REPUBLIC OF TÜRKİYE

ÇANAKKALE ONSEKİZ MART UNIVERSITY

SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING PROGRAMME

DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION OF AN ONLINE

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM CONCERNING

TEACHER BEHAVIOURS INFLUENCING STUDENT

ENGAGEMENT IN EFL COURSES

DOCTORAL DISSERTATION

GÖKHAN HINIZ

Supervisor

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We hereby certify that the study entitled **"Design and Implementation of an Online Professional Development Program Concerning Teacher Behaviours Influencing Student Engagement in EFL Courses"** prepared by Gökhan HINIZ under the supervision of Prof. Dr. Aysun YAVUZ and presented in front of the following doctoral committee on August 26 2022, was **unanimously** accepted as a thesis for the degree of **DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY** in **English Language Teaching Program of Department of Foreign Language Education** in Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, School of Graduate Studies.

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Thesis Reference No   : 10486456
Date   : 26/08/2022

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School of Graduate Studies

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DECLARATION OF ETHICS

I hereby undertake and declare that in this doctoral dissertation, which I prepared in accordance with the rules of dissertation writing of the School of Graduate Studies of Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, I have obtained the data, information and documents presented in the dissertation within the framework of academic and ethical rules, I have presented all the information, documents, evaluations and results in accordance with the code of scientific ethics and ethics, all sources which I have benefited during the dissertation have been fully cited in the references, I have not made any changes to the data used that the study I have presented in this dissertation is original, which I have accepted all losses of rights that may arise against me otherwise.

ETİK BEYAN

Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi Lisansüstü Eğitim Enstitüsü Tez Yazım Kuralları'na uygun olarak hazırladığım bu tez çalışmasında; tez içinde sunduğum verileri, bilgileri ve dokümanları akademik ve etik kurallar çerçevesinde elde ettiğimi, tüm bilgi, belge, değerlendirme ve sonuçları bilimsel etik ve ahlak kurallarına uygun olarak sunduğumu, tez çalışmasında yararlandığım eserlerin tümüne uygun atıfta bulunarak kaynak gösterdiğimi, kullanılan verilerde herhangi bir değişiklik yapmadığımı, bu tezde sunduğum çalışmanın özgün olduğunu bildirir, aksi bir durumda aleyhime doğabilecek tüm hak kayıplarını kabullendiğimi taahhüt ve beyan ederim.

Gökhan HINIZ

26.08.2022

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

ABSTRACT

DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION OF AN ONLINE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM CONCERNING TEACHER BEHAVIOURS INFLUENCING STUDENT ENGAGEMENT IN EFL COURSES

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Student engagement is one of the determinants of academic success, better learning outcomes and psychological well-being. Although its significance is widely accepted, the theoretical foundations of the construct have not been well established in foreign language teaching and learning. While this multidimensional construct interacts with several variables that impact student psychology and learning, teachers' behaviours and preferences during learning events can be more influential than many factors that promote or inhibit student engagement. However, there is inadequate research on foreign language teachers' perception of student engagement and how teacher professional development on student engagement impacts their perceptions. The purpose of this study was to explore a group of foreign language instructors' perceptions, beliefs, experiences and implementations regarding student engagement through the design and implementation of an asynchronous online professional development (OPD) program. The study further aimed to investigate the impact of the OPD program on participant instructors' professional development and participants' perceptions of the design features of the program.

Guided by the constructive research paradigm, this study utilised an instrumental case study design adopting fully qualitative research values and commitments. Participants

of the study were ten female instructors of English working at a state university in Türkiye. Data for the study was gathered before, during and after their participation in the OPD program through synchronous online interviews, asynchronous written focus group discussions and reflective reports. Research data were analysed using a reflexive thematic analysis approach.

Results of the study indicated that most participants' involvement in professional development (PD) and reflective practice was unsystematic, temporal and limited in scope, and they had some misperceptions about their perceived professional strengths and needs due to the lack of involvement in reflective practice. Findings from the study illuminated the topics, activities, and strategies participant instructors used to promote student engagement and their coping strategies for dealing with student disengagement. Their accounts indicated that they gained new perspectives about professional development and student engagement after the OPD program, which created a positive impact on their perceived teacher identities. The study also revealed that engagement-based instruction and positive changes in participants' identities promoted their teacher agency. Findings from the study have implications for teacher education, teacher PD, foreign language education and teacher OPD program design.

