neither included in the curricula nor in academics' course materials reflected IC, which prompted questions about Bangladeshi academics' intercultural praxis. One administrator shared her perception here, which tended to be represented in this case by pointing out that she believed that academics should or already do this, but she was uncertain. It was because of the fact that she had never encountered such a topic in the course materials and curriculum utilised at her institution.

According to quantitative data, (53.7%) of Bangladeshi academics acknowledged that they provided training to students to be mutually respectful, (51.2%) emphasised cultural similarities and (43.9%) indicated cultural differences as pedagogical strategies. Bangladeshi academics stressed that their class materials and resources were multicultural (which were American, British, and published in other Western countries), so, it might be argued that they integrated cultural awareness into their pedagogy rather than fostering intercultural competency in their learners.

In the case of Bangladeshi academics, both quantitative and qualitative data revealed that they might engage in discussion of cultural similarities and dissimilarities as part of their IC pedagogical techniques. Several researchers (Alvarez, 2020; Chlopek, 2008; Lee, 2012; Olaya & Rodríguez, 2013) found that engaging students in this kind of discussion was to make class interesting in the beginning, however, it should not be continuing for long. Without embracing deeper elements, such as creating opportunities for students to develop suitable intercultural skills so that they might emerge neutral and unprejudiced towards cultural others and guiding them to gradually shift from ethnocentrism to ethnorelativism through critical reflection. Alvarez (2020) suggested that cultural convergences and divergences might be utilised in the beginning to raise students' curiosity and interests in other customs and

behaviours, only to navigate their thought processes to deeper reflections and through that growing non-judgmental, unorthodox, and liberal. In a similar vein, Oranje and Smith (2018, pp. 311-312) remarked,

Through exploration and reflection, learners compare their cultural views with those of the target language. In doing so, effective communication is enhanced as learners come to anticipate, recognise, and manage misunderstandings, accept other viewpoints as equally valid, and understand that their own cultural perspectives are not 'right' or 'the norm' in relation to 'the other'.

There might be another argument prompted by Bangladeshi academics' reports that they used books published by mostly America and other Western countries, so their practice could be intercultural due to the materials they used in class. Western materials, movies, food, music, and other related learning aids often develop a touristy vision of Western cultures. Alvarez (2020) discussed that the participating teachers' conceptions and materials led students to perceive North American culture as an emblem of power and influence, whereas the culture of developing nations and minority communities was seen as inferior or underdeveloped.

Therefore, the superficial perspective of culture found in travel analogues or on television is a serious concern, as it may cause students to focus on the negative aspects of cultural others rather than the facts and values that can enrich their learning experiences. This disparaging contrast is what perpetuates biased notions of other cultures. According to Liddicoat and Scarino (2013), traditional teacher transmission of preconceived and static information about cultures may not enhance students' ICC; rather, these approaches stimulate culturally based stereotypes and prejudices. Hence, strong university support accompanied by adequate PD could empower academics with appropriate pedagogical knowledge which might enable them to view IC as a holistic concept than a fragmented or discrete component.

Based on the aforementioned quantitative and qualitative data and subsequent critical appraisal, it might be argued that Australian academics integrated intercultural awareness while delivering lessons, nonetheless, their practice dimension might not achieve the required level (of a foremost world-class education provider and popular destination of international students from all around the world). This finding contradicts the existing widespread body of knowledge that teachers believed IC was important, yet they did not incorporate intercultural focus into their instruction. This research finding revealed that teachers perceived IC as important, and they incorporated intercultural praxis to a certain extent.

As a case in point, the intercultural practice of in-service TESOL professionals in myriad contexts (Belgium, Bulgaria, Greece, Mexico, Poland, Spain, Sweden, China, USA,

UK, France, Indonesia, Vietnam, Turkey, Columbia, and Iran) demonstrated a recurrent theme to the effect that teachers were aware of IC and the essential benefits it could offer in a language classroom; nevertheless, the intercultural paradigm did not mark their actual classroom practice (Eken, 2015; Gandana & Parr, 2013; Karabinar & Guler, 2013; Safa & Tofighi, 2021; Sercu, 2006; Chen & Li, 2011; Tian, 2016; Tran & Dang, 2014; Young & Sachdev, 2011; Vo, 2017). Unfortunately, these studies captured teachers' reluctance towards interculturality, a mismatch between their beliefs and what they reported as important namely intercultural praxis, as well as their lack of expertise and training as the key obstacles to their intercultural paradigms. Likewise, Oranje and Smith (2018) demonstrated a misalignment between English language teachers' attitudes and practice among New Zealand practitioners, corroborating prior findings in international study contexts focusing on Asian countries.

According to the findings of the current study, and unlike the preceding studies, Australian TESOL academics were seemingly well-versed in the principles and tenets of IC and their practice fitted with their views to some extent. In the case of Bangladesh, however, the findings partially corroborated the previous literature, as academics might not promote IC in class. Yet, a number of prominent Bangladeshi academics with Western degrees were knowledgeable about intercultural principles and paradigms.

Since Australian intercultural paradigms appeared unsatisfactory with some deeper dimensions were *Train students to be flexible and mutually respectful* (53.7%) and *Cultural dissimilarities* (43.9%), it may be prudent to discuss a few pedagogical issues identified in Western countries, including Australia.

Ronai and Lammervo (2017) investigated ESL Australia context through a qualitative investigation and found that Australian TESOL teachers ethnically stereotype their students by attributing cultural factors to a variety of learning-related tendencies. Teachers generally viewed the cultural upbringings of their students as indicators of either national or regional culture (For example, Chinese, Japanese, Asian so on and so forth). Less frequently, the interviewed instructors collectively labelled their students based on race, cultural, and religious beliefs, or national language. Consequently, the data indicated that Australian native English speakers established themselves as culturally superior in relation to their culturally inferior learners. According to Ronai and Lammervo (2017),

...Australian, native-English speaking participants constructed themselves as culturally unproblematic Selves in relation to their culturally problematic student others. From the data, a sense that participants felt the need to culturally "civilise" their students emerged, highlighting evidence of colonialist discourses. (p. 325)

In their analysis and synthesis of the literature on intercultural paradigms in EAP settings, Canadian researchers Douglas and Rosvold (2018) uncovered eight major themes. Miscommunication among students and between students and instructors had been identified as a problem in EAP classrooms due to cultural misunderstandings. Specifically, instructors might misinterpret their students due to ethnocentric misconceptions and a perspective that interprets student behaviour through an ethnic lens of distinction. Complementing the concept of ethnorelativism was the motif of belonging, which highlighted the multifaceted nature of the cultural individual and the external factors that influence personal identity, such as gender, sexuality, and power relations. Instead of addressing these impediments influencing their intercultural praxis, the teachers were found to consider acculturation as a goal of their pedagogy. According to Douglas and Rosvold (2018),

Related to the theme of ethnocentrism, acculturation as a curricular goal was also found, with responsibility to adapting to the host culture with students from linguistically with responsibility to adapting to the host culture resting with students from linguistically diverse backgrounds. (p. 39)

In the foregoing section, numerous universal and contextual obstacles to fundamental interculturality are enumerated. Universal challenges include transmitting superficial cultural information, textbooks, time constraints, demanding syllabus, IC is not included in the curricula (Bickley, 2014; Chlopek, 2008; Lee, 2012; Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013; Oranje & Smith, 2018; Sercu, 2006; Young & Sachdev, 2011) and avoiding deep cultural discussions through cultural contrasts (Alvarez, 2020; Karabiner & Guler, 2013; Olaya & Rodríguez, 2013). Contextual barriers involve culturally stereotyping students, teachers' perceptions of themselves as possessing superior cultural identities compared to culturally inferior students, the colonial legacy of ethnocentrism instead of ethnorelativism prevalent in Western countries (Douglas & Rosvold, 2018; Oranje & Smith, 2018; Ronai & Lammervo, 2017). However, these intercultural researchers have identified the role of effective PD in overcoming these barriers. Therein lies the potential strength of the current study as it intends to reconstruct the initial INSPIRE model to make it transnationally functional by embracing empirical evidence pertaining to universal and contextually relevant PD components.

To finish, the response to *Research Question Three* is that Australian academics integrated intercultural awareness while delivering lessons, nonetheless, their practice dimension might not achieve the satisfactory level of a leading education provider. Bangladeshi academics, on the other hand, might not promote IC in class. It might also be argued that they incorporated cultural awareness into their pedagogy rather than fostering intercultural

competency in their learners.

In order to construct an intercultural model combining Western and non-Western, native and non-native components, the researcher incorporated Australian and Bangladeshi academics' critical evaluations of the contemporary PD practice and their improvements for bringing about the desired changes. On the basis of the essential components of academics' evaluations and recommendations, the initial INSPIRE PD model will be modified to make it transnationally functional.

## 5.4. Critical evaluations

### 5.4.1. Quantitative data (academics' questionnaire on critical evaluations)

Australian academics assessed that the *Available PD opportunities are current, needs-based, relevant, and have a good impact on their classroom teaching*. Moreover, they indicated that *Available PD did not help build cultural awareness and cultural sensitivity*. On the contrary, Bangladeshi academics appraised that *Available PD opportunities are relevant and contextualised*. Additionally, they maintained that *Available PD is not up-to-date* and *Online training is not interactive*.

The result concerning cultural sensitivity reflects Alvarez's (2020) argument that developing ICC required special guidance and scaffolding from continuing language instructors. However, he found that teachers' PD programmes had weakened as opportunities for additional training receded. As a result, the existing PD opportunities failed to enhance teachers' intercultural intelligence essential for refining their intercultural insights and subsequent praxis.

Regarding updated PD provisions, Prapaisit and Hardison (2009) demonstrated that in-service PD programmes needed to be upgraded and, to this end, teachers' and students' feedback was to reach policymakers to make essential amendments. In relation to online training in the TESOL context, Pawan et al. (2003) evaluated three online courses offered to in-service teachers by a large midwestern university in America and revealed that these distance learning courses were less-interactive, less-collaborative and produced fewer critical ideas, and appeared more like a series of monologues when compared to non-virtual experiences.

In the literature, there are both arguments and counterarguments for one-off professional training. Wichadee (2012), for example, argued that many Thai university EFL instructors were dissatisfied with the content of training or seminars because they did not satisfy the requirements or interests of staff. Similarly, Dikilitas and Yayli (2018) observed

similar issues with one-off teacher training, citing the limited opportunities for interaction in the training paradigm as a drawback. Joshi et al. (2018), on the contrary, summarised that NELTA (Nepali English Language Teachers' Association) was proactive in organising ELT conferences, workshops, and seminars nationally and regionally, hence, profession-related PD activities, such as workshops, seminars, and conferences became popular methods for Nepali EFL professionals.

Hence, the quantitative findings on Bangladeshi universities' existing PD status demonstrated their less optimistic perspectives about the current PD practices in Bangladeshi universities. It is also to be noted that Australian academics deemed the current PD opportunities inadequate in terms of enhancing their intercultural sensitivity.

#### 5.4.2. Qualitative data (academics' narratives on critical evaluations)

Australian (75%) and Bangladeshi (100%) academics regarded their current PD state as voluntary, and no participating academic employees voiced reservations about their non-compulsory PD provisions. There were, however, arguments in favour and against mandatory PD discussions among administrators. While some administrators suggested that mandatory PD could enhance PD outcomes because their academic colleagues were preoccupied with second jobs and politics, others described mandatory PD as "tick-boxy" and unnecessary for university-level teachers. This finding resonates with that of (Ling & Mackenzie, 2001; Yurtsever, 2013). Yurtsever (2013) asserted that,

The professional development programmes need to be held in a relaxed, not compulsory, and free environment so that instructors might have a chance to seek what they want, whom they can work with, how they can achieve their goals, and in what ways they can evaluate and improve their teaching. (p. 671)

Overall, Australian and Bangladeshi academics appeared to be concerned over *Limited interculturality, Not discipline-specific and Self-initiated PD*. The evaluations of the existing PD status considerably varied when Bangladeshi academics tended to identify *Irregular, unstructured, informal, and not updated, Not needs-based and top-down PD, Lack of financial support, Insufficient PD and Unsatisfactory PD*.

Concerning *Self-initiated PD*, a wide spectrum of researchers (González & Ospina, 2005; Jacob et al., 2015; Joshi et al., 2018; Neilsen, 2011; Stanley, 2017) concluded that TESOL practitioners' PD was self-initiated because their affiliated institutions offered few PD opportunities. Neilsen, Jacob et al., and Stanley, emphasised the fact that TESOL teachers relied heavily on themselves because their employers provided minimal and sporadic CPD.



Similarly, Joshi et al. (2018) demonstrated that Nepali professionals appeared to rely primarily on self-directed modes of PD, including self-teaching, self-monitoring, self-observation, and introspection, for their academic advancement. Finally, MacPhail et al. (2019) observed that teacher educators from six European countries reported being required to self-finance their teacher training, with universities playing a minor role in their professional upskilling. Apparently, PD conditions appeared to be self-directed in a substantial number of developing and developed nations.

Regarding *Irregular, unstructured, informal, and outdated and Insufficient PD*, Chaudary (2011) and Al-Harmi and Ahmad (2022) indicated that PD for Pakistani tertiary teachers was problematic. In the majority of circumstances, PD for Pakistani teachers was brief, infrequent, and traditional and transmitted off-site through top-down teacher training practices. Additionally, the researcher found that PD for tertiary teachers was imposed not professionally managed, and lacked intellectual integrity and professional purpose.

With regard to *Not needs-based and top-down and Unsatisfactory PD*, this research outcome is consistent with that of Kabilan and Veratharaju's (2013) research finding in the Malaysian context. Due to the highly centralised planning and implementation of PD in Malaysia, which was dominated by top-down PD, the authors revealed that teachers' interests and needs were disregarded. The researchers also recommended that PD activities needed to be pertinent, useful, and cater to the teachers' professional requirements. Numerous Malaysian studies (cited by Kabilan & Veratharaju, 2013) indicated that teachers were dissatisfied with their conventional PD, the researchers continued. MacPhail et al. (2019) captured similar thoughts from university teacher educators in European contexts who criticised institutional opportunities for not catering to individuals' demands.

In this study, there were minor incongruities between quantitative and qualitative findings, as academics from the designated countries evaluated a few aspects of their existing PD opportunities in a rather optimistic light through the questionnaires, whereas qualitative findings indicated an unsatisfactory PD status. A similar divergence was observed when the researcher addressed the aforementioned three research questions through the lenses of PD provisions and needs, PD for academics' growth, and their intercultural practice. The majority of Australian academics indicated through quantitative data that their universities' PD provisions were abundant. Nonetheless, when they elaborated during qualitative phases, they appeared to be concerned about the lack of TESOL academic-specific PD programmes and the

lack of support for providing them with broader IC. Hence qualitative data added more insights and depth into quantitative findings.

Bangladeshi academics expressed frustration about unsystematic, sporadic, informal, and inadequate PD through their oral narratives. In addition, they appeared concerned because they were unable to exercise their professional autonomy in weaving their PD experience. Their opinions were not considered for PD procedures. Nonetheless, using qualitative data, a number of academics appeared to justify their optimistic views expressed in the quantitative phase by explaining that there was almost no PD a decade ago. Some universities and IQAC are currently organising PD platforms for junior lecturers. One of the Bangladeshi academics' following quotation may be representative in this regard:

IQAC conducts various skill-based training for the youngest teachers. Although, we didn't see this training when we joined the university a long time ago. I joined my university 15 years ago. Now I am happy to see that. Yes, the time has changed.

While creating the conventional PD provision status, Australian academics tended to express that they had obtainable structured PD opportunities during the quantitative phase. According to qualitative data, they appeared disconcerted by the cluster of generic PD provisions as they failed to meet their subject-specific PD needs. As such, in the critical evaluation of the current PD opportunities, they emphasised *Not-discipline specific PD*. Due to the unavailability of subject-specific PD, they were compelled to engage in *Self-initiated PD* which was also reflected in their evaluations of their PD provisions. Australian academics identified the intercultural realm as their task-based PD needs because they recognised in the PD provisions that they had limited PD opportunities allowing them to integrate broader IC into their instruction. Consequently, they determined that the current PD condition exhibited limited interculturality. Consequently, there is a clear thread connecting their perspectives on the PD current status in Australian universities via PD provisions, needs, intercultural paradigms, and critical assessments.

In the same manner as their Australian contemporaries, Bangladeshi academics emphasised the *unsystematic, unstructured, and informal* nature of both general and discipline-specific PD in Bangladeshi universities. They also appeared concerned about the lack of needs assessment and opportunities limiting their professional autonomy in selecting PD platforms. Moreover, they had minimal access to generic PD opportunities and marginal access to discipline-specific PD, which led them to engage in *Self-initiated PD*. Furthermore, they focused on how universities' lack of support for interculturality affected their intercultural praxis. Along these lines of thought, they appeared to evaluate their current PD as *Irregular*,

*unstructured and outdated, Insufficient, Not needs-based, and Not discipline-specific*. In addition, they highlighted how *Limited interculturality* and *Lack of financial support* impeded their PD motivations and maximum potential. Evidently, there is a high degree of congruence between their perceptions of PD regarding individual elements and their overall assessments of the current PD status.

This finding justifies academics' discussions of specific PD elements (such as PD provisions, needs, and intercultural practice). Individual PD evaluation solidifies overall PD evaluations, thereby validating and reinforcing previous PD findings for each component, methodological frameworks used to investigate, and the combination of research instruments. Australian and Bangladeshi academics proposed improvements (further below in this chapter) that only reinforced this proposition and reasoning.

#### 5.4.3. *Qualitative data (semi-structured interviews with administrators on critical evaluations)*

While Australian administrators expressed dissatisfaction over *Not-discipline-specific PD, Limited interculturality, Lack of financial support, and Unsatisfactory PD*. Bangladeshi administrators, on the other hand, assessed their existing PD condition as *Self-initiated PD, Limited interculturality, Lack of financial support, Unsatisfactory PD, Insufficient PD* and *Lack of policy mandate*.

Hartono (2016) mentioned the scarcity of PD programmes and institutional funding facilitating academics' PD. Klink et al. (2017) surveyed twenty-five university teacher educators from ten countries (Netherlands, Israel, Japan, Australia, The Czech Republic, Belgium, Slovenia, Spain, Turkey, and the United Kingdom) about the nature of institutional support, finding that, with the exception of a few fortunate participants, the majority of institutions outlined their PD provisions as minimal to non-existent. Zein et al. (2020) acknowledged that poor infrastructure and a lack of opportunities prevented Indonesian EFL professionals from realising their PD and academic potential.

In this qualitative study, González and Ospina (2005) demonstrated that Columbian university EFL teachers articulated that increasing financial constraints in their work environments relegated EFL teachers' PD to a lower priority. Similarly, Joshi et al. (2018) criticised the current state of PD by focusing on the deficiency of required PD for EFL teachers in Nepal. The institution's allocation of limited resources to a single educator may have resulted in inadequate support. Universities with limited capacity and resources have a difficult time convincing their teaching staff to attend and present at workshops, conferences, and seminars

because they cannot afford to cover registration fees, airfare, and lodging. According to Sadeghi and Richards (2021), they were required to pay for their own attendance at conferences and other events, resulting in a low rate of participation in such activities.