Keywords: Student Engagement, ELT, Teacher, Identity, Agency, Online Professional Development, Reflexive Thematic Analysis

ÖZET

YABANCI DİL OLARAK İNGİLİZCE DERSLERİNDE ANLAMLI ÖĞRENCİ KATILIMINI ETKİLEYEN ÖĞRETMEN DAVRANIŞLARINA YÖNELİK BİR ÇEVRİMİÇİ MESLEKİ GELİŞİM PROGRAMININ TASARLANMASI VE UYGULANMASI

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Öğrencilerin öğrenme faaliyetlerine ve süreçlerine aktif ve anlamlı katılımı (student engagement), akademik başarının, daha iyi öğrenme çıktılarının ve psikolojik iyi oluşun belirleyici faktörlerinden biridir. Konunun önemi yaygın olarak kabul edilmiş olmasına karşın yabancı dil öğreniminde anlamlı ve aktif öğrenci katılımının teorik alt yapısı alanyazında tam olarak oluşturulmamıştır. Bu çok çok boyutlu yapı, öğrenci psikolojisini ve öğrenmesini etkileyen çeşitli değişkenlerle etkileşime girmektedir; ancak öğretmenlerin öğrenme etkinlikleri sırasındaki davranışları ve tercihleri, öğrenci katılımını teşvik edebilecek veya olumsuz etkileyebilecek önemli faktörlerden biridir. Buna karşın, yabancı dil öğretmenlerinin öğrencilerin aktif ve anlamlı katılımlarına ilişkin algıları ve öğretmen mesleki gelişiminin bu algıyı nasıl etkilediği konusunda yeterli araştırma bulunmamaktadır. Bu çalışmanın amacı, eşzamansız (asenkron) bir çevrimiçi mesleki gelişim programının tasarımı ve uygulanması yoluyla bir grup yabancı dil öğretmeninin öğrenci katılımına ilişkin algılarını, inançlarını, deneyimlerini ve uygulamalarını keşfetmektir. Çalışma ayrıca bu çevrimiçi mesleki gelişim programının katılımcıların mesleki gelişimi üzerindeki etkisini ve katılımcıların programın tasarım özelliklerine ilişkin algılarını araştırmayı amaçlamıştır.

Varsayımlarını yapılandırıcı (oluşturmacı) araştırma paradigmasına dayandıran bu araştırmada, tamamen nitel araştırma değerlerini ve yaklaşımlarını benimseyen bir araçsal durum çalışması deseni kullanılmıştır. Araştırmanın katılımcıları Türkiye'nin batısındaki bir devlet üniversitesinde yabancı dil olarak İngilizce eğitimi veren on kadın öğretim görevlisidir. Çalışmaya ilişkin veriler katılımcıların ilgili çevrimiçi mesleki gelişim programına katılımlarının öncesinde, sırasında ve sonrasında eşzamanlı çevrimiçi görüşmeler, eşzamansız yazılı odak grup tartışmaları ve yansıtıcı raporlar yoluyla toplanmıştır. Çalışmadan elde edilen veriler, düşünümsel (refleksif) tematik analiz yaklaşımı kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir.

Çalışmanın sonuçları, katılımcıların çoğunun mesleki gelişim etkinliklerine ve yansıtıcı uygulamalara katılımının kapsam açısından yetersiz, sistemsiz ve geçici etkinliklerle sınırlı olduğunu ve yansıtıcı öğretim uygulamalarına katılımları sınırlı olduğu için algılanan profesyonel güçlü yönleri ve ihtiyaçları hakkında bazı yanlış algılara sahip olduklarını göstermiştir. Çalışmadan elde edilen bulgular, katılımcıların aktif ve anlamlı öğrenci katılımını teşvik etmek için kullandıkları ders içerikleri, etkinlikler, stratejiler ve öğrencilerin ilgisizliğiyle başa çıkma stratejileri konularında önemli ve yeni bulgular ortaya koymuştur.

Katılımcıların veri kaynaklarında sundukları ifadelerin analizi çevrimiçi mesleki gelişim programına katıldıktan sonra, mesleki gelişim ve öğrenci katılımı konularında yeni bakış açıları kazandıklarını ortaya koymaktadır. Çalışmanın sonuçları ayrıca, katılım temelli öğretimin ve öğretmenlerin kimliğindeki olumlu değişikliklerin öğretmen özneliğini (agency) desteklediğini ortaya koymaktadır. Çalışmadan elde edilen bulgular öğretmen eğitimi, öğretmen mesleki gelişimi, yabancı dil eğitimi ve çevrimiçi öğrenme alanlarına ilişkin teorik ve pratik çıkarımlar sunmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Aktif ve anlamlı öğrenci katılımı, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi, Öğretmen, Kimlik, Öznelik, Çevrimiçi Mesleki Gelişim, Düşünümsel Tematik Analiz

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ABBREVIATIONS

ARPIM   Actions, Responses, Prompts, Instructional Methodology, Motivation Style

AFGD   Asynchronous Focus Group Discussion

CEFR   Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

CLT   Communicative Language Teaching

CELTA   Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults

EFL   English as a Foreign Language

ELT   English Language Teaching

ELL   English Language and Literature

EPP   English Preparatory Program

ESL   English as a Second Language

GEPP   General English Prep Program

ICAP   Interactive, Constructive, Active, Passive

L1   First Language

L2   Second Language

MoNE   Ministry of Education

OPD   Online Professional Development

PD   Professional Development

RTA   Reflective Thematic Analysis

SDT   Self-Determination Theory

SETT   Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk

SoFL   School of Foreign Languages

SLA   Second Language Acquisition

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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

The first chapter introduces the research problem, the purposes of the study, the research questions, the significance of the study, the definition of key terms, philosophical assumptions, theoretical framework, researcher positioning, limitations and delimitations.

1.1. Introduction

Engagement, the "holy grail" of learning (Sinatra et al., 2015, p. 1), is one of the profound and ongoing challenges for teachers (Akbari, 2016; Barkley, 2010; Ng et al., 2018). It is getting more difficult to engage learners in 21st-century classrooms due to the fast-changing characteristics, needs, expectations, and interests of the new generation. Young people are under the influence of emerging technologies, trends and developments such as the internet, social media, content platforms and other virtual environments. This condition requires a parallel change in teachers' education, roles and professional development (PD). However, teachers' perceptions, beliefs, experiences and implementations regarding student engagement are underexamined in foreign language pedagogy and second language acquisition (SLA) research.

Student engagement is a significant determinant of academic success (Appleton et al., 2008; Kuh et al., 2008; Marks, 2000; Robinson & Hullinger, 2008; Shernoff & Schmidt, 2008; Svanum & Bigatti, 2009), persistence (Lambert et al., 2017; Skinner et al., 2009) and psychological well-being (Huo, 2022; Lewis et al., 2011; Van Ryzin et al., 2009). It shapes students' psychological and social learning experiences (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). It is a complex and multifaceted meta-construct defined and theorised differently across various domains (Fredricks et al., 2004; Zhang & McNamara, 2018). Though the literature offers a large body of research that defines various indicators, antecedents and determinants of student engagement across different domains, the theoretical foundation of the construct has not yet been clarified in foreign language education.

While student engagement is linked to better learning outcomes, achievement and well-being, student disengagement has adverse consequences for learning and academic success (Nystrand & Gamoran, 1991). There are several causes of disengagement, such as school characteristics (Finn & Voelkl, 1993), lack of decision-making opportunities for students (Ng, 2018), low self-efficacy (Tomás et al., 2019), anxiety (Macheski et al., 2008; Noe et al., 2010; Skinner et al., 2008), lack of meaningfulness of classroom practices and tasks (May et al., 2004; Svalberg, 2018), and conflicts in student-teacher relationships (Yang & Lamb, 2014). Disengagement may result in school failure, dropout, and severe behavioural problems (Henry et al., 2011; Wang & Fredricks, 2014). Disengaged students are unwilling to participate in classroom activities and may even behave negatively when teachers attempt to pull them into the learning activities (Barkley, 2010). It is an overwhelming experience for educators and students. Nevertheless, it is malleable, and several interventions have been proven to be effective in enhancing student engagement (Mercer & Dörnyei, 2020; Pino-James et al., 2019; Reeve, 2012).

Student engagement research has gained more attention in the last two decades due to increased dropout rates (Can et al., 2017; Gupta et al., 2018; Kemper et al., 2020), high level of student boredom, and alienation (Fredricks et al., 2004), and disconnection with schooling (Mercer, 2019). There is a worldwide interest in measuring and monitoring student engagement through surveys and scales. National surveys such as The National Survey of Student Engagement in the USA and Canada (Kuh, 2009), The Australasian University Survey of Student Engagement in Australia and New Zealand (Coates, 2010), China College Student Survey in China (Jinghuan et al., 2014) and UK Engagement Survey in the UK (Kandiko Howson & Buckley, 2017) are used to inform teachers, students, policymakers, employees, and researchers to make education more effective, efficient and engaging.