*Self-initiated PD* and *Limited interculturality* are predominant PD issues for both Australian and Bangladeshi universities. It may be argued that these two PD problems may be connected in some way or another. Self-directed PD appears to imply the absence of institutionally organised, structured, and needs-based PD. Furthermore, self-directed PD may result from a subjective evaluation of an individual's PD requirements; therefore, it may not be entirely objective. Individuals, without institutional support, may choose to meet their immediate PD needs and avoid any time-consuming, distant, expensive but effective PD in respect of their pedagogical refinement (for example, intercultural paradigms).

Arguably, *Limited interculturality* may be an outcome of *Self-imitated PD*. Wichadee (2012) and MacPhail et al. (2019) argued that self-driven PD may lack the currency and reflection of the rapid changes all around and thus may not be sufficient for academics' professional upskilling. *Self-initiated PD* and *Limited interculturality* may also indicate the prevalence of weaker institutional structures and organisational drivers which may fail to resource individual departments to empower the potential capability for meeting the PD needs of their affiliated colleagues. Thus, it may be high time to establish a balance and equilibrium by establishing a strong institutional PD culture that embraces disciplinary PD requirements, as well as by strengthening individual departments by allocating funds and enabling them to perform their duties.

#### 5.4.4. *Triangulation*

Triangulation between Australian academics and administrators' qualitative data revealed that they agreed with each other with regard to *No discipline-specific PD*, and *Limited interculturality*. However, where academics from both countries were more concerned about *Self-initiated PD*, administrators indicated less apprehension towards this aspect. This could be explained by a different role emphasis between academics and administrators, or it could be the reflection of some administrators' viewpoints who considered that PD opportunities in their respective universities were excellent focusing on discussion provisions with their supervisors, yearly PD fund, and other general PD provisions. It might also be evidence of the conflict between the perspectives of administrators' and academics' perspectives' conflict. Administrators in many cases represent the mainstream administration authorities. Administrators' actions, thoughts, and may also express the central university policies. Hence,

there may be some incongruities between academics and administrators' perceptions and priorities, which may reinforce the complexities associated with the current PD conditions.

Nevertheless, in most cases, the data showed administrators, as experienced academics, appeared to be equally concerned to bring about changes in the current PD practices. Data triangulation between the perspectives of Bangladeshi administrators and academics revealed that some areas (for example, *Irregular, unstructured, and informal PD, Lack of financial support, and Insufficient PD*) Bangladeshi academics slightly emphasised more whereas Bangladeshi administrators stressed some other areas (for instance, *Self-initiated PD, Limited interculturality, and Unsatisfactory*). Overall, there was a good match between Bangladeshi academics and administrators in the way they evaluated current PD status.

In conclusion, the major critical evaluations are *Not discipline-specific PD, Self-initiated PD, and Limited interculturality*, in both participating countries' contexts. In Bangladeshi universities, *Irregular, unstructured, informal PD and outdated, Insufficient PD, Lack of financial support, and Unsatisfactory PD* are more prevalent.

## 5.5. Proposed improvements

### 5.5.1. Quantitative data (academics' questionnaire on proposed improvements)

The quantitative data revealed that Australian academics offered four improvements: *current PD should consider day-to-day work challenges and be more needs-based, aim at disbursing the most recent developments of the academia, take account of contexts in which they operate and be made more relevant*. Bangladeshi academics, on the other hand, suggested that *current PD provisions should be guided by research and made effective, and short-term conferences/seminars/workshops should enhance teachers' collaboration and professional dialogue*. Nevertheless, like Australian counterparts, Bangladeshi academics also suggested that *current PD should consider day-to-day work challenges and be more needs-based, aim at disbursing the most recent developments of the academia, and take account of contexts in which they operate*.

This finding is consistent with Kabilan and Veratharaju (2013) who demonstrated that PD programmes should be pertinent, meaningful, and serve the professional needs of teachers. Teachers in this study desired significantly more effective, productive, and relevant PD activities that were routinely evaluated for their efficacy. Kabilan and Veratharaju also emphasised that teachers would benefit from constant assessment, evaluation, observation, and follow-up activities while defining future PD goals and objectives. Likewise, Stewart (2014) indicated that proper settings and qualities of PD could enhance the potential for a greater depth

of learning that results in a shift in pedagogical practices. The most crucial aspect of teachers' PD, according to Dikilitas and Yayli (2018), was a self-directed PD framework that was intensely engaging for participants and provided a higher level of relevance to pedagogical issues. Continuing the importance of appropriate needs assessment, Utami and Prestridge (2018, p. 260) represented that teachers' enthusiasm and possibility of transferring new knowledge and attitudes to the classroom are enhanced when PD is tailored to their unique needs and interests.

Therefore, the integration of teachers into contexts where they can collaboratively develop the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary to plan and implement the most effective teaching strategies for specific classroom environments is essential to PD.

### 5.5.2. *Qualitative data (academics' narratives on proposed improvements)*

The qualitative data from academics' narratives indicated that Australian academic staff offered three main improvements: *Support towards intercultural practice*, *Joint responsibility*, and *Discipline-specific PD*. Similarly to Australian contemporaries, Bangladeshi academic staff also proposed *Support towards intercultural practice*. However, other PD suggestions included: *Systematic and regular*, *Increasing incentives and research funds*, *Needs-based*, *increasing in-service PD*, *University should support collaboration*, *Workshops, conferences and seminars*, *Peer- observation and mentoring* and *Discipline-specific PD*.

This finding aligns with that of Viscovic (2006) in New Zealand and Chaudary (2011) in Pakistan's higher education contexts. Chaudary revealed that teachers required continual assistance and guidance in a transmuted paradigm of context-based, ongoing, and participatory PD, as opposed to one that is short and restorative. Regarding systematic and regular PD, one of the Bangladeshi academics shared an elaborate, well-structured, and thoughtful plan:

So that there could be some segments for example, at the entry level for the first six months, they should know the basic things of teaching and basic ideas, how to conduct classroom teaching for TESOL, and then maybe in the second stage, they could be guided for further skill development into research. And these PD programmes should be well planned and properly executed by the senior and experienced in-house teaching staff. Then the new teacher should be formally evaluated by the teachers' body, they will be guided, and monitored, and they should be given feedback. And there should be a system to keep records of the academic and their professional performance progress, I mean, the new teachers should be monitored. And at the same time, the senior teachers, the experienced teachers should be given trainings and opportunities through some programmes to come out as teacher trainers, so that they can share their ideas, they can give directions to the new teachers, and also at the same time, they can

evaluate their own knowledge and experience and what sort of new directions are needed. So, the teachers in the field have to solve PD issues. They should be given opportunities for in-service teacher training, they should be familiar with peer observation, they should be given chances to share their experience their ideas, they should be encouraged to ask questions, and all these things could be addressed by the senior faculties of the department. So, if we can incorporate all these elements, if we can introduce such a systematic PD programme for our TESOL academics, and also for all the teachers from other departments, in that case, we can expect something good and we can say that it will be very effective, for it will positively impact on our teaching-learning quality at the university level.

With regard to *Needs-based PD*, Gregory (2010) believed that it was crucial for schools to include teachers' perceptions at the outset of a PD programme to optimise teachers' knowledge acquisition in the areas of cooperation and problem-solving. In addition, Topkaya and Celik (2016) proposed that all PD platforms, regardless of career stage, should have a strong correlation to teaching situations, thereby promoting active participation in content and pedagogy.

In relation to the proposed support for collaborative efforts, eighteen Columbian EFL educators suggested networking in Bogota-based research on university EFL educators (González & Ospina, 2005). Evidently, it was important to these professionals in higher education to hone their professional skills in a shared academic space with peers from other countries within the international professional community. Being a part of a community network could present numerous opportunities to discuss professional difficulties and achievements.

Participation in collaborative communities influences teachers' practises and improves students' learning, according to Levine and Marcus (2010), American researchers. Saudi EFL professionals emphasised the need for international collaboration through an academic exchange programme (Hazaea, 2019). Hadar and Brody (2010) also emphasised the significance of establishing a learning community among educators and argued that innovation was only feasible if teachers were willing to overcome their personal and professional isolation and engaged in the PD community. According to them, breaking isolation involved creating a secure atmosphere in which sharing, risk-taking, and support become routine; these arguments are consistent with the current study's findings.

Peer observation and mentoring are seen as stimulating PD experiences. Chitpin (2011) demonstrated that mentoring assisted in bolstering her teaching via critical interactions with a

mentor. This mentoring exercise also compelled her to introspect on her own inherent innovative learning and design processes, which resulted in additional self-improvement on her journey to becoming a more responsible academic in a Canadian university. According to the people who participated in this research (Kilink et al., 2017), the mentoring process benefits both the mentee and the mentor.

The above research suggests that mentoring may be more prevalent in Western universities than in non-Western universities. Nevertheless, it appeared to have a less systematic presence in Nepali contexts (Joshi et al., 2018) why this may be the case and Bangladeshi universities, based on the reports of this study's participants (thus may strengthen the above argument). Therefore, Bangladeshi academics advocated for increased *Peer-observation and Mentoring* provisions. Therefore, establishing a mentorship culture by capacitating senior academics with adequate PD so that they may function as internal mentors within a university, maybe a good beginning.

### 5.5.3. *Qualitative data (semi-structured interviews with administrators on proposed improvements)*

Australian administrators appeared to support their academic colleagues' *Support towards intercultural practice and Discipline-specific PD* and they advocated for a new recommendation, *Raising awareness of needs*. Additionally, they suggested *Sparking the motivation, Reducing workload, and Increasing incentives and research funds*. Contrary to Australian administrators and Bangladeshi academic counterparts, administrators suggested two new improvements: *Increasing PD number and In-service PD* and supported two of the top-ranked PD recommendations of their academic colleagues: *Increasing incentives and research funds* and *Support towards interculturality*. In addition, they proposed *Joint responsibility and Discipline-specific PD*.

The relevant literature appeared to strongly support reducing workload. Wichadee (2012) believed that heavy teaching loads and a large number of special assignments could also hinder the effectiveness of university instructors. Typically, these things kept them occupied, so they were unable to engage in additional activities. As a result of their teaching obligations, for instance, some faculty members were unavailable to participate in even a training programme. According to Sinha and Idris (2013), new practices required a substantial amount of teacher reflection, effort, time, and dedication. Due to a lack of time to consider their own progress, they might feel it is safer to adhere to established norms.



According to Pramastiwi (2018), administrative commitments are absorbed by teaching obligations, and the main barrier is time management. Phothongsunan (2018) observed that teachers' lack of motivation to advance professionally as a result of excessive workload and internal politics ingrained in some universities may prevent teachers from achieving educational advancement.

A few participants in the present study also drew a correlation between their heavy workload and diminished research output. As with the participants of the present study, Zein et al. (2020) focus on Indonesia, where research has been remarkably lacking. Similarly, Bangladeshi participants made the causal connection that they hardly had time to engage in benchmark research, critical reflection, and PD due to intense work pressure. To explain this, one should consider the professional backgrounds of Indonesian teachers and researchers, who frequently face heavy teaching loads, inadequate infrastructure, and limited opportunities to develop their academic potential. With a view to bringing about an improvement, Zein et al. (2020) proposed reducing workload and substantial funding to gauge the research potentials of Indonesian EFL professionals.

Celik et al. (2013) observed that academics did not receive any financial rewards for professional development, such as compensation for expenditures or increased pay for spending time on development programmes outside of their normal working hours. In their recommendation, Lankveld et al. (2017) suggested that, to empower university instructors, it is essential to recognise teaching excellence and foster a sense of community. They added that quality initiatives, such as development grants, teaching awards, and the establishment of teacher education institutes might endorse the emergence of the teacher as a distinct and legitimate individuality within universities by offering fresh possibilities.

Evidently, TESOL academics' PD and intercultural paradigms are impacted by their heavy workload, lack of professional awards and rewards, research funds, and inadequate financial assistance. To mediate their effective PD and intercultural proficiency, a robust and structured support system should be made available for them. Without adequate institutional support, there may be a rise in the number of generations with insufficient pedagogical and intercultural skills.

#### 5.5.4. *Triangulation*

To summarise, Australian academics suggested that PD should acknowledge academics' professional agency, be *Needs-based*, *Context-specific*, *Discipline-specific*, and *Intercultural*. Instead of *Self-initiated PD* conditions, it was suggested that PD should be a

collaborative effort, with universities and professionals sharing responsibilities and working together to achieve PD objectives (Zhang, 2018). In addition to corroborating their academic colleagues' PD recommendations, Australian administrators proposed *Raising awareness of PD needs*, which they deemed important.

Bangladeshi academics suggested recommendations included: *Systematic, Regular, Needs-based, Collaborative, and Intercultural PD*. Their additional suggestions concentrated on incentives and research funds. There were congruities and incongruities between Bangladeshi academics and administrators' proposed improvements as administrators appeared to suggest one new improvement including increased *In-service PD* and supported their academic counterparts' demand for incentives, research funds, and intercultural PD.

## 5.6. Intercultural model

The empirical evidence used to evaluate the efficacy of the original PD model revealed the need for a revisit, as the previous model omitted several crucial aspects of PD, including *Subject-specific PD, Joint responsibility, and Interculturality*. Therein lies the virtuous cycle of empirical research, as it serves as the basis for continual improvement. In this regard, Byram et al. (2013) shared valuable insights:

Models guide practitioners by suggesting what ought to be done to achieve specified ends and how it can be done to ensure that learners learn. Models need to be constantly reviewed in the light of practice and this is the place for the third element, empirical investigation. For it is empirical investigation which provides the grounds for reasoned critique of practice and attempts to model it, leading to improved models and practice in a virtuous circle. (p. 252)

Thus, this section could benefit from a comparison between the original PD model's components and the current study's findings. This comparative analysis could facilitate the selection of efficient PD components for the reformulated INSPIRE model. In this regard, the initial INSPIRE model components function as the foundation for significance evaluation.

### *Impactful/Intercultural*

The first element of the previous model is impactful. Richardson and Diaz-Maggioli (2018) found in the literature that the primary objective of CPD is to provide instructional changes that may result in improved education for students. To this end, efforts deemed effective capitalise on instructors' skills to determine what has to be improved and adjusted in their pedagogy to ensure students' productive learning. The researcher of the current study argues that this and a few other criteria (such as sustained and in-practice, in the following) may serve as prerequisites for describing any model as an effective PD model. Therefore,

impactful may be a concept underlying the solicitation of productive PD.

The findings (from the reports of the majority of academics and administrators from Australia and Bangladesh) of this study highlighted intercultural dimension as the key component of their PD. A series of scholars and researchers (Alvarez, 2020; Celik et al., 2013; Deardorff, 2006; Kramch, 2013; Liddicoat, 2008; Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013; Oranje & Smith, 2018; Sercu, 2002; Young & Sachdev, 2011) also strongly advocate for improved PD enabling TESOL professionals' intercultural pedagogy.

Evidently, the combined strength of the literature and this study supports the notion that intercultural PD may be an integral component of any effective PD model. Consequently, it may be argued that the original INSPIRE model appeared to neglect modern classrooms in which cultural and linguistic multiplicity and diversity are the norm, internationalisation and globalisation, and overall current educational settings. Therefore, based on the results of this study, the intercultural component of PD may emerge first and be incorporated into the core of the INSPIRE PD model. Consequently, impactful remains the guiding principle of the redesigned INSPIRE paradigm and is reinforced.

### *Needs-based*

Richardson and Diaz-Maggioli (2018) underlined that CPD should be responsive to the requirements of teachers as well as that teachers should have a role in constructing their CPD programmes and the establishment of CPD objectives. They additionally incorporate contextual needs and subsequent assessments of situational relevance, as they have a correlation with teachers' motivation, their educational practice, and students' eventual learning.

The findings of Richardson and Diaz-Maggioli only reinforce the current study's conclusion that teachers' PD demands, their professional autonomy, and contextual relevance have profound implications for designing the PD model. Similarly, a wide spectrum of researchers (Diaz-Maggioli, 2014; Gregory, 2010; Johnson, 2015; Kabilan & Veratharaju, 2013; McChesney & Aldridge, 2021; MacPhail et al., 2019; Topkaya and Celik, 2016; Utami & Prestridge, 2018; Wichadee, 2012; Yurtsever, 2013) underline the importance of PD to be context-based, needs-based where teachers play an active role instead of passively consuming the information presented to them.

### *Sustained/Subject-specific*

The original INSPIRE model stress that CPD programmes should be sustained over time instead of being brief and short-term because teachers require time to process information,

reflect on it, and ultimately translate the knowledge into practice. Therefore, CPD developers must find alternatives to one-time or remedial CPD events in light of the fact that effective teacher education programmes must be expanded to provide teachers with the opportunity and guidance they need to learn and integrate novel approaches into their pedagogy. Long-term CPD strategies are one method for accomplishing this goal. As indicated previously, while discussing impactful, a meaningful PD model should emphasise sustainable PD; hence, this may be an underlying concept.

The findings of this research suggest that subject-specific may be a core component of a productive PD model. Subject-specific PD demand is an influential research outcome as the majority of academics and administrators from Australia and Bangladesh propose subject-specific PD. Instead of generic, unstructured, inadequate, and informal PD (Al-Harmi & Ahmad, 2022; Chaudary, 2011; González & Ospina, 2005; Jacob et al., 2015; Joshi et al., 2018; Viscovic, 2006; Zein et al., 2020) most of the participants unanimously recommend *subject-specific PD* tailoring their particular PD requirements as they find that their PD needs are different from other disciplinary academics' PD demands. As a result, the updated INSPIRE PD model appears to reinforce the necessity to localise the PD of TESOL academics by adding the *subject-specific PD* requirements of the pertinent stakeholder.

#### *Peer-collaborative*

In the original INSPIRE model, successful peer collaboration is seen as one of the most powerful determinants of CPD performance since it fosters the shared creation of situational understanding that is beneficial for individual professionals, specific communities, and the organisation. The process of teacher education for transferability, i.e., the acquisition of a new method or strategy to implement in practice to enable efficient student learning, is not only time-consuming but also complex. Throughout this process, ongoing support and advice from colleagues and subject matter experts are vital and should thus be an important part of a CPD strategy.

One of the top-ranked PD mechanisms of this study is peer-collaboration. Most of the Australian and Bangladeshi academics and administrators rated peer-collaboration as a stimulating PD strategy contributing to the emergence of their professional characters. In addition, a wide range of researchers (Barahona, 2018; Canagarajah, 2012; Hadar & Brody, 2010; Johnson, 2009; Kiely & Davis, 2010; Levine & Marcus, 2010; Phothongsunan, 2018; Price, 2020; Stewart, 2014; Tavakoli, 2015) supported peer-collaboration, suggesting it may be an essential element of the modified PD model too.

### *In-practice / Institutional-personal*

Effective PD incorporates a classroom-based commitment to pedagogical practice, a focus on the vitality of experiential learning, the resolution of actual obstacles, and the formation of a viable path ahead.

The aforementioned argument (impactful and sustained) also applies here that in-practice may be a fundamental principle characterising productive PD. The highest number of participants from the designated countries in the current study have critiqued self-driven PD and advocate for a joint responsibility where individuals and institutions should mediate teachers' PD in place of self-initiated PD of the existing PD landscapes.

This finding is consistent with a succession of research (Al-Harmi & Ahmad, 2022; Gonzalez & Ospina, 2005; Hartono, 2016; Jacob et al., 2015; Joshi et al., 2018; Klink et al., 2017; Neilsen, 2011; Stanley, 2017; Wichadee, 2012; Zein et al., 2020) performed in a vast array of contexts (for instance, Latin America, Australia, Indonesia, several European countries, UK, Nepal, Indonesia, and Pakistan).

Evidently, self-directed PD is identified as a serious issue exercising detrimental impact on current PD praxis. In addition, there may be a causal connection between the subpar intercultural paradigms and self-initiated PD. Wichadee (2012) and MacPhail et al., (2019) argued that self-driven PD may lack the currency and reflection of the rapid changes all around and thus may not be sufficient for academics' professional upskilling. Hence, institutional-personal may be a central component of the modified INSPIRE model.

### *Reflective*

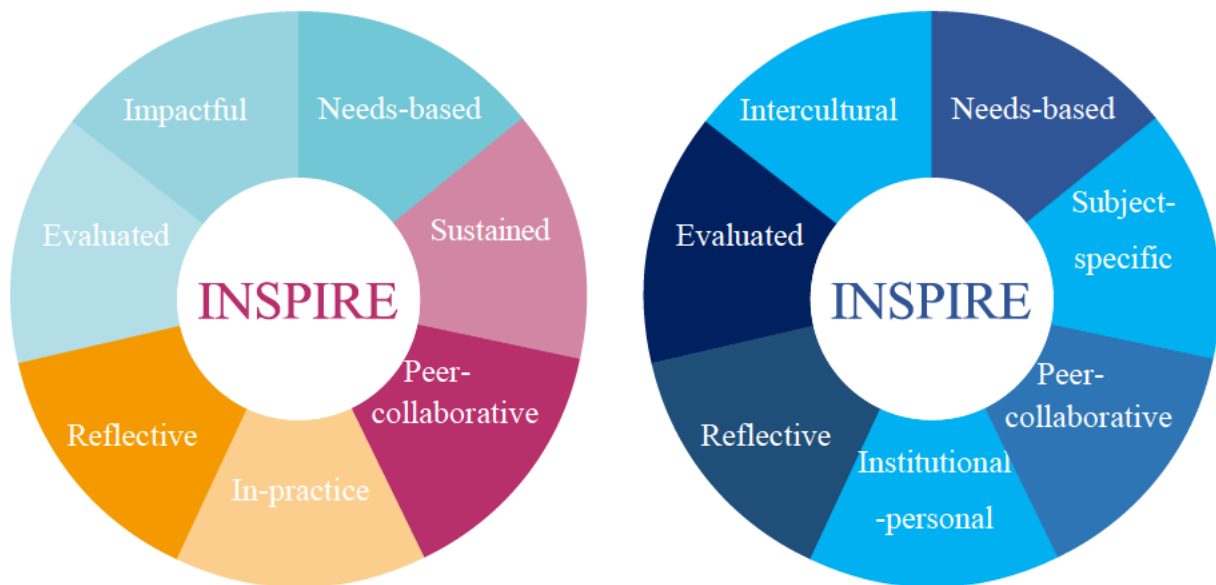
CPD initiatives are more effective when structured within the applied research or reflective inquiry, evaluation, and modification frameworks, which provide teachers with opportunities for strategically reflecting on their practice, bringing about improvements, and acquiring new perspectives and investigative skills.

This study designated critical reflective practice as a rewarding experience promoting the participating academics and administrators' academic advancement. Amidst multifarious PD mechanisms, some academics, and administrators highly treasured reflective practice for polishing their pedagogical abilities. A wide spectrum of researchers (Chitpin, 2011; Dikilitas & Yayli, 2018; Farrell, 2019; Guo et al., 2019; Lankveld et al., 2017; MacPhail et al., 2019; Ravandpour, 2019; Walsh & Mann, 2016) also deemed reflective practice is essential for internalising professional learning and fostering optimal students' learning. Consequently, reflective practice remains a vital element of the modified PD model.

### *Evaluated*

Impact-focused CPD programmes aid teachers in gaining a deeper understanding of the effect their teaching has on the learning of their students. This is made possible by teachers' ability to actively see their pupils' growth as a result of their feedback. This means aiding teachers in recognising that one of their most important roles is to develop as self-evaluators and empowering them to become active and ongoing contributors to the influence of their instruction. In addition to teachers, institutions must routinely assess the quality and efficacy of their CPD courses. This will allow them to identify what worked and what did not, capitalise on the strategies that increase teacher learning the most, and provide proof of their accomplishment, thereby raising their accountability for their activities.

Finding evaluated as an important element of the previous model, this may continue to be in the modified INSPIRE model. Thus, the modified INSPIRE PD model integrates *intercultural, needs-based, subject-specific, peer-collaborative, institutional-personal, reflective, and evaluated*.



**Figure 5.1: A comparison between the initial and updated INSPIRE model for professional development.**

Apparently, based on the findings in this study, the main drawback of the original PD paradigm to the context described here is that it appears to disregard the contemporary globalisation, internationalisation of higher education, digitalisation of communication, and other associated constructs. The more recent argument (Barili & Byram, 2021) nonetheless favoured global citizenship education, which advocates for widespread intercultural paradigms

overlooking monolingual-multilingual, and homogenous-heterogenous cultural binaries. This, in turn, promotes humanistic and all-inclusive education potentially bridging the skill gap in Western and non-Western countries. Thus, the modified PD model is proposed as a result of the empirical findings of this study to develop the existing model by adding an intercultural dimension crucial in the contemporary global context.

Thus, the study makes a crucial contribution by extending the previous INSPIRE model and by expanding joint responsibility, subject-specific PD, and intercultural components as those elements appeared to have profound implications for TESOL academics. Embracing these perceptions may revolutionise the existing PD by addressing decades-long PD issues and opening avenues for a comprehensive overhaul. Apparently, these proposed modifications (*institutional-individual, subject-specific, and intercultural*) replaced (*impactful, sustainable and in-practice*) which may be the underpinning characteristics of any effective PD model. Hence, for a sustainable, impactful, and modern PD praxis, the modified INSPIRE PD model may be a more productive, meaningful PD paradigm with transnational relevance.

## 5.7. Summary

With regard to PD provisions, Australian participants reported that there were abundant PD programmes in their corresponding universities. However, Australian academics expressed dissatisfaction with the current PD opportunities as they were predominantly universal, and not tailored according to their particular needs. Additionally, they pointed out limited PD provisions for fostering broader IC. When they were asked about their PD needs, Australian academics indicated that they needed *Discipline-specific* and *Needs-based PD*. Regarding task-based PD, they demanded PD in *ICT, Intercultural domain, and Incentives for research*.

In contrast, Bangladeshi academics represented *Inadequate, infrequent, and informal* PD and they demanded *Systematic and regular PD, Discipline-specific, and Needs-based PD*. As for task-based PD needs, Bangladeshi academics preferred PD in *ICT, Cross-curricular skills, Journal publishing, and Incentives for research and higher education*. Both Australian and Bangladeshi academics described their PD status as *Self-initiated* and showed disappointment and concerns over no professional agency in selecting PD content for them.

Regarding PD mechanisms and resources, Australian and Bangladeshi academics identified similar activities: *Collegial discussion, Collaboration and community of practice, Online resources, Reading, and Research*. Their responses varied slightly when Bangladeshi academics tended to identify *Critical reflective practice, Teaching experiences, and*

*Workshops, seminars, and conferences* as effective PD strategies for their academic advancement. Although Bangladeshi academics selected comparable PD mechanisms like their Australian counterpart for the development of their academic personas, however, respective ratings varied.

In relation to intercultural paradigms, TESOL academics in Australia incorporated intercultural awareness into their lessons, however, their practical application might not meet the standards of a premier education provider. On the other side, Bangladeshi academics might not gauge intercultural proficiency in their learner populations. However, it might be argued that they integrated cultural awareness into their instruction as opposed to encouraging intercultural competency in their students.

Overall, Australian and Bangladeshi academics appeared to evaluate their current PD landscapes as *Self-initiated PD*, *Limited interculturality* and *Not-discipline specific*. Their perceptions diverged marginally in that Bangladeshi academics assessed their existing PD scenario as *Irregular, unstructured, and informal PD*, *Lack of financial support*, and *Not needs-based and top down*. Nevertheless, academics from both participating nations described their contemporary PD status as *Unsatisfactory*.

Concerning proposed improvements, in general, Australian and academics appeared to suggest *Support towards intercultural practice*, *Discipline-specific PD*, *Joint responsibility* where PD responsibility should be borne by both the institutions and individuals. Their improvements differed widely when Bangladeshi academics tended to select *Systematic and regular*, *Increasing incentives and research funds*, *Needs-based PD*, *Ins-service PD*, *University should support collaboration*, *Workshops, conferences, and seminars* and *Peer-observation and Mentoring*.

The empirical findings of this study, particularly the participants' perceptions of the current PD landscape and subsequent (previously discussed) enhancements, contribute to the modification of the initial PD model. The next chapter will outline recommendations, implications for practice, and provide a conclusion for this dissertation.



## CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

### 6.0. Introduction

This chapter draws together the conclusions, inferences, and future areas of research derived from this study. It presents a review of the findings pertaining to the three research questions and a PD model. The chapter also describes how the current study advances TESOL research and adds to the corpus of existing information. Following this is a discussion of the most relevant implications for methodology, theory, and practice. In addition, it offers directions for future practice and research in the domains of knowledge relating to. Before concluding, it outlines the limitations of this research.

### 6.1. Summary of the main points

The purpose of the study was to examine the current PD status that promotes intercultural paradigms of TESOL academics in Australia and Bangladesh. It aimed to define PD provisions and needs, as well as how PD was utilised for academic advancement and their subsequent intercultural praxis. In addition, this study highlighted academics' critical evaluations and proposed improvements to effect positive changes in the current PD environment. In due course, this study aimed to produce a model for intercultural professional development applicable across countries and contexts.

To achieve this purpose, the study adopted a sequential multi-modal framework where quantitative data explored and drove qualitative data collection phases, hence augmenting and validating quantitative findings. Seventy-two Australian and Bangladeshi academics responded to an anonymous questionnaire survey. In the next phases, ten academics' oral narratives, and semi-structured interviews with ten administrators were gathered as qualitative data. The study employed purposive sampling for quantitative and convenience sampling for qualitative data collection. Finally, the raw data were processed by using SPSS (v.28), and NVivo (v.16) with respect to answering three research questions of this study.

#### 6.1.1. *Research Question 1*

*Research Question 1* drew a comparison between Australian and Bangladeshi TESOL academics' PD provisions and needs. The response to the first research question implied that PD programmes were organised and systematic in Australian universities. However, PD training was generic and non-field specific in nature, so the PD provisions were not exclusively

for TESOL academics. Since they required more specialised, discipline-specific PD frameworks pertaining to their needs, academics were dissatisfied with these generic PD provisions. Almost all Bangladeshi academics, on the other hand, created a disconcerted PD condition because there were limited PD opportunities, and in some university settings, there were almost no institutional PD choices. The results of this study appeared to indicate that PD provisions were generally chaotic, inadequate, and unstructured (Hartono, 2016; Jacob et al., 2015; Joshi et al., 2018; Wichadee, 2012; Zein et al., 2020). The majority of TESOL academics from Bangladesh and Australia voiced their concerns about the current PD provisions due to the lack of PD venues designed particularly for their requirements and the lack of professional agency (Kabilan & Veratharaju, 2013; MacPhail et al., 2019) in weaving their PD experience.

In relation to task-based PD needs, most Australian and Bangladeshi academics expressed their PD demands within the sphere of ICT (Guo et al., 2019; Zein et al., 2020). The response from the two countries differed substantially in that Australian academics tended to prioritise cross-cultural domains (Celik et al., 2013), while those from Bangladesh chose cross-curricular skills, journal publishing (Hazaea, 2019), and research and higher education. Another notable distinction was that several Bangladeshi academics tended to overlook intercultural PD needs. However, multiple academics from the designated countries uniformly demanded needs-based PD, where they would be in command of their own PD programmes (McChesney & Aldridge, 2021; Wichadee, 2012).

According to the data, all participating Australian universities offered abundant general provisions for PD; nonetheless, academics showed a desire for subject-specific PD. In contrast, the majority of Bangladeshi academics reported having insufficient access to both general and TESOL-specific opportunities for their professional progress. As a result, they sought more systematic and consistent PD provisions tailored to their specific disciplinary demands. Consequently, it is evident that there was a substantial divergence between contemporary PD demands and provisions in chosen nations. Furthermore, this incongruity between PD requirements and possibilities could be considered a significant PD challenge prevalent in Australian and Bangladeshi universities.

In addition, while selected Australian universities have greater availability of general PD than selected Bangladeshi universities, the dearth of TESOL-focused PD is a drawback to Australia which should possess a much higher benchmark of PD programmes given its preeminence as a provider of transnational education. This shows that the poor

institutional drivers and frameworks for PD permeated designated Australian universities. Non-discipline-specific PD is robust, in that it is frequently centrally financed and coordinated. However, TESOL teaching units are accountable for subject-specific PD. Perhaps the absence of disciplinary PD shows that these units lack the resources to run intended PD events.

### 6.1.2. Research Question 2

*Research Question 2* compared Australian and Bangladeshi TESOL academics' PD mechanisms and resources that contributed to the emergence of their professional character. The findings concerning the second research question highlighted that on the whole, Australian and Bangladeshi academics rated comparable PD activities as the best PD mechanisms: *Collegial discussion, Collaboration and community of practice, Online resources, Reading professional literature, Doing research/Publication* and *Attended online courses/webinars*. The response from the two countries differed slightly in that Australian academics tended to select the *Community of practice*, while those from Bangladesh chose *Critical reflective practice, Teaching experience, and Workshops, seminars, and conferences* for developing their academic mindset. These clusters of PD strategies resonate with the conclusion of a succession of previous research (Barahona, 2018; Canagarajah, 2012; Kiely & Davis, 2010; Klink et al., 2017; Lankveld et al., 2017; Macalister, 2018; Price, 2020; Sadeghi & Richards, 2021; Stewart, 2014).

Although many participants from the nominated nations described these PD activities as a result of personal initiatives, there were notable incongruities between Australian and Bangladeshi academics' 'self-directed PD situations', particularly in relation to *Reading, Research, Collegial dialogue* and *Collaboration*. Australian universities are recognised for their intellectual contributions and world-class research as part of Western academia. They had unlimited access to indexed journals and other pertaining resources. The majority of respondents reported having an optimal level of *Collegial cooperation and Collaboration*. Furthermore, they narrated that they received substantial assistance from their corresponding universities with regard to *Collaboration, Mentoring*, and access to *Online resources*. In contrast, Bangladesh had restricted access to scholarly publications. With the exception of academics from a large university, all other academics appeared dissatisfied with the diminished *Collegial support* due to professional jealousy and unhealthy competition (Al-Harbi & Ahmad, 2022; Phothongsunan, 2018). In addition, Bangladeshi academics perceived

scant assistance in promoting *Collaboration, Mentoring*, and engaging in *Online webinars and training*.

While there appeared to be greater disparities between the PD opportunities provided to academics in Australia and Bangladesh, more thought-provoking understanding might be left. Academics in Australia emphasised self-directed PD and described their academic advancement as a result of personal endeavour. This result might not be acceptable for a premier international education distributor like Australia. Self-initiated PD could be based on a subjective assessment of academics' PD needs implying a lack of balanced PD assessment required for their professional upskilling especially perceiving internationalisation (MacPhail et al., 2019; Wichadee, 2012) and multicultural classrooms. There should have been strong institutional support extended to the TESOL departments.

### 6.1.2. Research Question 3

*Research Question 3* set out to find how Australian and Bangladeshi TESOL academics integrated intercultural awareness into their practice. The results related to the third research question indicated that several Australian academics incorporated intercultural awareness while delivering lessons, nonetheless, their practice dimension might not achieve the satisfactory level of a leading education provider. Bangladeshi academics, on the other hand, might not promote intercultural dimension in class. Nevertheless, it could be argued that they fostered cultural awareness among their students rather than intercultural competency (Alvarez, 2020; Sercu, 2006). There may be a causal association between self-initiated PD (not based on objective PD needs' assessment) and lack of intercultural praxis based on this finding in both nations' contexts.

As for critical evaluations of the current PD scenario, Australian and Bangladeshi academics evaluated comparable activities: *Limited interculturality, Not discipline-specific and Self-initiated PD* (González & Ospina, 2005; Oranje & Smith, 2018; Stanley, 2017; Young & Sachdev, 2011). The responses from the two countries differed considerably in those Bangladeshi academics tended to highlight *Irregular, unstructured, informal, and outdated, Not needs-based and top-down PD, Lack of financial support and Unsatisfactory PD* (Al-Harmi & Ahmad, 2022; Chaudary, 2011; Joshi et al., 2018; Klink et al., 2017)

Regarding suggestions for improvements, Australian academics offered *Support towards intercultural practice, Joint responsibility* and *Discipline-specific PD*. Similarly to Australian contemporaries, Bangladeshi academics suggested *Support towards intercultural*

*practice*. On the contrary, unlike Australians, Bangladeshi academics recommended the importance of PD paradigms to be *Systematic and regular, Needs-based, In-service PD, University should support collaboration, Peer-observation and mentoring, Increase incentives and research funds, Workshops, conferences, and seminars* (Gregory, 2010; Levine & Marcus, 2010; Topkaya & Celik, 2016; Viscovic, 2006). Nevertheless, academics from participating countries emphasised the incorporation of their voices in deciding PD platforms (Utami & Prestridge, 2018) for them and both institutions and individuals should assume responsibility and work together to ensure optimum PD praxis.

## 6.2. Contributions to the knowledge

In the context of school and high school EFL teachers' PD, it is arguably said that there is no dearth of research outputs, but the same cannot be ascertained with regard to university TESOL academics' PD. In fact, very few scholarly publications are to be found even after an exhaustive search on the topic in designated countries' contexts. Several researchers recommended university TESOL academics' PD in their future research endeavour suggestions (Howard et al., 2016; Klink et al., 2017). In continuation, some authors (for example, Yang, 2003) have addressed the paucity of data from developing nations and emphasised the urgent need for empirical investigation. In line with Yang (2003), Howard et al. (2016) emphasised more topographic comparisons of Western and non-Western countries to better design glocalised TESOL teachers' PD. Thus, this study has contributed to the field by covering both transnational and global aspects of the PD ambience of university TESOL academics and has made substantial contributions to the field.

The dissertation is noteworthy because the data and findings have added to the scant mixed-methods data in the pertaining literature (Alaei & Nosrati, 2018; McChesney & Aldridge, 2021; Price, 2020). Again, there is a clear shortage of reliable and representative data about current PD practices and outcomes in Australian teacher education to the point that it is difficult to benchmark Australian practices (Harbon & Browett, 2006). This mirrors the Bangladeshi context since very few publications are found so far on Bangladesh University TESOL academics' PD and related practices.

In a transnational and transcultural university TESOL PD scenario, there are endless opportunities to learn from educators in other nations through collaboration, research activity and open dialogue. However, researchers are often confined to their own country's

perspectives, without benefitting from the repertoire of experiences in other nations or universities. In this regard, Olmedo and Harbon (2010) perceived,

Through these opportunities, we can enhance our ability to understand our educational challenges in a broader context and be in a better position to make changes in our curricula to reflect a more international focus. (p. 76).

Globalisation and internationalisation provide us with a unique platform to work in a global workplace, with a multinational workforce and to improve our practice in regard to the university TESOL academics' PD. Though the main focus of this research is to draw a comparative status of university TESOL academics' PD between Australia and Bangladesh, a picture of native and non-native, Western and non-Western comparatives, and their intercultural practice also enhances the merit of this thesis.