Today the significance of engagement is no longer questioned. Researchers, educators, administrators and other stakeholders from different education domains have been seeking ways to promote engagement and treat disengagement. Despite being one of the critical factors for successful language learning, research on student engagement in contemporary foreign language courses "remains relatively sparse" (Mercer, 2019, p. 648). For decades, SLA and English language teaching (ELT) research on learner psychology has

mainly focused on motivation and related concepts such as metacognition, self-regulation, self-concept and learner beliefs (Mercer & Dörnyei, 2020). However, generating and maintaining motivation may not be adequate to accomplish desired L2 (second language) learning experience (Dörnyei, 2019). Student engagement is a multidimensional construct that subsumes motivation (Reschly & Christenson, 2012). The concept of engagement has much to offer foreign language teaching to overcome the inefficiency of motivation to explain the L2 learning experience (Dörnyei, 2019; Mercer & Dörnyei, 2020).

While active engagement is vital for every course, irrespective of the grade, level, and field of the lesson, it is even more significant in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context because meaningful communication experiences are usually limited to classroom interactions and the automatisation of L2 language skills can only be achieved through extensive involvement with the target language (Dörnyei, 2019). Despite the significance of engagement in promoting better learning outcomes and achievement, the role and effectiveness of student engagement in foreign language learning; perceptions of students and teachers concerning student engagement; and ways to promote it have not taken adequate attention in the field of foreign language education (Mercer, 2019; Mercer & Dörnyei, 2020; Svalberg, 2018). The current literature has found links between engagement and the number of words produced during task performance (Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000), metalinguistic competence (Storch, 2008), effort to fulfil a task (Samuda & Bygate) and noticing of language forms (Baralt et al., 2016). However, further research is needed to explore the theoretical and practical foundations of student engagement in foreign language teaching.

1.2. Research Problem

Since engagement is a facilitator and predictor of academic achievement, better learning outcomes and psychological well-being, discovering the implementations and interventions that enhance student engagement contribute to literature significantly. One of the most effective interventions that could stimulate students' engagement is teacher PD (Fredricks, 2014; Fredricks et al., 2019; Reeve et al., 2019). Teachers can minimise adverse

outcomes such as dropout, failure, and disengagement (Barkley, 2010; Pianta et al., 2008) by supporting students' engagement, agency and critical consciousness (McKay & Dunn, 2020). Teachers' actions, behaviours and instructional methodology are significant determinants of classroom interactions, active participation and involvement (Hamre et al., 2013; Pianta et al., 2012).

While factors influence student engagement, such as individual characteristics (Finn & Zimmer, 2012), school characteristics (Fredricks et al., 2004) and the socioeconomic status of learners (Finn, 1989), teachers play a pivotal role in engaging students (Fredricks, 2014; Kuh et al., 2006). They can minimise and even overcome the influences of variables such as the academic domain, student age, socioeconomic status, and cultural background (Marks, 2000). Engagement-based instruction may benefit learners in many ways, such as more in-depth learning, higher grades and greater well-being (Shernoff, 2013). On the other hand, instructional environments which neglect students' engagement with learning are more likely to result in undesirable outcomes such as disruptive behaviour, poor academic performance, absenteeism, and negative emotions (Fredricks et al., 2004).

Teachers have a vital role as mediators and facilitators who create optimum conditions that engage all learners in meaningful and relevant learning events. Teachers can minimise and even overcome most of the sources of disengagement by creating learning environments in which deep learning can occur (Fredricks, 2014). However, there is inadequate research on foreign language teachers' beliefs and perceptions of student engagement and the strategies they use to promote it. This instrumental case study addresses the research gaps in the literature concerning EFL instructors' perceptions, beliefs, experiences and implementations regarding student engagement in foreign language classrooms through the design and implementation of an online professional development (OPD) program on student engagement. The study further investigates participants' perceptions of the OPD program's design features and contribution to their PD.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is threefold. First, the study intends to explore a group of EFL instructors' perceptions, experiences, beliefs, and implementations concerning student engagement in foreign language learning through the design and implementation of an OPD program. Second, the study proposes a conceptual framework that defines and differentiates teaching behaviours and preferences influencing student engagement in EFL courses. Another purpose of the study is to provide novel insights into designing affordable and effective teacher OPD programs for foreign language teachers. To this end, the study investigates participants' perceptions of the OPD program's design features and contribution to their current and subsequent PD.