In addition, this research has connected to a contemporary and global issue COVID-19, since it has impacted multiple dimensions of conventional PD practices. Due to this global pandemic, academics and learner populations quarantined themselves and opted for a hybrid pedagogical scenario (Dhawan, 2020), consisting primarily of online education. This paradigm shift necessitated a plethora of new PD needs, especially in connection to manipulating technology to conduct class, creating online materials and resources, and implementing assessment practices.

Evidently, Australian universities provided academics with support for PD and mental well-being. However, due to COVID-19, it seemed to be that Australian academics lost their jobs (Howe et al., 2021), and the remaining academics suffered due to heavy work pressure that might have negatively impacted their PD commitment (Talib et al., 2021). In contrast, Bangladeshi academics might have endured a lack of institutional PD to smooth the challenges brought by the worldwide pandemic and stressed the drawbacks of their self-learning (Khan et al., 2021b) and the dearth of mental welfare aid. These findings have some general inferences: considering emergencies and sustainability, short-term emergencies, such as COVID, may occur. A buffer is required to guarantee that the long-term staff development scheme does not suffer during brief emergencies. Otherwise, short-term financial issues may create long-term skills deficit consequences among academics.

Finally, the crucial contribution that this research made to the conventional PD milieu is the modification of the original PD model for multicultural and multilingual classrooms and the issues they present. The initial INSPIRE PD model (Richardson & Diaz-Maggioli, 2018)

has arguably omitted some indispensable aspects for its effective function across cultures, contexts, and circumstances (e.g., intercultural, joint responsibility and subject-specific PD demands). The new PD model encompassed all these features with a strong potential for wider applications across circumstances.

### 6.2.1. Implications for methodology

The analysis of the existing literature in this study emphasised the paucity of mixed-methods study as a research paradigm broadly in existing Applied Linguistics, and associated discourse and narrowly PD and intercultural paradigms. The methodological gap highlighted that the researchers in this realm tended to ignore narrative inquiry as a data collection tool (Flores & Livingston, 2017). Moreover, the researchers (Alaei & Nosrati, 2018; Vo, 2017) who attempted to combine qualitative and quantitative approaches focused on primarily questionnaires and semi-structured interviews with the same stakeholder group (e.g., with teachers). The current study deemed all these caveats and implemented an innovative multimodal research framework with an oral narrative inquiry. Data triangulation, a novel technique that compared the insights gleaned from academics' narratives and semi-structured interviews with administrators was also implemented. In turn, this combination of methods not only illustrated but also improved the validity and dependability of the research results.

Chapter 4 highlighted how academics' survey responses contributed to the development of partial answers to *Research Questions 1, 2 and 3*. Nonetheless, it served its purpose of establishing the groundwork and providing the essential broader views for this investigation. Academics' narratives assisted in identifying actual investigative phenomena and addressing the research questions by illuminating the deeper elements of the broad opinions held by seventy-two academics from Australia and Bangladesh. Moreover, the results of data triangulation demonstrated that on a few occasions, administrators refuted, however in most cases they corroborated academics' data, hence enhancing the reliability of this research's findings. The findings of individual PD components (for example, PD provisions and needs, PD for academic growth, and intercultural paradigm) matched with the research outcomes of wholesome status (for instance, critical evaluations and improvement suggestions). This supports and improves the validity and reliability of the research design and methodological combinations in the end. In conclusion, the current study leaves exemplary and concrete guidance for future researchers regarding the use of a mixed-method framework with three data generation instruments (including an oral narrative enquiry), data triangulation between the

perspectives of two different stakeholder groups and seeking research question answers using software in quantitative (SPSS.v.28), and qualitative data (NVivo v.16).

### 6.2.2. *Implications for theory*

This study made a crucial contribution by extending Richardson and Diaz-Maggioli's (2018) INSPIRE PD model for professional knowledge-building in a previously unexplored way by applying empirical evidence. The findings of this study also contribute to enriching the epistemological lenses exploited in this research. The conceptualisations that emerged from the three theoretical perspectives (social constructivism, intercultural theory, and reflective practice) call for an independent illustration. The first recommendation of social constructivism is that the teaching-learning process should be needs-based, context-based, peer-collaborative, relevant to the surrounding environment, and characterised by the professional agency where learners will be in charge of their knowledge-building (Diaz-Maggioli, 2014; Johnson, 2015). The intercultural theory focuses on IC through cultural similarities and differences, rejecting native speaker orthodoxy and acknowledging World Englishes, unique cultural and linguistic links, and the learners' native language as a vital resource for any pedagogy (Baker, 2011; Moeller & Nugent, 2014). The third aspect is reflective practice, an imperative action leading to the internalisation of learning into practice (Farrell, 2019). Participants in this study identified each element of an ideal practice environment for their professional upskilling. Consequently, it is evident that there is no single theoretical model or perspective that incorporates all the features derived from the conceptualisations of an ideal pedagogical atmosphere.

While the initial INSPIRE model provides a solid foundation for PD, the modified model proposed as a result of the findings of this study enhances the existing model by adding an intercultural dimension that is vital in the current global setting. It could also be argued that the original INSPIRE model (Richardson & Diaz-Maggioli, 2018) appeared to lack a number of essential components for a transnationally appealing and functional PD model. First, it seemed to overlook modern classrooms where cultural and linguistic heterogeneity and diversity are the norm, internationalisation and globalisation, and overall current educational landscapes. Second, it seemed to be vague in terms of the shared responsibility of the PD platforms. However, it described and criticised the current PD as a self-initiated activity. Furthermore, it emphasised PD should be needs-based, however, failed to specially take into account particular disciplinary PD needs. Thus, this new INSPIRE PD model could be adapted



for the PD of TESOL academics because it is supported by empirical evidence and considered all the key factors that the original PD model appeared to be lacking.

### 6.2.3. Implications for practice

The results of this study highlighted that TESOL academics required *Needs-based, Discipline-specific, Intercultural, and Institutional-personal*, instead of general and *Self-initiated PD*. Furthermore, they attached profound importance to incorporating their voices into the selection of their PD content (Yurtsever, 2013). These research findings appear to show the existing PD condition in the nominated nations is subpar. PD status in Australian universities is better compared to Bangladeshi universities, however, that cannot be a reason for complacency. As a premier education provider to international students all around the world, the intercultural practices of Australian universities are still deficient, and so is the dearth of disciplinary-specific PD. They must have a higher benchmark of training and intercultural fluency given its predominance as an international education provider. Additionally, as a country with strong racial and cultural diversity, domestic students also require intercultural awareness.

The lack of disciplinary PD is problematic in the context of Australian universities given its role as an international, and effective education source and consequently has several inferences. This result indicates the existence of a problematic PD structure and institutional drivers. Strong generic PD provisions may indicate well-built central funding and coordination. But subject-specific knowledge and responsibility are held within TESOL units. Perhaps the lack of disciplinary PD implies that these units are not empowered by adequate funding to deliver customised PD. Furthermore, most of the best PD mechanisms according to the participants' perceptions and ratings were also described as means for self-initiated PD. This self-directed PD also might lead to insufficient expression of intercultural practices. Self-initiated PD is based on a one-sided assessment of PD needs, hence, it might not be issue free. A more balanced evaluation of PD demands should involve all stakeholders' neutral inputs. While offering improvements, the larger number of participants in Australia and Bangladesh emphasised all relevant stakeholders' support (e.g., Government, university supervising bodies Commonwealth and UGC, and university management units) collaboration with academics to realise a common objective. Given that the majority of aspects (for example, subject-specific, needs-based, institutional-personal, intercultural, professional autonomy etc) of beneficial PD

appear to be absent from contemporary PD practice, a paradigm shift is required to ensure that universities achieve a meaningful PD status.

Despite the fact that this study advocates for increased institutional support to reduce the extent to which current PD practice is self-driven, it should not be forgotten that PD mechanisms that do not rely solely on institutional funding may also be beneficial, especially in cases of severe funding shortage. In Bangladesh, where financial constraints are relatively severe, this may be more applicable. This study demonstrates the growing prevalence of collaboration and professional practice communities, collegial dialogue, and online PD. Since the majority of academic and administrative staff in Bangladesh are discontent with the dearth of international and local collaboration opportunities, they may consider acquiring technological competence. As technology has advanced, online PD has increased opportunities for international collaboration, communal problem-solving, and collegial exchanges (Lin, 2015; Barahona, 2018). Several online platforms, such as YouTube, offer complimentary training on how to utilise and leverage the benefits of e-learning programmes. In addition, mentoring (the cultivation of senior academics into mentors) and peer observation may contribute to the advancement of teachers' professional knowledge.

With the exception of the participants from an old and famous Bangladeshi university, prevalent political animosity, unhealthy competition, and professional jealousy has a significant negative impact on the effectiveness of collegial dialogue and collaboration. The researcher sought to comprehend why this university excelled in terms of collegial cooperation and partnerships and discovered that a strong departmental policy and system, including rotation systems (everyone would have the opportunity for administrative roles), gave the institution an advantage. Open dialogues with TESOL academics may pave the way for the resolution of current issues and the establishment of a more productive collegial environment in Bangladeshi universities. This does not imply that enhancing self-motivated PD is a solution to the prevalent PD problems; rather, institutional and individual collaboration may result in the desired change.

As robust empirical data, this research's findings can inform the planning, policy-mandate, decision-making, and implementation phases of bringing about the intended changes. In order to warrant a productive and systematic PD framework in educational settings, it is necessary to address the obstacles to optimal PD practice. In addition to teaching, supervising and administrative loads, participants reported clerical jobs, excessive workload, larger class

sizes (BD), and lack of time as impediments to their PD. Appropriate measures should be taken to address these issues by reducing their workloads (Zein et al., 2020) and recruiting more academic and administrative support where necessary with a view to safeguarding academics' workload so that they can engage in their PD activities.

University-level teaching and subsequent research accountability are difficult and time-consuming. Academics should be left free to engage in benchmark teaching and research, and they should have time to engage in self-reflection (Sinha & Idris, 2013), and then contribute to quality student learning. There may be a cyclical relationship between teachers' learning, their time available for strengthening students' learning, and the development of their worldwide research portfolios. Regarding the vocation of university academics, stereotypical job attitudes must be re-examined and modified. It is necessary to create a favourable ambience and a solid support structure so that they can provide the best education, boost their research reputations, and eventually benefit their home nations. A healthy monitoring system to improve these factors may be a component of a university's administrative governance. Current university atmospheres have revealed that academics are overburdened with administrative tasks, which inhibits their creative potential.

Under no circumstances, TESOL academics may ignore developing students as global citizens who can flourish in an international society and multicultural nation, as opposed to only surviving. They should perform their role far beyond the academy in mobilising English language learners as world citizens (Barili & Byram, 2021). To achieve that, they might increase the awareness and the student's critical reflection by harnessing the potential of IC to change the world. As revealed by the findings of this study, they require sustained assistance and guidance through systematic, contextualised, subject-specific, collaborative, and intercultural PD, as opposed to one that is generic, brief, inadequate, and remedial. As such, the modified INSPIRE PD model provides a structure for the desired reforms.

Finally, to ensure appropriate PD praxis, the model developed in this study, which embraces academics' needs, demands, and overall insights, could serve as a component for the TESOL academics' PD in the selected countries first and subsequently for all other disciplines and settings.

### 6.3. Limitations of the study

The primary constraint of the study was the constrained number of qualitative participants contributing qualitative data. In the qualitative phases of data collection, ten Australian, as well as ten Bangladeshi academics and administrators (where in each case four Australian academics and administrators), participated in narrative inquiry and semi-structured interviews respectively. The researcher intended to reach an equal number of Australian and Bangladeshi participants, however, failed to secure that due to the global pandemic.

In the case of Australia, due to the COVID-19 pandemic, finding participants for academics' narratives and semi-structured interviews in Australia posed substantial challenges. The international and domestic frontier remained closed for roughly two years, resulting in an unprecedented decline in the number of international students entering the country. In turn, this resulted in widespread employment losses and reorganisation in the university sector (Howe et al., 2021). In many instances, the remaining academicians are required to extend their usual obligations to compensate for the loss (Talib et al., 2021). As a result, many potential Australian participants complained about their predicament and cited a lack of time and a general reluctance to support graduate research because doing so would require them to devote more time to something that was not immediately beneficial to them. Individual professional connections served as a means of procuring Australian narrative and interview subjects.

The deeper insights into their lived experiences that Australian and Bangladeshi academics and administrators shared throughout the qualitative data exemplified the study topics. If the sample size had been larger, the qualitative findings might have possessed a greater depth of their knowledge and perceptions. Nevertheless, there was no lack of insight from the pool of participants. One reason could be that the participants were highly seasoned and spontaneous during their narratives and interviews, and thus shared in-depth insights into their decades-long experiences. In addition, the study involved academics and administrators as primary stakeholders and included their viewpoints on PD landscapes and their intercultural practice. Nonetheless, learner populations' perspectives regarding how they evaluated the pedagogical and intercultural paradigms of their teachers were not included.

### 6.4. Future research directions

The study combined two broad areas: TESOL academics PD and their intercultural praxis, and in both arenas, there is still considerable scope to undertake new research. Although

PD is not a new phenomenon for investigators; however, international research and more comparatives like the current research, may potentially augment the relevant discourse and advance the existing knowledge base.

This research is exploratory and descriptive, future research can be experimental and explanatory where causal-effectual relations could be explained. Building ideal situations based on the empirical findings of this study, future researchers may explore to see how the PD outcomes take shape.

Again, the current study emphasised eliciting TESOL academics' needs where they voiced subject-specific demands. Further research may exemplify and solidify what disciplinary needs they have. Findings may also be categorised or grouped according to years of experience with an aim to identify and draw a pattern as to how academics' needs evolve and change with years of experience.

In addition, this research focused on the mechanisms and resources academics used to augment their academic growth. More research may aim at finding academics' evaluations of the wide spectrum of conventional mechanisms and resources for professional advancement. That way, both individual academic staff and their intuitions may determine and work together to make those effective strategies available for academics' professional upskilling.

Furthermore, in this research qualitative data added strength to the findings and better augmented the research questions; hence, future research would benefit from qualitative studies and if possible, with larger sample sizes. They may also consider adding more international perspectives, and more comparatives within the country or other countries and contexts.

To extend the scope of future studies, a broader range of types of universities may be included. In the case of narrow pursuits, regional universities may provide better contexts as this research is largely focused on urban universities. That may lead to building a solid national knowledge base by joining regional and urban yardsticks considering the diversity of international education organisations at a national level. Each of the findings may be further investigated to draw a holistic picture of the arena, such as collaboration, a community of practice (CoP), PD challenges, reward structures, institutional support during COVID-19, teachers' motivation, and PD perceptions.

Intercultural paradigms for TESOL education are relatively new and may open enormous opportunities for passionate researchers to work in this domain. The current study

has constructed an intercultural model and future research may experiment with the model with a view to see the results. Participants in this research seemed to be concerned about limited interculturality, no relevant PD to expand broad IC, and no university support towards promoting intercultural ability and subsequently they offered improvements to increase support towards intercultural paradigms. Building on the findings of this study and embracing these academics' evaluations and improvements, future researchers can experiment with intercultural practice.

Last but not least, longitudinal studies that focus on either PD status, the evolution of PD mechanisms as well as needs, and/or intercultural dimensions with paradigmatic challenges may potentially advance the current body of knowledge. This could also be investigated with a specific focus on the evolutionary pattern with time, with more advancements pertaining to internationalisation and globalisation that may greatly contribute to enriching pertinent scholarly discourse and subsequent practice.

## REFERENCES

- Abed, F. H. (2018). Higher education for an emerging middle-income country. *Bangladesh Education Journal*, 17(2), 9-23. [https://www.bafed.net/pdf/edecember2018/2\\_Higher\\_Education.PDF](https://www.bafed.net/pdf/edecember2018/2_Higher_Education.PDF)
- Ahmad, H., Latada, F., Shah, S. R., & Wahab, M. N. (2017). Exploring the construction of professional selves of non-native EFL teachers at a Saudi Arabian university. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ)*, 8(4), 148-166. <https://awej.org/exploring-the-construction-of-professional-selves-of-non-native-efl-teachers-at-a-saudi-arabian-university>
- Alaei, M. M., & Nosrati, F. (2018). Research into EFL teachers' intercultural communicative competence and intercultural sensitivity. *Journal of Intercultural Communication Research*, 47(2), 73-86. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17475759.2018.1424020>
- Al-Harbi, M. S., & Ahmad, H. (2022). English teachers' professional development: Perspectives from Canada, Saudi Arabia, and Pakistan. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 12(3), 596-604. <https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1203.21>
- Aljohani, M. (2017). Principles of "constructivism" in foreign language teaching. *Journal of Literature and Art Studies*, 7(1), 97-107. <http://dx.doi.org/10.17265/2159-5836/2017.01.013>
- Almeida, F. (2018). Strategies to perform a mixed methods study. *European Journal of Education Studies*, 5(1), 137-151. <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1406214>
- Almuhammadi, A. (2017). EFL professional development: Discussion of effective models in literature. *English Language Teaching*, 10(6), 118-127. <http://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v10n6p118>
- Alvarez, L. F. C. (2020). Intercultural communicative competence: In-service EFL teachers building understanding through study groups. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, 22(1), 75-92. <https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v22n1.76796>
- Anderson, T. (2015). Seeking internationalisation: The state of Canadian higher education. *Canadian Journal of Higher Education*, 45(4), 166-187. <https://doi.org/10.47678/cjhe.v45i4.184690>

- Atay, D., Kurt, G., Camlibel, Z., Ersin, P., & Kaslioglu, O. (2009). The role of intercultural competence in foreign language teaching. *Inonu University Journal of the Faculty of Education*, 10(3), 123-135. <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/inuefd/issue/8704/108680>
- Ayon, N. S. (2016). Telecollaboration and intercultural communicative competence. *International Journal of Language and Applied Linguistics*, 2 (Special Issue 1), 96–122. <http://www.khatesefid.com/journal/wp-content/uploads/2016/07/96-122>
- Baecher, L., & Chung, S. (2020). Transformative professional development for in-service teachers through international service learning. *Teacher Development*, 24(1), 33-51. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13664530.2019.1682033>
- Baker, W. (2011). Intercultural awareness: Modelling an understanding of cultures in intercultural communication through English as a lingua franca. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 11(3), 197-214. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14708477.2011.577779>
- Baker, W. (2012). From cultural awareness to intercultural awareness: Culture in ELT. *ELT Journal*, 66(1), 62-70. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccr017>
- Barahona, M. (2018). Trends in teacher development programmes. *The TESOL encyclopedia of English language teaching*, 1-14. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118784235.eelt0632>
- Barili, A., & Byram, M. (2021). Teaching intercultural citizenship through intercultural service learning in world language education. *Foreign Language Annals*, 1–24. <https://doi.org/10.1111/flan.12526>
- Bashir, A., Uddin, M. E., Basu, B. L., & Khan, R. (2021). Transitioning to online education in English departments in Bangladesh: Learner perspectives. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 11(1), 11-20. <https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v11i1.34614>
- Bennett, M. J. (1993). Towards ethno-relativism: A developmental model of intercultural sensitivity. In R. M. Paige (Ed.), *Education for the intercultural experience* (2nd ed., pp. 21–71). Intercultural Press.
- Bexley, E., James, R., & Arkoudis, S. (2011). *The Australian Academic Profession in Transition*, Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations, Commonwealth of Australia. <https://melbourne->



[cshe.unimelb.edu.au/ data/assets/pdf file/0005/2317226/The Academic Profession in Transition Sept2011-1.pdf](https://cshe.unimelb.edu.au/data/assets/pdf_file/0005/2317226/The_Academic_Profession_in_Transition_Sept2011-1.pdf)

- Bickley, C., Rossiter, M. J., & Abbott, M. L. (2014). Intercultural communicative competence: Beliefs and practices of adult English as a second language instructors. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, 60(1), 135-160. <https://doi.org/10.11575/ajer.v60i1.55810>
- Boghossian, P. (2006). Behaviourism, constructivism and Socratic pedagogy. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 38(6), 713-722. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-5812.2006.00226.x>
- Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching*, 36, 81-109. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444803001903>
- Borg, S. (2019). Language teacher cognition: Perspectives and debates. In: Gao X (ed) *Second Handbook of English Language Teaching*, (pp.1149–1170). Springer. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-02899-2\\_59](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-02899-2_59)
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2019). Reflecting on reflexive thematic analysis. *Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise and Health*, 11(4), 589-597. <https://doi.org/10.1080/2159676X.2019.1628806>
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2021). One size fits all? What counts as quality practice in (reflexive) thematic analysis? *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 18(3), 328-352. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14780887.2020.1769238>
- Braun, V., Clarke, V., Boulton, E., Davey, L., & McEvoy, C. (2021). The online survey as a qualitative research tool. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 24(6), 641-654. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13645579.2020.1805550>
- Braun, V, Clarke, V., & Hayfield, N. (2019). ‘A starting point for your journey, not a map’: Nikki Hayfield in conversation with Virginia Braun and Victoria Clarke about thematic analysis. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 1-22. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14780887.2019.1670765>
- Bruner, J. S. (1960). *The process of education*. Harvard University Press.
- Byram, M. (1989). *Cultural studies in foreign language education*. Multilingual Matters.

- Byram, M. (1997). *Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence*. Multilingual Matters.
- Byram, M. (2008). *From foreign language education to education for intercultural citizenship: Essays and reflections* (Vol. 17). Multilingual Matters.
- Byram, M. (2014). Twenty-five years on – from cultural studies to intercultural citizenship. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 27(3), 209-225. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07908318.2014.974329>
- Byram, M. (2021). *Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence: Revisited* (2nd ed.). Multilingual Matters.
- Byram, M., Holmes, P., & Savvides, N. (2013). Intercultural communicative competence in foreign language education: Questions of theory, practice and research. *The Language Learning Journal*, 41(3), 251-253. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2013.836343>
- Byram, M., & Wagner, M. (2018). Making a difference: Language teaching for intercultural and international dialogue. *Foreign Language Annals*, 51, 140-151. <https://doi.org/10.1111/flan.12319>
- Cameron, A., & Galloway, N. (2019). Local thoughts on global ideas: Pre-and in-service TESOL practitioners' attitudes to the pedagogical implications of the globalisation of English. *RELC Journal*, 50(1), 149–163. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688218822853>
- Canagarajah, S. A. (2012). Teacher development in a global profession: An autoethnography. *TESOL Quarterly*, 46(2), 258-279. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.18>
- Canagarajah, S. A. (2013). Agency and power in intercultural communication: Negotiating English in translocal spaces. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 13, 202-224. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14708477.2013.770867>
- Canagarajah, S. A. (2015). TESOL as a professional community: A half-century of pedagogy, research, and theory. *TESOL Quarterly*, 50(1), 7-41. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.275>
- Canaran, Ö., & Mirici, İ. H. (2019). An overview of the recent views and practices in teacher professional development. *Eğitimde Kuram ve Uygulama*, 15(4), 350-362. <https://doi.org/10.17244/eku.559281>

- Celik, S., Bayraktar-Cepni, S., & Ilyas, H. (2013). The need for ongoing professional development: Perspectives of Turkish university-level EFL instructors. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 70, 1860–1871. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.01.264>
- Chaudary, I. A. (2011). A new vision of professional development for tertiary teachers in Pakistan. *Professional Development in Education*, 37(4), 633-637. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2010.539008>
- Chien, Y. G. (2020). Studying abroad in Britain: Advantages and disadvantages. *Journal of Research in International Education*, 19(1), 69-83. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1475240920916944>
- Chitpin, S. (2011). Can mentoring and reflection cause change in teaching practice? A professional development journey of a Canadian teacher educator. *Professional Development in Education*, 37(2), 225-240. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2010.531625>
- Chlopek, Z. (2008). The intercultural approach to EFL teaching and learning. *English Teaching Forum*, 4, 10-27. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1096289.pdf>
- Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. The MIT Press.
- Chowdhury, R., & Ha, P. L. (2008). Reflecting on Western TESOL training and communicative language teaching: Bangladeshi teachers' voices. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 28(3), 305-316. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02188790802236006>
- Çınarbaş, H. I., & Hos, R. (2018). A systematic review of professional development programmes for language teachers over ten years: Regional perspectives. *Turkish Online Journal of English Language Teaching (TOJELT)*, 3(2), 42-63. <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/tojelt/issue/42659/384036>
- Cirocki, A., & Farrell, T. S. C. (2017). Reflective practice for professional development of TESOL practitioners. *The European Journal of Applied Linguistics and TEFL*, 6(2), 5- 23. <http://www.reflectiveinquiry.ca/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/RP-special.pdf>
- Clarke, V., & Braun, V. (2017). Commentary: Thematic analysis. *Journal of Positive Psychology*, 12(3), 297-298. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2016.1262613>

- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2017). *Research methods in education* (8<sup>th</sup> ed.). Routledge.
- Collinson, V., Kozina, E., Lin, Y. K., Ling, L., Matheson, I., Newcombe, L., Zogla, I. (2009). Professional development for teachers: A world of change. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 32(1), 3-19. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02619760802553022>
- Coryell, J. E., Cinque, M., Fedeli, M., Salazar, A. L., & Tino, C. (2021). University teaching in global times: Perspectives of Italian university faculty on teaching international graduate students. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 1-21. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315321990749>
- Cox, E. (2005). Adult learners learning from experience: Using a reflective practice model to support work-based learning. *Reflective Practice*, 6(4), 459-472. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14623940500300517>
- Crandall, J. A. (1993). Professionalism and professionalisation in adult ESL literacy. *TESOL Quarterly*, 27(3), 497-515. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3587479>
- Crandall, J. A. (2000). Language teacher education. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 20, 34-55. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190500200032>
- Crandall, J. J., & Christison, M. (2016). An overview of research in English language teacher education and professional development. In J. Crandall and M. Christison (Eds.), *Teacher Education and Professional Development in TESOL: Global Perspectives*, (pp. 3-34). Routledge.
- Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (4th ed.). Pearson.
- Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika*, 16(3), 297-334. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02310555>
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2017). Teacher education around the world: What can we learn from international practice? *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 40(3), 291-309. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2017.1315399>

- Deardorff, D. K. (2006). Identification and assessment of intercultural competence as a student outcome of internationalisation. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 10(3), 241-266. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315306287002>
- Dervin, F. (2010). Assessing intercultural competence in language learning and teaching: A critical review of current efforts. In F. Dervin & E. Suomela-Salmi (Eds.), *New approaches to assessment in higher education*, 5, 155–172. Peter Lang.
- Dervin, F. (2011). A plea for change in research on intercultural discourses: A ‘liquid’ approach to the study of the acculturation of Chinese students. *Journal of Multicultural Discourses*, 6(1), 37-52. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17447143.2010.532218>
- Dervin, F. (2016). *Interculturality in education: A theoretical and methodological toolbox*. Springer.
- Dhawan, S. (2020). Online learning: A panacea in the time of COVID-19 crisis. *Journal of Educational Technology Systems*, 49(1) 5-22. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047239520934018>
- Diaz- Maggioli, G. (2003). Professional development for language teachers. *Eric Digest*, 3(3), 1-4. <http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/0303diaz.html>
- Diaz- Maggioli, G. (2014). Tradition and habitus in TESOL teacher education. *Language and Linguistics Compass*, 8(5),188-196. <https://doi.org/10.1111/lnc3.12077>
- Dikilitas, K., & Yayli, D. (2018). Teachers’ professional identity development through action research. *ELT Journal*, 72(4), 415-424. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccy027>
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics*. Oxford University Press.
- Douglas, S., & Rosvold, M. (2018). Intercultural communicative competence and English for academic purposes: A synthesis review of the scholarly literature. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 21(1), 23-42. <https://doi.org/10.7202/1050809ar>
- Eken, D. T. (2015). Intercultural communicative competence: EFL teachers’ beliefs and practices. *Journal of Teaching and Education*, 4(3), 63-71. <http://www.universitypublications.net/jte/0403/pdf/R5ME262.pdf>

- Fabricious, H. A., Mortensen, J., & Haberland, H. (2017). The lure of internationalisation: Paradoxical discourses of transnational student mobility, linguistic diversity, and cross-cultural exchange. *Higher Education*, 73, 577-595. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-015-9978-3>
- Farrell, T. S. C. (2019). 'My training has failed me': Inconvenient truths about second language teacher education (SLTE). *The Electronic Journal for English as a Second Language (TESL-EJ)*, 22(4), 1-16. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1204578.pdf>
- Ferri, G. (2014). Ethical communication and intercultural responsibility: A philosophical perspective. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 14(1), 7-23. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14708477.2013.866121>
- Galloway, N., & Numajiri, T. (2020). Global Englishes language teaching: Bottom-up curriculum implementation. *TESOL Quarterly*, 54(1), 118-145. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.547>
- Gandana, I., & Parr, G. (2013). Professional identity, curriculum and teaching intercultural communication: An Indonesian case study. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 26(3), 229-246. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07908318.2013.833620>
- Garret-Rucks, P. (2012). Byram versus Bennet. Discrepancies in the assessment of learner's IC Development. *Proceedings of Intercultural Competence Conference*, 2. [https://d1wqtxts1xzle7.cloudfront.net/31017413/garrett\\_rucks\\_byram\\_versus\\_bennet\\_t\\_ic2012-libre.pdf?1392115012](https://d1wqtxts1xzle7.cloudfront.net/31017413/garrett_rucks_byram_versus_bennet_t_ic2012-libre.pdf?1392115012)
- Golombek, P. R., & Johnson, K. E. (2021). Recurrent restorying through language teacher narrative inquiry. *System*, 102(102601), 1-9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2021.102601>
- González, A., & Ospina, N. (2005). The professional development of foreign language teacher educators: Another challenge for professional communities. *Íkala, revista de lenguaje y cultura*, 10(16), 11-39. <https://www.redalyc.org/pdf/2550/255020409001.pdf>
- Green, J. H. (2015). *Transfer of Learning and the Cultural Matrix: The Interrelationship of Culture, Beliefs, and Learning*. [ Doctor of Philosophy thesis]. The University of Southern Queensland.

- Gregory, A. (2010). Teacher learning on problem-solving teams. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26(3), 608–615. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2009.09.007>
- Guey, C., Cheng, Y., & Shibata, S. (2010). A triarchal instruction model: Integration of principles from Behaviourism, Cognitivism, and Humanism. *Procedia Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 9, 105–118. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.12.122>
- Guo, Q., Tao, J., Gao, X. (2019). Language teacher education in *System*. *System*, 82, 132-139. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2019.04.001>
- Gu, P. Y. (2016). Questionnaires in language teaching research. *Language Teaching Research* 20(5), 567–570. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168816664001>
- Hadar, L., & Brody, D. (2010). From isolation to symphonic harmony: Building a professional development community among teacher educators. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26, 1641-1651. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2010.06.015>
- Hamid, M. O. (2010). Globalisation, English for everyone and English teacher capacity: Language policy discourses and realities in Bangladesh. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 11(4), 289-310. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14664208.2011.532621>
- Hamid, M. O., & Nguyen, H. T. M. (2016). Globalisation, English language policy, and teacher agency: Focus on Asia. *The International Education Journal: Comparative Perspectives*, 15(1), 26-44. <http://openjournals.library.usyd.edu.au/index.php/IEJ/index>
- Hammad, W. (2016). Conflicting road maps: Cross-cultural professional development for Egyptian educators. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 46(2), 293-313. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03057925.2014.985186>
- Harbon, L., & Browett, J. (2006). Challenges for Australian language teacher educators in the professional development of language teachers. *Intercultural Languages Education*, 41(1), 28-38. <https://search.informit.org/doi/10.3316/aeipt.155263>
- Harman, G. (2005). Internationalisation of Australian higher education: A critical review of literature and research. In P. Ninnes & M. Hellstén (Eds.), *Internationalising higher education* (16, pp. 119-140). Springer-Verlag. [https://doi.org/10.1007/1-4020-3784-8\\_7](https://doi.org/10.1007/1-4020-3784-8_7)



- Hartono, R. (2016). *Indonesian EFL teachers' perceptions and experiences of professional development*. [Master's thesis]. Indiana University of Pennsylvania.
- Hazaea, A. (2019). The needs on professional development of English language faculty members at Saudi university. *International Journal of Educational Researchers*, 10(1), 1-14. <https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Abduljalil-Hazaea2/publication/333118939>
- Heddy, B. C., & Sinatra, G. M. (2013). Transforming misconceptions: Using transformative experience to promote positive affect and conceptual change in students learning about biological evolution. *Science Education*, 97(5), 713-744. <https://doi.org/10.1002/sce.21072>
- He, Y., Lundgren, K., & Pynes, P. (2017). Impact of short-term study abroad programme: Inservice teachers' development of intercultural competence and pedagogical beliefs. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 66, 147-157. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2017.04.012>
- Hiatt, J. E., & Fairbairn, S. B. (2018). Improving the focus of English learner professional development for in-service teachers. *NASSP Bulletin*, 102(3), 228-263. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0192636518789261>
- Hoff, H. E. (2013). Self 'and 'Other 'in meaningful interaction: Using fiction to develop intercultural competence in the English classroom. *Tidsskriftet FoU i praksis*, 7(2), 27-50. <https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Hild-Hoff/publication/264280405>
- Hoff, H. E. (2014). A critical discussion of Byram's model of intercultural communicative competence in the light of Bildung theories. *Intercultural Education*, 25(6), 508-517. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14675986.2014.992112>
- Hoff, H. E. (2020). The Evolution of Intercultural Communicative Competence: Conceptualisations, Critiques and Consequences for 21st Century Classroom Practice. *Intercultural Communication Education*, 3(2), 55-74. <https://doi.org/10.29140/ice.v3n2.264>
- Holliday, A. (2011). *Intercultural communication and ideology*. London: Sage.



- Holliday, A. (2016). Revisiting intercultural competence: Small culture formation on the go through threads of experience. *International Journal of Bias, Identity and Diversities in Education (IJBIDE)*, 1(2), 1-14. <https://www.igi-global.com/article/revisiting-intercultural-competence/156494>
- Howard, A., N. M. Basurto-Santos, T. Gimenez, A. Maria, Gonzales, A, M. McMurray, & A. Traish. (2016). *A Comparative Study of English Language Teacher Recruitment, In-service Education and Retention in Latin America and the Middle East*. British Council. <https://d1wqtxts1xzle7.cloudfront.net/49579754/g051-eltra-paper-a-comparative-study-of-english-language-teacher-recruitment-education-and-retention-libre.pdf?1476386565>
- Howard, J. (2021). *Rethinking Australian Higher Education: Towards a Diversified System for the 21st Century*. Howard Partners.
- Howe, D. C., Chauhan, R. S., Soderberg, A. T., & Buckley, M. R. (2021). Paradigm shifts caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. *Organisational Dynamics*, 50, 1-9. <https://doi.org/10.1016%2Fj.orgdyn.2020.100804>
- Howe, E. R. (2008). Teacher induction across the Pacific: A comparative study of Canada and Japan. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 34(4), 333-346. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02607470802401503>
- Howe, E. R. (2013). Alternatives to a master's degree as the new gold standard in teaching: A narrative inquiry of global citizenship teacher education in Japan and Canada. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 39(1), 60-73. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02607476.2012.733191>
- Howe, E. R. (2014). A narrative of teacher education in Canada: Multiculturalism, technology, bridging theory and practice. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 40(5), 588-599. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02607476.2014.956540>
- Huang, L. (2017). Co-curricular activity-based intercultural competence development: Students' outcome of internationalisation at universities. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, 54(3), 184-193. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14703297.2016.1184098>

- Hymes, D. H. (1972). On Communicative Competence, in J.B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds) *Sociolinguistics*. Penguin.
- Ingvarson, L., Meiers, M., & Beavis, A. (2005). Factors affecting the impact of professional development programmes on teachers' knowledge, practice, student outcomes & efficacy. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 13(10). <http://epaa.asu.edu/epaa/v13n10/>
- Islam, S. (2021). Unlearning, relearning, and paradigm shift to online tertiary education during the COVID-19 pandemic in Bangladesh. *Bangladesh Journal of Medical Science*, 20, (Special), 65-71. <https://doi.org/10.3329/bjms.v20i5.55399>
- Jack, G. (2009). "A critical perspective on teaching intercultural competence in a management department". In: Feng, A., Byram, M. & M. Fleming (eds.). *Becoming interculturally competent through education and training*, 93-115. Multilingual Matters. <https://d1wqtxts1xzle7.cloudfront.net/33836289>
- Jacob, W. J., Xiong, W., & Ye, H. (2015). Professional development programmes at world-class universities. *Palgrave Communications*, 1(15002), 1-27. <https://doi.org/10.1057/palcomms.2015.2>
- Johnson, K. E. (2009). *Second language teacher education: A sociocultural perspective*. Routledge.
- Johnson, K. E. (2015). Reclaiming the relevance of L2 teacher education. *The Modern Language Journal*, 99(3), 515-528. <https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12242>
- Joshi, K. D., Gnawali, L., & Dixon, M. (2018). Experience of professional development strategies: Context of Nepalese EFL teachers. *Pakistan Journal of Education*, 35(2), 53-78. <https://d1wqtxts1xzle7.cloudfront.net/69782515/pdf-libre.pdf?1631858385>
- Kabilan, M. K., Adlina, W. F. W., & Embi, M. A. (2011). Online collaboration of English language teachers for meaningful professional development experiences. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, 10(4), 94-115. <http://education.waikato.ac.nz/research/files/etpc/files/2011v10n4art6.pdf>

- Kabilan, M. K., & Veratharaju, K. (2013). Professional development needs of primary school English-language teachers in Malaysia. *Professional Development in Education*, 39(3), 330-351. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2012.762418>
- Kachru, B. B. (1985). Standards, codification and sociolinguistic realism: The English language in the outer circle. In R. Quirk & H. Widdowson (Eds.), *English in the world: Teaching and learning the language and literatures* (pp. 11-30). Cambridge University Press.
- Kaowiwattanakul, S. (2016). Role of international study experiences in the personal and professional development of university lecturers in the Humanities and Social Sciences fields in Thailand. *The International Education Journal: Comparative Perspectives*, 15(1), 58-71. <https://openjournals.library.sydney.edu.au/index.php/IEJ/index>
- Karabinar, S., & Guler, C. Y. (2013). A review of intercultural competence from language teachers' perspectives. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 70, 1316 – 1328. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.01.193>
- Kennedy, A. (2005). Models of continuing professional development: A framework for analysis. *Journal of In-service Education*, 31(2). <https://doi.org/10.1080/13674580500200277>
- Kennedy, A. (2014). Understanding continuing professional development: The need for theory to impact on policy and practice. *Professional Development in Education*, 40(5), 688-697. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2014.955122>
- Khan, R. (2008). Developing professionally. *The Dhaka University Journal of Linguistics*, 1(2), 169-180. <https://doi.org/10.3329/dujl.v1i2.3723>
- Khan, R., Bashir, A., Basu, B. L., & Uddin, M. E. (2020). Emergency online instruction at higher education in Bangladesh during COVID-19: Challenges and suggestions. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 17(4), 1497-1506. [http://www.asiatefl.org/main/download\\_pdf.php?i=897&c=1609685538&fn=17\\_4\\_007\\_Report\\_11.pdf](http://www.asiatefl.org/main/download_pdf.php?i=897&c=1609685538&fn=17_4_007_Report_11.pdf)
- Khan, R., Basu, B. L., Bashir, A., & Uddin, M. E. (2021). Online instruction during COVID-19 at public universities in Bangladesh: Teacher and student voices. *The Electronic Journal for English as a Second Language (TESL-EJ)*, 25(1), 1-27. <http://www.tesl-ej.org/wordpress/issues/volume25/ej97/ej97a19/>

- Khatun, M. M. (2013). Nature of adult teaching and learning: Some implications for pedagogy. *International Journal of Innovative Research & Development*, 2(3), 137-152. <https://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/document?repid=rep1&type=pdf&doi=0702cffdc9182c0b1d608b69367830f44e40b8a0>
- Kiely, R., & Davis, M. (2010). From transmission to transformation: Teacher learning in English for speakers of other languages. *Language Teaching Research*, 14(3), 277-295. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168810365241>
- Kilic, S. (2013). English Lecturers' beliefs regarding intercultural competence. *Hasan Ali Yücel Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 10(2), 47-59. <https://hayefjournal.org/Content/files/sayilar/63/47.pdf>
- King, C. S. T., & Bailey, K. S. (2021). Intercultural communication and US higher education: How US students and faculty can improve international students' classroom experiences. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 82, 278-287. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2021.04.007>
- Kis, S. K., & Kartal, G. (2019). No pain no gain: Reflections on the promises and challenges of embedding reflective practices in large classes. *Reflective Practice*, 20(5), 637-653. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14623943.2019.1651715>
- Klink, M. V. D., Kools, Q., Avissar, G., White, S., & Sakata, T. (2017). Professional development of teacher educators: What do they do? Findings from an explorative international study. *Professional Development in Education*, 43(2), 163-178. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2015.1114506>
- Knight, J. (2012). Student mobility and internationalisation: Trends and tribulations. *Research in Comparative and International Education*, 7(1), 20-33. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2304/rcie.2012.7.1.20>
- Knight, J. (2015). International universities: Misunderstanding and emerging models? *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 19(2), 107-121. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1028315315572899>
- Korstjens, I., & Moser, A. (2018). Series: Practical guidance to qualitative research. Part 4: Trustworthiness and publishing. *European Journal of General Practice*, 24(1), 120-124. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13814788.2017.1375092>

- Kramersch, C. (2009). *The multilingual subject*. Oxford University Press.
- Kramersch, C. (2011). The symbolic dimensions of the intercultural. *Language Teaching*, 44, 354-367. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444810000431>
- Kramersch, C., & Zhu, H. (2020). Translating culture in global times: An introduction. *Applied Linguistics*, 41(1), 1-9. <https://eprints.bbk.ac.uk/id/eprint/27464>
- Kumar, R. (2011). *Research methodology: A step-by-step guide for beginners (3rd ed.)*. Sage.
- Lankveld, T. V., Schoonenboom, J., Volman, M., Croiset, G., & Beishuizen, J. (2017). Developing a teacher identity in the university context: A systematic review of the literature. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 36(2), 325-342. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2016.1208154>
- Larsen, A. M. (2016). Globalisation and internationalisation of teacher education: A comparative case study of Canada and Greater China. *Teaching Education*, 27(4), 396-409. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10476210.2016.1163331>
- Lee, K-Y. (2012). Teaching intercultural English learning/teaching in world Englishes: Some classroom activities in South Korea. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, 11(4), 190-205. <http://education.waikato.ac.nz/research/files/etpc/files/2012v11n4nar2.pdf>
- Lee, H., & Mori, C. (2020). Reflective practices and self-directed learning competencies in second language university classes. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 1-21. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02188791.2020.1772196>
- Levin, T. H., Marcus, A. S. (2010). How the structure and focus of teachers' collaborative activities facilitate and constrain teacher learning. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26, 389-398. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2009.03.001>
- Leeder, T. M. (2022). Behaviourism, Skinner, and operant conditioning: Considerations for sport coaching practice. *Strategies*, 35(3), 27-32. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08924562.2022.2052776>
- Liddicoat, A. J. (2002). Static and dynamic views of culture and intercultural language acquisition. *New Zealand Language Teacher*, (27), 47-58. <https://search.informit.org/doi/pdf/10.3316/ielapa.200204271>

- Liddicoat, A. J. (2008). Pedagogical practice for integrating the intercultural in language teaching and learning. *Japanese Studies*, 28(3), 277-290. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10371390802446844>
- Liddicoat, A. J., & Scarino, A. (2013). *Intercultural language teaching and learning*. Wiley-Blackwell.
- Ling, L. M., & MacKenzie, N. (2001). The professional development of teachers in Australia. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 24(2), 87-98. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02619760120095507>
- Lin J. M., Wang, P., & Lin, I. (2012). Pedagogy \* technology: A two-dimensional model for teachers' ICT integration. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 43(1), 97-108. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8535.2010.01159.x>
- Lin, T. C., Liang, J. C., & Tsai, C. C. (2015). Conceptions of memorising and understanding in learning, and self-efficacy held by university biology majors. *International Journal of Science Education*, 37(3), 446-468. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09500693.2014.992057>
- Lin, Z. (2015). In-service professional development in an online environment: What are South Australian English as an additional language or dialect teachers' views? *Professional Development in Education*, 41(3), 527-545. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2014.902860>
- Livingston, K., & Flores, M. A. (2017). Trends in teacher education: A review of papers. *European Journal of Teacher Education Over 40 Years*, 40(5), 551-560. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2017.1387970>
- Liyanage, I., Walker, T., & Singh, P. (2015). TESOL professional standards in the "Asian century": Dilemmas facing Australian TESOL teacher education. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 35(4), 485-497. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02188791.2013.876388>
- Liyanage, I., Walker, T., & Weinmann, M. (2016). English as an additional language teachers, policy enactments & intercultural understanding. *TESOL in Context*, 25(2), 4-19. <https://search.informit.org/doi/10.3316/aeipt.215411>
- Macalister, J. (2018). Professional development and the place of journals in ELT. *RELC Journal*, 49(2), 238-256. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688218771385>

- MacPhail, A., Ulvik, M., Guberman, A., Czerniawski, G., Oolbekkink-Marchand, H. & Bain, Y. (2019). The professional development of higher education-based teacher educators: Needs and realities. *Professional Development in Education*, 45(5), 848-861. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2018.1529610>
- Mahfoodh, O. H. (2017). "I feel disappointed": EFL university students' emotional responses towards teacher written feedback. *Assessing Writing*, 31, 53-72. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asw.2016.07.001>
- Mahmud, A. A. (2013). Constructivism and reflectivism as the logical counterparts in TESOL: Learning theory versus teaching methodology. *TEFLIN Journal*, 24(2), 237-257. <https://garuda.kemdikbud.go.id/documents/detail/171182>
- Mansilla, V. B., & Jackson, A. (2012). Preparing Our Youth to Engage the World. *Council of Chief State School Officers: Edsteps Initiative and Asia Society Partnership for Global Learning* (CCSSO) 21(3). [https://www.education.ne.gov/wp-content/uploads/2017/07/Educating\\_for\\_Global\\_Competence.pdf](https://www.education.ne.gov/wp-content/uploads/2017/07/Educating_for_Global_Competence.pdf)
- Matsuda, A. (2018). Is teaching English as an international language all about being politically correct? *RELC Journal*, 49(1), 24-35. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688217753489>
- Matsuo, C. (2012). A critique of Michael Byram's intercultural communicative competence model from the perspective of model type and conceptualisation of culture. *Fukuoka University Review of Literature and Humanities*, 44(2), 347-380. <http://id.nii.ac.jp/1316/00001140/>
- McChesney, K., & Aldridge, J. M. (2021). What gets in the way? A new conceptual model for the trajectory from teacher professional development to impact. *Professional Development in Education*, 47(5), 834-852. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2019.1667412>
- McKay, S. L. (2003). EIL curriculum development. *RELC Journal*, 34(1), 139-146. <https://doi.org/10.1177/003368820303400103>
- McKim, C. A. (2017). The value of mixed methods research: A mixed methods study. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 11(2), 202-222. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1558689815607096>



- McKinney, S., Carroll, M., Christie, D., Fraser, C., Kennedy, A., Reid, L., & Wilson, A. (2005). AERS: learners, learning and teaching network project 2—progress report. In *Paper delivered at the Scottish Educational Research Association Annual Conference, Perth, Scotland, November* (pp. 24-26).
- Mannan, M. (2016). Pedagogy in Bangladesh private universities: Context, culture, and confusion. *Sociology Study*, 6(9), 574-582. <http://dir.iub.edu.bd:8180/handle/123456789/257>
- Marginson, S., & Dang, T. K. A. (2017). Vygotsky's sociocultural theory in the context of globalisation. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 37(1), 116-129. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02188791.2016.1216827>
- Meng, J., Tajaroensuk, S., & Seepho, S. (2013). The multilayered peer coaching model and the in-service professional development of tertiary EFL teachers. *International Education Studies*, 6(7), 18-31. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1068478.pdf>
- Milian, M., Birnbaum, M., Cardona, B., & Nicholson, B. (2015). Personal and professional challenges and benefits of studying abroad. *Journal of International Education and Leadership*, 5(1), 1-12. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1135354.pdf>
- Moeller, A. K., & Nugent, K. (2014). Building intercultural competence in the language classroom. *Faculty Publications: Department of Teaching, Learning and Teacher Education*, 161, 1-16. <https://digitalcommons.unl.edu/teachlearnfacpub/161/>
- Moser, A., & Korstjens, I. (2018). Series: Practical guidance to qualitative research. Part 3: Sampling, data collection and analysis. *European Journal of General Practice*, 24(1), 9-18. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13814788.2017.1375091>
- Motallebzadeh, K., Hosseinnia, M., & Domskey, J. G. H. (2017). Peer observation: A key factor to improve Iranian EFL teachers' professional development. *Cogent Education*, 4(1), 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2016.1277456>
- Moussu, L., & Lurda, E. (2008). Non-native English-speaking English language teachers: History and research. *Language Teaching*, 41(3), 316-348. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444808005028>



- Nazari, N., Nafissi, Z., Estaji, M., & Marandi, S. S. (2019). Evaluating novice and experienced EFL teachers' perceived TPACK for their professional development. *Cogent Education*, 6(1), 1-26. <https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2019.1632010>
- Neilsen, R. (2011). 'Moments of disruption' and the development of expatriate TESOL teachers. *English Australia Journal*, 27(1), 18-32. <https://search.informit.org/doi/10.3316/aeipt.188655>
- Neuman, W. L. (2014). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches* (7<sup>th</sup> ed.). Pearson.
- Olaya, A., & Rodríguez, L. F. G. (2013). Exploring EFL pre-service teachers' experience with cultural content and intercultural communicative competence at three Colombian universities. *PROFILE Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, 15(2), 49-67. [http://www.scielo.org.co/scielo.php?script=sci\\_arttext&pid=S1657-07902013000200004&lng=en&tlng=en](http://www.scielo.org.co/scielo.php?script=sci_arttext&pid=S1657-07902013000200004&lng=en&tlng=en)
- Oliver, R., Rochecouste, J., & Nguyen, B. A. (2017). ESL in Australia-a chequered history. *TESOL in Context*, 26(1), 7-26. <https://search.informit.org/doi/10.3316/ielapa.002955400465516>
- Olmedo, I., & Harbon, L. (2010). Broadening our sights: Internationalising teacher education for a global arena. *Teaching Education*, 21(1), 75-88. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10476210903466992>
- Oranje, J., & Smith, L. F. (2018). Language teacher cognitions and intercultural language teaching: The New Zealand perspective. *Language Teaching Research*, 22(3), 310–329. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168817691319>
- Orsini-Jones, M., & Lee, F. (2018). *Intercultural Communicative Competence for Global Citizenship: Identifying cyber pragmatic rules of engagement in telecollaboration*. Springer.
- O'Sullivan, K. (2018). Critical factors in English teachers' professional development in China – A case study. *European Journal of Language and Literature Studies*, 4(3), 6-16. <https://doi.org/10.26417/ejls.v4i3.p6-16>

- Pasquale, G. (2015). The teaching methodology in intercultural perspective. *Procedia - social and Behavioural Sciences* 191, 2609–2611.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.04.281>
- Pawan, F., Paulus, T. M., Yalcin, S., & Chang, C. (2003). Online learning: Patterns of engagement and interaction among in-service teachers. *Language Learning and Technology*, 7(3), 119-140. <http://llt.msu.edu/vol7num3/pawan/>
- Phothongsunan, S. (2018). EFL university teachers' professional development in the Thai context. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ)*, 9(2), 283-297.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3201959>
- Prabjandee, D. (2020). Teacher professional development to implement Global Englishes language teaching. *Asian Englishes*, 22(1), 52-67.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13488678.2019.1624931>
- Pramastiwi, P. (2018). Challenges and resources in CPD for in-service teachers: Establishing communities of inquiry. *Beyond Words*, 6(2), 66-87.  
<http://jurnal.wima.ac.id/index.php/BW/article/view/1705/1670>
- Prapaisit D. S. L., & Hardison, D. M. (2009). Implementing educational reform: EFL teachers' perspectives. *ELT Journal*, 63(2), 154–162.  
<https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccn024>
- Pratama, D., Nurmandi, A., Muallidin, I., Kurniawan, D., Salahudin. (2022). *Information Dissemination of COVID-19 by Ministry of Health in Indonesia*. In: Human Interaction, Emerging Technologies, and Future Systems V. Springer.  
[https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-85540-6\\_8](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-85540-6_8)
- Pollard, A. (2002). *Readings for reflective teaching*. Continuum.
- Porto, M. (2013). A model for describing, analysing and investigating cultural understanding in EFL reading settings. *The Language Learning Journal*, 41(3), 284-296.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2013.836346>
- Porto, M., Houghton, S. A., & Byram, M. (2018). Intercultural citizenship in the (foreign) language classroom. *Language Teaching Research*, 22(5) 484–498.  
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168817718580>

- Price, B. (2020). English language teaching professionals' trajectories within the context of learning organisations. *Hungarian Education Research Journal*, 10(1), 47-65. <https://doi.org/10.1556/063.2020.00004>
- Probert, B. (2015). *The quality of Australia's higher education system: How it might be defined, improved, and assured*. Office for Learning and Teaching.
- Ravandpour, A. (2019). The relationship between EFL teachers' continuing professional development and their self-efficacy: A structural equation modelling approach. *Cogent Psychology*, 6(1), 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23311908.2019.1568068>
- Reed, M. (2019). *Teacher-Centred Professional Development: Exploring Teacher Cognition and Autonomy in Australian English Language Centres*. [Master's thesis]. Macquarie University
- Richards, J. C. (2008). Second Language Teacher Education Today. *RELC journal*, 39(2), 158-177. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688208092182>
- Richards, J. C., & Farrell, T. S. C. (2005). *Professional development for language teachers: Strategies for teacher learning*. Cambridge University Press.
- Richardson, S., & Díaz-Maggioli, G. (2018). *Effective professional development: Principles and best practice (Part of the Cambridge Papers in ELT series)*. Cambridge University Press.
- Risager, K. (2007). *Language and culture pedagogy: From a national to a transnational paradigm* (Vol. 14). Multilingual Matters.
- Risagar, K. (2021). Review of Teaching and Assessing Intercultural Communicative Competence: Revisited. *Intercultural Communication Education*, 4(3), 252–256. <https://doi.org/10.29140/ice.v4n3.br43ice>
- Rodríguez, L.F.G. (2015). Critical intercultural learning through topics of deep culture in an EFL classroom. *Ikala*, 20, 43-59. <https://doi.org/10.17533/udea.ikala.v20n1a03>
- Ronai, K., & Lammervo, T. (2017). Australian TESOL teachers' cultural perceptions of students. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*, 16(5), 313-327. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15348458.2017.1350824>

- Rose, H., Mckinley, J., Galloway, N. (2021). Global Englishes and language teaching: A review of pedagogical research. *Language Teaching* 54, 157–189. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444820000518>
- Sadeghi, K., & Sepahi, Z. (2018). Cultural content of three EFL textbooks: Teachers' and learners' cultural preferences and cultural themes of textbooks. *Pedagogies: An International Journal*, 13(3), 222-245. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1554480X.2017.1417128>
- Safa, M. A., & Tofighi, S. (2021). Intercultural communicative competence beliefs and practices of Iranian pre-service and in-service EFL teachers. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2021.1889562>
- Salih, A. A., & Omar, L. I. (2021). Globalised English and users' intercultural awareness: Implications for internationalisation of higher education. *Citizenship, Social and Economics Education*, 20(3), 181–196. <https://doi.org/10.1177/20471734211037660>
- Schunk, D. H. (2012). *Learning theories: An educational perspective* (6<sup>th</sup> ed.). Pearson.
- Sercu, L. (2002). Implementing intercultural foreign language education: Belgian, Danish and British teachers 'professional self-concepts and teaching practices compared. *Evaluation and Research Education*, 16(3), 150-165. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09500790208667015>
- Sercu, L., Bandura, E., Castro, P., Davcheva, L., Laskaridou, C., Lundgren, U., del, M., Mendez Garcia, C., & Ryan, P. (2005). *Foreign language teachers and intercultural competence: An international investigation*. Multilingual Matters.
- Sercu, L. (2006). The foreign language and intercultural competence teacher: The acquisition of a new professional identity. *Intercultural Education*, 17(1), 55-72. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14675980500502321>
- Scarino, A. (2010). Assessing intercultural capability in learning languages: A renewed understanding of language, culture, learning, and the nature of assessment. *The Modern Language Journal*, 94(2), 324-329. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/40856136>

- Scharp, K. M., Matthew L., & Sanders, M. L. (2019). What is a theme? Teaching thematic analysis in qualitative communication research methods. *Communication Teacher*, 33(2), 117-121. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17404622.2018.1536794>
- Chen, S., & Li, X. (2011). Cultivating intercultural communication competence under Chinese higher vocational college EFL teaching context. *TESOL Journal*, 5, 52-62. [https://tesol-international-journal.com/wp-content/uploads/2013/11/A5\\_V5\\_TESOL.pdf](https://tesol-international-journal.com/wp-content/uploads/2013/11/A5_V5_TESOL.pdf)
- Singh, P., & Doherty, C. (2004). Global cultural flows and pedagogic dilemmas: Teaching in the global university contact zone. *TESOL Quarterly*, 38(1), 9-42. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3588257>
- Sinha, B. S. & Idris, N. (2013). Shifting teachers' role in the English language classroom in Bangladesh. *The English Teacher*, 42(2), 89-103. <https://www.proquest.com/docview/1470086221?pq-origsite=gscholar&fromopenview=true>
- Skinner, B. F. (1953). *Science and human behaviour*. The Free Press.
- Sobre, M. S. (2017). Developing the critical intercultural class space: Theoretical implications and pragmatic applications of critical intercultural communication pedagogy. *Intercultural Education*, 28(1), 39-59. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14675986.2017.1288984>
- Stanley, P. (2017). The two cultures in Australian ELICOS: Industry managers respond to English language schoolteachers. *English Australia Journal*, 33(1), 28-42. <https://search.informit.org/doi/10.3316/informit.164838654756758>
- Stewart, C. (2014). Transforming professional development to professional learning. *Journal of Adult Education*, 43(1), 28-33. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1047338.pdf>
- Taber, K. S. (2018). The use of Cronbach's alpha when developing and reporting research instruments in science education. *Research in Science Education*, 48, 1273-1296. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11165-016-9602-2>
- Talib, M. A., Bettayeb, A. M., Omer, R. I. (2021). Analytical study on the impact of technology in higher education during the age of COVID-19: Systematic literature

- review. *Education and Information Technologies*, 26, 6719–6746. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-021-10507-1>
- Tavakoli, P. (2015). Connecting research and practice in TESOL: A community of practice perspective. *RELC Journal*, 46(1), 37–52. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688215572005>
- The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2018). *Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS): Teacher Questionnaire*. <http://www.oecd.org/education/school/TALIS-2018-MS-Teacher-Questionnaire-ENG.pdf>
- Tian, J. (2016). Beliefs and practices regarding intercultural competence among Chinese teachers of English: A case study. *TESOL International Journal*, 11(2), 45-56. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1251271.pdf>
- Tight, M. (2021). Globalisation and internationalisation as frameworks for higher education research. *Research Papers in Education*, 36(1), 52-74. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02671522.2019.1633560>
- Topkaya, E. Z., & Celik, H. (2016). Non-native English language teachers' perceptions of professional development: Implications for career stages. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 232, 5 -11. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2016.10.003>
- Tran, T. Q., & Dang, H. V. (2014). Culture teaching in English language teaching: Teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices. *Global Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 4(2), 92-101. <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/303339232>
- Troudi, S. (2005). Critical content and cultural knowledge for teachers of English to speakers of other languages. *Teacher Development*, 9(1), 115-129. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13664530500200233>
- UGC. (2020). University Grants Commission of Bangladesh. <http://www.ugc-universities.gov.bd>.
- Utami, I. G. A. L. P., & Prestridge, S. (2018). How English teachers learn in Indonesia: Tension between policy-driven and self-driven professional development. *TEFLIN Journal*, 29(2), 245-265. <https://doi.org/10.15639/teflinjournal.v29i2/245-265>

- Viskovic, A. (2006). Becoming a tertiary teacher: learning in communities of practice. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 25(4), 323-339. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360600947285>
- Vo, Q. P. (2017). Rethinking intercultural communication competence in English language teaching: A gap between lecturers' perspectives and practices in a southeast Asian tertiary context. *I-manager's Journal on English Language Teaching*, 7(1), 20-29. <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1140320>
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in society*. Harvard University Press.
- Wagner, S., & Lopez, J. G. (2015). Meeting the challenges of service-learning teaching with international TESOL student teachers. In A. Wurr & J. Perren (Eds.), *Learning the language of global citizenship: Strengthening service-learning in TESOL* (pp.277– 305). Common Ground.
- Wagner, M., & Byram, M. (2017). Intercultural citizenship. *The International Encyclopedia of Intercultural Communication*, 1-6. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118783665.ieicc0043>
- Walsh, S., & Mann, S. (2015). Doing reflective practice: A data-led way forward. *ELT Journal*, 69(4), 351-362. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccv018>
- Weegar, M. A., & Pacis, D. (2012). A comparison of two theories of learning-behaviourism and constructivism as applied to face-to-face and online learning. *In Proceedings E-Leader Conference*, Manila.
- Wichadee, S. (2012). Factors related to professional development of English language university teachers in Thailand. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 38(5), 615-627. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02607476.2013.739795>
- Widdowson, H. G. (1994). The ownership of English. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28(2), 377-389. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3587438>
- Wise, G., Negrin, A. (2019). A critical review of the composition and history of safe use of guayusa: A stimulant and antioxidant novel food. *Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition*, 59(15), 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10408398.2019.1643286>



- Yang, P. (2018). Developing TESOL teacher international identity: An intercultural communication competence approach. *TESOL Journal*, 9(3), 525-541. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.356>
- Yang, P. (2020). Intercultural responsiveness: Learning languages other than English and developing intercultural communication competence. *Languages*, 5(24), 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.3390/languages5020024>
- Yang, R. (2003). Internationalised while provincialised? A case study of South China Normal University. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 33(3), 287-300. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03057920302594>
- Yilmaz, K. (2011). The cognitive perspective on learning: Its theoretical underpinnings and implications for classroom practices. *The Clearing House: A Journal of Educational Strategies, Issues and Ideas*, 84(5), 204-212. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00098655.2011.568989>
- Yonata, F. (2022). Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence—revisited: by Michael Byram, Bristol, Blue Ridge Summit, 2021, Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14675986.2022.2071038>
- Young, T. J., & Sachdev, I. (2011). Intercultural communicative competence: Exploring English language teachers' beliefs and practices. *Language Awareness*, 20(2), 81-98. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2010.540328>
- Yumru, H. (2015). EFL teachers' preferences for teacher learning activities in a professional development course. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 199, 178 -183. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.07.503>
- Yurtsever, G. (2013). English language instructors' beliefs on professional development models and preferences to improve their teaching skills. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 70, 666-674. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.01.107>
- Yuwono, G. I. & Harbon, L. (2010). English teacher professionalism and professional development: Some common issues in Indonesia. *Asian EFL Journal*, 12(3), 145-163. <https://asian-efl-journal.com/PDF/September-2010.pdf#page=145>



- Zein, S., Sukyadi, D., Hamied, F. A., & Lengkanawati, N. S. (2020). English language education in Indonesia: A review of research (2011–2019). *Language Teaching*, 53, 491–523. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444820000208>
- Zhang, L. (2018). Study on Continuous Professional Development for Teachers. *Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research*, 289, 67-72. <https://doi.org/10.2991/icelaic-18.2018.15>

# APPENDICES

## Appendix A: Ethics approval letter

Office of Research  
Human Research Ethics Committee  
Phone: +617 46312690| Fax: +61746315555



21 March 2021

Dear Mst.Khatun

I am pleased to confirm your Human Research Ethics (HRE) application has now been reviewed by the University's Expedited Review process. As your research proposal has been deemed to meet the requirements of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007), ethical approval is granted as follows:

UniSQ HREC ID	H21REA091
Project title	Internationalisation and Professional Development of TESOL Academics: Towards an Intercultural Model.
Approval date	21/05/2021
Expiry date	21/05/2024
UniSQ HREC status	Approved

The standard conditions of this approval are:

- a) responsibly conduct the project strictly in accordance with the proposal submitted and granted ethics approval, including any amendments made to the proposal;
- (b) advise the University ([email: ResearchIntegrity@usq.edu.au](mailto:ResearchIntegrity@usq.edu.au)) immediately of any complaint pertaining to the conduct of the research or any other issues in relation to the project which may warrant a review of the ethical approval of the project;
- (c) promptly report any adverse events or unexpected outcomes to the University ([email: ResearchIntegrity@usq.edu.au](mailto:ResearchIntegrity@usq.edu.au)) and take prompt action to deal with any unexpected risks;
- (d) make a submission for any amendments to the project and obtain approval prior to implementing such changes;
- (e) provide a progress 'milestone report' when requested and at least for every year of approval.
- (f) provide a final 'milestone report' when the project is complete;
- (g) promptly advise the University if the project has been discontinued, using a final 'milestone report'

## Appendix B: Academics' questionnaire

### Survey tool for the TESOL academic staff

(Adapted from Teaching and Learning International Survey, TALIS 2018)

#### Confidentiality

All information that is collected in this study will be treated confidentially. While results will be made available by country and, for example, by the type of university within a country, you are guaranteed that neither you, this university, nor any university personnel will be identified in any report of the results of the study. [Participation in this survey is voluntary and any individual may withdraw at any time.]

#### About the Questionnaire

This questionnaire should take approximately (25-30) minutes to complete. Guidelines for answering the questions are typed in italics. When in doubt about any aspect of the questionnaire or the study or when you have completed this questionnaire, you can reach me by using the contact details mentioned here: [REDACTED]

**Thank you very much for your participation!**

#### Background and Qualification

These questions are about you, your education and the time you have spent in teaching. In responding to the questions, *please mark the appropriate choice(s) or provide figures where necessary.*

1. Are you female or male?

Please mark one choice

- a) Female
- b) Male
- c) Prefer not to disclose

2. What is the highest level of formal education you have completed?

*Please mark one choice*

- a) Bachelor
- b) Coursework Master

- c) Research Master
- d) Master of Philosophy
- e) Doctor of Philosophy
- f) Other

3. The university where you are employed is:

- a) An Australian urban university
- b) An Australian regional university
- c) A Bangladeshi urban university
- d) A Bangladeshi regional university

4. What is your employment status as a teacher in this university?

*Please mark one choice*

- a) Full-time employment (an on-going contract with no fixed endpoint before the age of retirement)
- b) Full-time contract for a period of more than 1 year
- c) Full-time contract for a period of less than 1 year
- d) Part-time (more than 50% of full-time hours)
- e) Part-time (Less than 50% of full-time hours)
- f) Casual
- g) Other

5. What is your designation in this university?

*Please mark one choice*

- a) Tutor/Associate Lecturer/Research Associate
- b) Lecturer/Research Fellow
- c) Senior Lecturer/Senior Research Fellow
- d) Assistant Professor
- e) Associate Professor
- f) Professor
- g) Other

6. How many years of teaching experience do you have, regardless of whether you have worked full-time or part-time?

*Do not include any extended periods of leave such as maternity/paternity leave. Please write a number in each row. Write 0 (zero) if none. Please round up to whole years.*

--	--

7. Do you currently work as a teacher at another university?

*Please mark one choice*

- a) Yes
- b) No (Please go to question no.9)

8. If 'yes' in the previous section, please indicate at how many universities you currently work? *Please write number*

--	--

9. Why do you work at other university/universities?

*Please mark one choice*

- a) No full-time job
- b) Full-time job with insufficient remuneration
- c) Full-time job with good salary but working for additional income
- d) Part-time job with insufficient money but working for additional income
- e) Prefer casual work opportunities

- f) Other

## Professional Development

In this section, 'professional development' is defined as activities (both online and face-to-face) that aim to develop an individual's skills, knowledge, expertise and other characteristics as a teacher. Please only consider professional development you have undertaken after your initial education or training (formal qualifications that helped you to get a job).

10. Did you take part in any induction activities at the current university or most recent university?

'Induction activities' are designed to support new teachers' introduction into the teaching profession and to support experienced teachers who are new to a university, and they are either organized in formal, structured programs or informally arranged as separate activities.

*Please mark one option from each row*

- a) The university provided formal induction program

b) An induction program was mandatory

c) I selected formal induction activities

d) I selected informal induction activities

e) Other

11. Were any of the topics listed below included in your professional development activities during the last five years? **(Task-based PD Provisions and needs)** Please mark two tick marks (✓) from each row. One from the options (Yes /No) for the provision and two to indicate the level of 'need'.

PD Provisions/ Needs	Yes	No	Not needed	Low level of need	Moderate level of need	High level of need
Knowledge and understanding of my subject field						
Pedagogical competencies in teaching my subject field						
ICT (information and communication technology) skills for teaching and student learning						
Knowledge of the curriculum						
Material designing and uses of online resources						
Lesson and delivery plan						
Student assessment practices						
Student behavior and classroom management						
Approaches to individualized learning						
Building awareness of different cultures						
Teaching in a multicultural or multilingual setting						
Teaching English for specific purposes (e.g., Cross-cultural priorities)						

Teaching higher-order cross-curricular skills (e.g., creativity, critical thinking, problem solving)						
(Motivation) Incentive to research for higher degree study (and publications)						
Experience writing for journal publication						
Aspects of intercultural and intercultural collaboration						

12. Indicate the level of your participation in any of the following professional development activities during the last five years (please mark one option between 1 and 4 to indicate PD provision). Assess the quality of each one you attended (please mark one option between 5 and 8 to indicate usefulness).

PD Quality	Activity/	1.Institutionally Organized	2.Personal Initiatives	3.Both	4.None	5.Not at all	6.To some extent	7.A lot	8.Not applicable
	Degree Programs								
	Study Abroad Programs/Overseas Academic Development Leave								
	International placements/Academic exchange								
	Attending/Presenting at international conferences								
	Seminars/Workshops								
	Online short courses/Webinars								
	Peer reviewed research								

submissions/ Publications								
Reading professional literature								
Participation in a PD network								
Critical reflective practice								
Peer observation								
Mentoring/being mentored								
Collegial discussion								
International collaboration								

13. Please outline your critical evaluation and suggested improvements for each of the PD programs/activities you were involved in:

Degree Programs	
Study Abroad Programs/Overseas Academic Development Leave	
International placements/ exchange                      Academic	
Attending/Presenting at international conferences	
Seminars/ Workshops	
Online short courses/ Webinars	



Peer reviewed research submissions/ Publications	
Reading professional literature	
Participation in a PD network	
Critical reflective practice	
Peer observation	
Mentoring/being mentored	
Collegial discussion	
International collaboration	

14. Based on your PD experiences so far, please assess the current PD provision.

PD Criticisms	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
Available professional developments are relevant				
Available professional developments are contextualized				
Available professional developments are need-based				
Available professional developments are up to date				
Available professional developments positively impact my classroom				
Available professional developments help build cultural awareness				
One-off professional trainings are effective				
Short-term professional developments conferences/seminars/workshops are				
Online professional trainings are interactive				

The contents of online professional developments are superficial				
------------------------------------------------------------------	--	--	--	--

15. Write about other critical evaluations of your PD here.

--

16. What improvements would you like to offer in order to bring about a paradigm shift in the contemporary PD landscape?

PD improvement suggestions	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
Current professional developments should be made more relevant				
Current professional developments should take account of contexts				
Current professional developments should consider day-to-day work				
Current professional developments should aim at disbursing most recent developments in the academia				
Current professional developments provisions should be guided by research				
Professional development schemes should focus on enhancing intercultural awareness				
Short-term professional developments conferences/seminars/workshops are				
Online professional trainings should be more like a two-way conversation				
Virtual professional development platforms should aim at discussing pros				

17. What other PD improvement suggestions would you like to offer?

--

18. For the professional development in which you participated during the last five years, did you receive any of the following personal rewards? *Please mark one choice.*

PD Reward Structure	Yes	No
Release from teaching duties for activities during regular working hours		

Non-monetary support for activities outside working hours (e.g., reduced teaching time, days off, study leave)		
Non-monetary rewards (e.g., classroom resources/ materials, book vouchers, software/apps)		
Non-monetary professional benefits (e.g., fulfilling professional development requirements, improving my promotion opportunities)		
Monetary supplements for activities outside working hours		
Reimbursement or payment of costs		
Increased salary		
University recognized award		

19. Please outline other PD reward structures here.

20. How strongly do you agree or disagree that the following present barriers to your participation in professional development? *Please mark one choice in each row.*

PD Challenges	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Professional development is too expensive				
There is a lack of employer support				
Professional development conflicts with my work schedule				
There are no incentives for participating in professional development				
I lack the prerequisites (qualifications, experience, and seniority)				
I do not have time because of my extra-teaching for money in other universities				
I do not have time because of family responsibilities				
There is no relevant professional development offered				

21. What are some of the other PD challenges you have experienced that might have hindered your professional development? Please outline other institutional and personal challenges here.

22. Thinking of the professional development provisions meeting your needs, how did you grow as a successful TESOL professional? *Please mark one choice from each row*

PD for academics' growth	Yes	No
University organized enough PD training for my academic needs		
There was formal provision for co-teaching/mentoring in my university		
Colleagues helped me on the job		
Independent use online resources		
Critical reflective practice /teaching journals		
Attended online courses/webinars		
Degree programs/study abroad experience/academic development leave		
Doing research/publication		
Collaboration with associates in the same field		
Collaboration with international experts		
Reading professional literature		

### Section C: TESOL Academics' Intercultural Practices

“Intercultural competence (IC) is defined as the attitudes, knowledge, understanding, and skills, which enable people to communicate effectively and appropriately in cross-cultural sections with people from other language and cultural backgrounds”.

The following section includes questions about university policies and practices concerned with diversity, with an emphasis on cultural diversity. ‘Diversity’ refers to the recognition of and appreciation for differences in the backgrounds of students and staff. In the case of cultural diversity, it refers most notably to cultural and ethnic backgrounds.

23. Have you ever taught a classroom with students from different cultures?

- a) Yes
- b) No

24. In teaching a culturally diverse class, to what extent can you do the following?

*Please mark one choice in each row. TESOL academics' intercultural practices.*

Teachers' Intercultural practices	Not at all (0%)	To some extent (01-38%)	Quite a bit (39-59%)	To a great extent (60-80%)
Skills to adapt my teaching for cultural diversity				
Combine international and domestic students with or without) migrant background can work together				
Raise awareness for cultural similarities				
Raise awareness for cultural differences				
Provide learning opportunities to reduce ethnic stereotyping				
Train students to be open, flexible and mutually respectful				
Collaborate with colleagues				

25. Please outline your other intercultural practices here.

26. In your university, are the following intercultural practices implemented?

*Intercultural practice within your university.  
Please mark one choice in Yes/No/Somewhat*

University's Intercultural practices	Yes	No	Somewhat
Supporting activities or groups that encourage students' expression of diverse ethnic and cultural identities (e.g., art/music/games/display)			
Organizing multicultural events (e.g., cultural diversity day)			
Teaching students how to deal with ethnic and cultural discrimination			
Adopting teaching and learning practices that integrate global issues in the broader curriculum			

27. What are some of the other intercultural activities implemented within your university?

**This is the end of the questionnaire.**

**Thank you very much for your participation!**

**Dear respondents,**

This survey will be followed by an oral narrative inquiry guided by (seven broad themes- provisions, needs, institutional support, growth trajectory, intercultural practices, challenges, and improvement suggestions). You can record your narration at your convenient time, which should take approximately (25-30) minutes. After that you can upload the audio clip (preferably MP3) through a particular link sent and created by this researcher. A high level of confidentiality is promised by the researcher and also a de-identification will be immediately done after the data collection. If you agree to be the participant of narrative inquiry for this study, please put a tick mark (√) on the small box below and provide your email address in the adjacent textbox. On receiving your email address, the researcher will send a link to upload the audio file you create.

<input type="checkbox"/>	
--------------------------	--

**Thanks very much indeed for your consent and cooperation.**

## Appendix C: Academics' narratives guidelines

### Narratives: (Approximately 30 minutes)

#### Opening statement

Please audio record your narrative at a time convenient to you guided by the following themes and questions, which should take approximately 30 minutes. After that, please send through the recording to the principal investigator at [REDACTED] as an email attachment.

Please feel free to ask any question or clarification that you may need to answer the following questions. At a later time, the transcript of your oral narratives will be emailed to you for your confirmation that everything is correct and make the necessary modifications. Your personal TESOL matters a lot, so feel free to share your ideas pertaining to the given questions. Where relevant, please provide evidence to support your data.

#### Guiding questions

##### PD perceptions

1. What is your perspective about TESOL teachers' professional development (PD)? Explain your answer with example.

##### PD needs

2. How does your university assess your PD needs? (Is there any system in place to keep records of academics' needs? How often you can inform your university? When do they implement them, e.g., monthly, quarterly, half yearly or yearly?)

Does your university incorporate your voices or other teachers' opinions into planning PD activities and include them in any decision-making processes? What is the procedure? Can all of them be in the meeting where decisions are made or teachers' representatives only?

##### PD provisions

3. What are the existing provisions of PD for TESOL academics? Provide some examples in regard to the PD numbers, types (online/face-to face), and affiliation with external organisation (if there is any)?

Are they mandatory? Are they sufficient for teachers' needs/ your needs?

##### PD for academic growth

4. How do TESOL teachers' grow into professionals? How do you develop yourself as a successful TESOL practitioner? What are the mechanisms and resources you use to emerge as a meaningful TESOL professional? Explain with examples of specific PD and means you found effective and used for your professional advancement.

#### Your perspectives about your university's PD activities and programmes

5. What are your perceptions about PD activities in this university? Are you motivated to participate in all PD programs offered by this university? Why or why not?

**Institutional support**

6. What kinds of institutional support are available for facilitating TESOL academics PD? Provide some examples. How does your institution support your health and well-being in PD during current COVID crisis? What hybrid forms of PD are available to you to combat COVID virtual and non-virtual workplace challenges?

**Reward structure**

7. What sort of incentives do you receive for academics' professional development? Provide some examples. Is there any systematic reward structure for teachers' PD in this university?

**PD challenges**

8. What are the challenges (both institutional and personal) you face in terms of your PD? How do you overcome them? What factors promote your PD in this university? In both cases, how do you help yourself if need arises?

**Collaboration for PD**

9. Does your university have a collaborative culture? Do you perceive any collaboration on teachers' level for their professional development? Do you collaborate with other university experts and/or international experts? What kind of role does this university play in promoting collaboration between/among teachers?

**Intercultural practices**

10. What is your opinion about TESOL academics' intercultural practices in this university? How do you include interculturality in your classrooms? Explain with relevant examples.

How does this university contribute to advancing TESOL academics' intercultural awareness and subsequent classroom practices?

**Critical evaluations**

11. How do you assess the overall PD landscape in this university? What is your evaluation of the current PD picture in your university?

**Suggestions for Improvements**

12. How can TESOL academics' professional development be promoted in this university? List them categorically.

**Thank you very much for your participation.**



## **Appendix D: Semi-structured interview question prompts for administrative staff**

**Semi-structured interview: (Approximately 30 minutes)**

### **Opening statement**

This interview aims to gain administrators' insight into the TESOL academics' PD needs, university provisions, PD for academic growth, intercultural paradigms, critical evaluations, and proposed improvements. Please feel free to ask any question or clarification that you may need to answer the following questions. The interview session will be audio recorded and transcribed later to write accurately and precisely your answers. At a later time, it will be emailed to you to acknowledge that everything is correct and not even slightly modified. Your opinion matters a lot, so please feel free to share your ideas pertaining to the given questions. Where relevant, please provide evidence to support your data.

### **Guiding questions**

#### **Administrators' PD perceptions**

1. What is your perspective about TESOL teachers' professional development (PD)?

#### **PD needs**

2. How do you know teachers' needs of PD? Do you incorporate their voices in planning PD activities and include them in the decision-making processes?

#### **PD provisions**

3. What are the existing provisions of PD for TESOL academics? Are they mandatory? Are they sufficient for teachers' needs?

#### **PD for academic growth**

4. How do TESOL teachers' grow into professional practitioners? How do you develop your TESOL teachers?

#### **Administrators' perspectives on academics' PD approach**

5. What are teachers' perceptions about PD activities in this university? Are they motivated to participate in all PD programmes offered by this university? Why or why not?

**Institutional support**

6. What kinds of institutional support are available for facilitating TESOL academics PD?

**Reward structure**

7. What sort of incentives do you provide for academics' professional development? Is there any systematic reward structure for teachers' PD in this university?

**PD challenges**

8. What are the challenges teachers face in terms of their PD? How do they overcome them? What factors promote their PD in this university? In both cases, how do you help them if need arises?

**Collaboration for PD**

9. Does your university have a collaborative culture? Do you perceive any collaboration on teachers' level for their professional development? What kind of role does this university play in promoting collaboration between/among teachers?

**Intercultural practices**

10. What is your opinion about TESOL academics' intercultural practices in this university? How do they include interculturality in your classrooms? Explain with relevant examples.

How does this university contribute to advancing TESOL academics' intercultural awareness and subsequent classroom practices?

**Critical evaluations**

11. How do you assess overall PD landscape in this university? What is your evaluation of current PD picture in your university?

**Suggestions for Improvements**

12. How can TESOL academics' professional development be promoted in this university?

**Thank you very much for your participation.**

## Appendix E: Participants' information sheet for academics' questionnaire

### Participant Information Sheet

UniSQ HREC Approval Number: H21REA091



University of  
Southern  
Queensland

#### Project Title

Internationalisation and professional development of TESOL academics: Towards an intercultural model.

#### Research team contact details

##### Principal Investigator Details

Mst Momena Khatun

Email: [REDACTED]

Mobile [REDACTED]

##### Principal Supervisor's Details

Associate Professor Jonathan Green

Email: [REDACTED]

#### Description

This project is being undertaken as part of Doctor of Philosophy through the University of Southern Queensland. This study aims to compare the current status of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) university teachers' professional development (TPD) in Australia and Bangladesh. As TPD in TESOL academia is English by proposing an intercultural PD model in light of internalisation of TESOL. The study employs content analysis, an electronic survey questionnaire (adapted from TALIS, 2018), semi-structured interviews and narrative countries. The empirical epistemology of the research involves intercultural theory, sociocultural theory and a reflective PD model. Data analysis will be performed using SPSS 20 and Microsoft Excel to produce descriptive

#### Participation

Your participation will involve completion of an online questionnaire that will take approximately (25 - 30) minutes of your time. Questions will include: multiple choice questions, yes- no and tick mark (✓). Your participation in this project is entirely voluntary. If you do not wish to take part, you are not obliged to. If you decide to take part and later change your mind, you are free to withdraw from the project at any stage. Your decision whether you take part, do not take part, or take part and then withdraw, will in no way impact your current or future relationship with the University of Southern Queensland. Please keep a copy of this sheet for your personal information.

#### Expected benefits

It is expected that this project may directly and indirectly benefit you by bringing a paradigm shift in the professional development landscape and intercultural practices available to TESOL professionals. On request, a copy of the proposed thesis has the potential for bringing a paradigm shift in TESOL Academics' intercultural practices and professional development landscape for the benefit of TESOL practitioners in the university sector

**Risks**

Short- term inconvenience risks are minimal in terms of the time taken to complete the survey, or to participate in an interview, or to write a narrative about the Professional Development experiences as a TESOL academic. By participating in this project, participants may encounter minimal risks such as the time that they are giving to take part in the data collection procedure. The participants are from the same discipline and TESOL professionals as such may have the concerns and eagerness to bring about a radical improvement in TESOL practitioners' intercultural practices and their professional study will encourage them to support the research as it has the potential to bring about a paradigm shift and overall development in the Department they belong as the researcher. On request, they will also be provided with a copy of investigator of this study will be open for future publication.

**Privacy and confidentiality**

All comments and responses are confidential unless required by law. Since, this is an anonymous questionnaire, the names of individual persons are not required in any of the responses. Any data collected as a part of this project will be stored securely, as per University of Southern Queensland's Research Data and Primary Materials Management Procedure.

**Consent to participate**

Please return the signed consent form (enclosed) and completed questionnaire survey to the USQ One Drive link sent by the Principal Investigator of this research.

**Questions**

Please refer to the principal investigator's contact details at the top of the form to have any questions answered or to request further information about this project.

**Concerns or complaints**

If you have any concerns or complaints about the ethical conduct of the project, you may contact the University of Queensland, Manager of Research Integrity and Ethics on +61746311839 or email project and can address your concern in an unbiased manner.

**Thank you for taking the time to help with this research project. Please keep this document for your information.**

## Appendix F: Participants' information sheet for academics' narratives

### Participant Information Sheet

UniSQ HREC Approval Number: H21REA091



University of  
Southern  
Queensland

#### Project Title

Internationalisation and professional development of TESOL academics: Towards an intercultural model.

#### Research team contact details

##### Principal Investigator Details

Mst Momena Khatun

Email: [REDACTED]

Mobile: [REDACTED]

##### Principal Supervisor's Details

Associate Professor Jonathan Green

Email: [REDACTED]

#### Description

This project is being undertaken as part of Doctor of Philosophy through the University of Southern Queensland. This study aims to compare the current status of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) university teachers' professional development (TPD) in Australia and Bangladesh. As TPD in TESOL academia is English by proposing an intercultural PD model in light of internalisation of TESOL. The study employs content analysis, an electronic survey questionnaire (adapted from TALIS, 2018), semi-structured interviews and narrative countries. The empiricalepistemology of the research involves intercultural theory, sociocultural theory and a reflective PD model. Data analysis will be performed using SPSS 20 and Microsoft Excel to produce descriptive

#### Participation

Your participation will involve completion of an online questionnaire that will take approximately (25 - 30) minutes of your time. Questions will include: multiple choice questions, yes- no and tick mark (✓). Your participation in this project is entirely voluntary. If you do not wish to take part, you are not obliged to. If you decide to take part and later change your mind, you are free to withdraw from the project at any stage. Your decision whether you take part, do not take part, or take part and then withdraw, will in no way impact your current or future relationship with the University of Southern Queensland. Please keep a copy of this sheet for your personal information.

#### Expected benefits

It is expected that this project may directly and indirectly benefit you by bringing a paradigm shift in the professional development landscape and intercultural practices available to TESOL professionals. On request, a copy of the proposed thesis has the potential for bringing a paradigm shift in TESOL Academics' intercultural practices and professional development landscape for the benefit of TESOL practitioners in the university sector

#### Risks

Short- term inconvenience risks are minimal in terms of the time taken to complete the survey, or to participate in an interview, or to write a narrative about the Professional Development experiences as a TESOL academic. By participating in this project, participants may encounter minimal risks such as the time that they are giving to take part in the data collection procedure. The participants are from the same discipline and TESOL professionals as such may have the concerns and eagerness to bring about a radical improvement in TESOL practitioners' intercultural practices and their professional study will encourage them to support the research as it has the potential to bring about a paradigm shift and overall development in the Department they belong as the researcher. On request, they will also be provided with a copy of investigator of this study will be open for future publication.

#### **Privacy and confidentiality**

All comments and responses are confidential unless required by law. Since, this is an anonymous questionnaire, the names of individual persons are not required in any of the responses. Any data collected as a part of this project will be stored securely, as per University of Southern Queensland's Research Data and Primary Materials Management Procedure.

#### **Consent to participate**

Please return the signed consent form (enclosed) and completed questionnaire survey to the USQ One Drive link sent by the Principal Investigator of this research.

#### **Questions**

Please refer to the principal investigator's contact details at the top of the form to have any questions answered or to request further information about this project.

#### **Concerns or complaints**

If you have any concerns or complaints about the ethical conduct of the project, you may contact the University of Queensland, Manager of Research Integrity and Ethics on +61746311839 or email project and address your concern in an unbiased manner.

**Thank you for taking the time to help with this research project. Please keep this document for your information.**



## Appendix G: Participants' information sheet for semi-structured interviews with administrators

### Participant Information Sheet

UniSQ HREC Approval Number: H21REA091



#### Project Title

Internationalisation and professional development of TESOL academics: Towards an intercultural model.

#### Research team contact details

##### Principal Investigator Details

Mst Momena Khatun

Email: [REDACTED]

Mobile [REDACTED]

##### Principal Supervisor's Details

Associate Professor Jonathan Green

Email: [REDACTED]

#### Description

This project is being undertaken as part of Doctor of Philosophy through the University of Southern Queensland. This study aims to compare the current status of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) university teachers' professional development (TPD) in Australia and Bangladesh. As TPD in TESOL academia is English by proposing an intercultural PD model in light of internationalisation of TESOL. The study employs content analysis, an electronic survey questionnaire (adapted from TALIS, 2018), semi-structured interviews and narrative countries. The empirical epistemology of the research involves intercultural theory, sociocultural theory and a reflective PD model. Data analysis will be performed using SPSS 20 and Microsoft Excel to produce descriptive

#### Participation

Your participation will involve completion of an online questionnaire that will take approximately (25 - 30) minutes of your time. Questions will include: multiple choice questions, yes/no and tick mark (✓). Your participation in this project is entirely voluntary. If you do not wish to take part, you are not obliged to. If you decide to take part and later change your mind, you are free to withdraw from the project at any stage. Your decision whether you take part, do not take part, or take part and then withdraw, will in no way impact your current or future relationship with the University of Southern Queensland. Please keep a copy of this sheet for your personal information.

#### Expected benefits

It is expected that this project may directly and indirectly benefit you by bringing a paradigm shift in the professional development landscape and intercultural practices available to TESOL professionals. On request, a copy of the proposed thesis has the potential for bringing a paradigm shift in TESOL ac

ademics' intercultural practices and professional development landscape for the benefit of TESOL practitioners in the university sector

#### **Risks**

Short- term inconvenience risks are minimal in terms of the time taken to complete the survey, or to participate in an interview, or to write a narrative about the professional development experiences as a TESOL academic. By participating in this project, participants may encounter minimal risks such as the time that they are giving to take part in the data collection procedure. The participants are from the same discipline and TESOL professionals as such may have the concerns and eagerness to bring about a radical improvement in TESOL practitioners' intercultural practices and their professional study will encourage them to support the research as it has the potential to bring about a paradigm shift and overall development in the Department they belong as the researcher. On request, they will also be provided with a copy of investigator of this study will be open for future publication.

#### **Privacy and confidentiality**

All comments and responses are confidential unless required by law. Since, this is an anonymous questionnaire, the names of individual persons are not required in any of the responses. Any data collected as a part of this project will be stored securely, as per University of Southern Queensland's Research Data and Primary Materials Management Procedure.

#### **Consent to participate**

Please return the signed consent form (enclosed) and completed questionnaire survey to the USQ One Drive link sent by the Principal Investigator of this research.

#### **Questions**

Please refer to the principal investigator's contact details at the top of the form to have any questions answered or to request further information about this project.

#### **Concerns or complaints**

If you have any concerns or complaints about the ethical conduct of the project, you may contact the University of Queensland, Manager of Research Integrity and Ethics on +61746311839 or email and can address your concern in an unbiased manner.

**Thank you for taking the time to help with this research project. Please keep this document for your information.**



## Appendix H: Consent form for narratives' participants

### Consent Form (Narratives)

UniSQ HREC Approval Number: H21REA091



**Project Title**

Internationalisation and Professional Development of TESOL Academics: Towards an Intercultural Model.

**Research team contact details**

**Principal Investigator Details**

Mst Momena Khatun

Email: [REDACTED]

Mobile: [REDACTED]

**Principal Supervisor's Details**

Associate Professor Jonathan Green

Email: [REDACTED]

**Statement of consent**

By signing below, you are indicating that you:

- Have read and understood the information document regarding this project.  Yes /  No
- Have had any questions answered to your satisfaction.  Yes /  No
- Understand that if you have any additional questions, you can contact the research team.  Yes /  No
- Are over 18 years of age.  Yes /  No
- Understand that any data collected may be used in future research activities.  Yes /  No
- Understand that the interview will be audio / video recorded.  Yes /  No
- Agree to participate in the project.  Yes /  No

<b>Name (first &amp; last)</b>	A		
<b>Signature</b>		<b>Date</b>	

Please return this document to a research team member before undertaking the interview.

## Appendix I: Consent form for semi-structured interview participants

### Consent Form (Interviews)

UniSQ HREC Approval Number: H21REA091



University of  
Southern  
Queensland

#### Project Title

Internationalisation and Professional Development of TESOL Academics: Towards an Intercultural Model.

#### Research team contact details

##### Principal Investigator Details

Mst Momena Khatun

Email: [REDACTED]

Mobile: [REDACTED]

##### Principal Supervisor's Details

Associate Professor Jonathan Green

Email: [REDACTED]

#### Statement of consent

By signing below, you are indicating that you:

- Have read and understood the information document regarding this project.  Yes /  No
- Have had any questions answered to your satisfaction.  Yes /  No
- Understand that if you have any additional questions, you can contact the research team.  Yes /  No
- Are over 18 years of age.  Yes /  No
- Understand that any data collected may be used in future research activities.  Yes /  No
- Understand that the interview will be audio / video recorded.  Yes /  No
- Agree to participate in the project.  Yes /  No

<b>Name (first &amp; last)</b>	A		
<b>Signature</b>		<b>Date</b>	

Please return this document to a research team member before undertaking the interview.

## Appendix J: Letter of invitation

The Chairperson  
[ Name of the University]  
[ Address of the University]

Dear Sir/Madam,

First of all, allow me to introduce myself as Mst. Momena Khatun, Id# [REDACTED], a Ph.D. candidate at the University of Southern Queensland. My research title is *Internationalisation and TESOL academics' professional development: Towards an intercultural model*. With the support of my supervisory team, Associate Professor Jonathan Green and Dr. Graham Wise (Director, USQ International), I am requesting permission to contact TESOL educators associated with the department to participate in a survey of TESOL academics. TESOL academics will be the participants for both the survey and narrative inquiry and the administrators of professional development for those academics will be the participants in semi-structured interviews. The proposed benefit of this research to the participants is the development of a knowledgebase that may improve the effectiveness of professional development programs for TESOL professionals.

In my study, I am employing three data collection tools including a questionnaire survey, narrative inquiry, and semi-structured interviews. While collecting, managing, storing, and analyzing data, this research will adhere to Australian Federal legislation ([National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research, 2007 \(updated 2018\)](#) and [Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research \(2018\)](#)). This work has USQ Human Research Ethics Committee Approval. Please see the attachment for approved participant information sheets and consent forms.

Thank you very much for your support.

Yours sincerely,

Mst.Momena Khatun  
Doctoral Candidate  
University of Southern Queensland (USQ)  
Email: [REDACTED]  
Cell: [REDACTED]

**Appendix K: Code sample extracted from NVivo**

PD critical evaluations		0	0
Insufficient PD	Current PD provisions are inadequate for the development of TESOL academics' professional characters.	5	6
Irregular, unstructured, informal, and outdated	Existing PD status is generally irregular, unsystematic, informal and not current.	5	11
Lack of financial support	TESOL academics' have limited access to financial support for their professional upskilling.	5	17
Limited interculturality	Conventional PD provisions fail to prepare TESOL academics for intercultural paradigms, hence TESOL academics expressed dissatisfactions about limited interculturality.	7	11
Not discipline-specific	Current PD opportunities are generic in nature and not discipline-specific.	7	18
Not mandatory	Conventional PD provisions for TESOL academics may not be mandatory.	9	10
Not needs-based and top-down PD	PD provisions are mostly top-down and not based on TESOL academics' needs.	6	9
Self-initiated PD	Current PD status is largely self-initiated.	6	9
Unsatisfactory	Contemporary PD landscape is unsatisfactory.	3	3