1.4. Research Questions

The following research questions (RQs) were identified to achieve the intended purposes of the study, considering the available resources and conditions:

RQ1: What are the perceived PD needs, experiences and barriers of a group of EFL instructors participating in an asynchronous OPD program?

RQ2: What are the participants' pre-intervention perceptions of student engagement in EFL courses?

RQ3: What are the participants' perceptions of teacher behaviours influencing student engagement in EFL classrooms?

     RQ3a: What are the participants' perceptions of verbal and nonverbal teacher actions?

     RQ3b: What are the participants' perceptions of responding to student behaviours and learning?

     RQ3c: What are the participants' perceptions of using engaging pedagogical tools?

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RQ3d: What are the participants' perceptions of engagement-based instructional methodology and design?

RQ3e: What are the participants' perceptions of teacher motivation style?

RQ4: In what ways does an asynchronous OPD program on student engagement contribute to program participants' professional development?

RQ5: What are the participants' perceptions of the OPD program's design features and characteristics?

1.5. Significance of the Study

This study significantly contributes to student engagement and teacher PD research regarding theory and practice. First, this study is the first attempt to propose a conceptual framework that defines and differentiates teaching behaviours and preferences influencing student engagement in foreign language classrooms. Second, it presents novel findings regarding foreign language teachers' perceptions of student engagement; approaches, techniques, activities and contents promoting student engagement; how foreign language teachers respond to disengagement and what teaching behaviours and preferences promote student engagement in EFL classrooms. Third, it extends the theoretical and practical knowledge in OPD design, implementation and evaluation research. Finally, it makes a methodological contribution to the qualitative research community by presenting contemporary approaches to research design, data collection and analysis.

1.5.1. Theoretical Contributions

This study contributes to the literature by proposing a new conceptual framework that defines and differentiates major teacher behaviours influencing student engagement in EFL courses. Several qualities of teacher education are emphasised in EFL teacher education and PD research. However, teacher characteristics, competencies, skills and knowledge required to promote better engagement are still underexamined in SLA and foreign language education research. The conceptual framework intends to fill in the gap in the literature by

providing a proposition for teaching behaviours and preferences influencing student engagement. The framework provides a lens through which teachers and teacher educators critically and systematically evaluate teaching behaviours and preferences that could promote or inhibit student engagement. The framework can also be used to investigate teachers' perceptions, beliefs and implementations concerning student engagement across diverse domains and research settings. It has the potential to ignite further discussion on student engagement regarding the link between various teaching behaviours and student engagement.

1.5.2. Contributions to Foreign Language Teacher Education

The study investigates the participant instructors' views and perceptions of student engagement and teacher behaviours influencing it through the design, implementation and evaluation of an OPD program. It presents a rich interpretation of the situated perceptions, experiences and implementations of a group of foreign language teachers (instructors). The findings provide insights for the researchers focusing on teacher education, teacher identity, teacher agency, PD and student engagement in ELT. Understanding foreign language teachers' beliefs, perceptions, classroom implementations, and coping strategies regarding student disengagement is important for improving the quality of education, understanding teachers' PD needs, promoting student and teacher well-being and mediating educational policies and reform.

1.5.3. Contributions to OPD Program Design

The study explores foreign language teachers' perceptions of effective design features of the OPD program and how it contributes to their professional learning. Findings and implications from the study confirm and extend the current knowledge on designing effective asynchronous OPD programs for teachers. In addition, findings from this affordable and applicable OPD program action-logic model can be adapted and extended to similar contexts by teacher educators and program designers interested in professional

learning and adult education. The OPD program is designed and implemented using user-friendly and accessible internet platforms that do not require technical expertise and funding. The study presents a detailed description of the design, implementation, and evaluation of the asynchronous OPD program. Thus, anyone interested in designing similar programs can benefit from the inputs and outputs of this study.

The study also provided participant EFL instructors opportunities to hone their skills in engaging learners in EFL courses. It encouraged them to self-evaluate their teaching, become more reflective and work collaboratively with other school colleagues to promote engagement in their courses. The study presents novel collaborative online professional learning tasks such as video-narrated instructional design plans and online collaborative instructional design.

1.5.4. Contributions to English Language Teaching

The study presents novel insights into ELT research regarding EFL teachers' strategies to promote student engagement, indicators of student engagement, causes of disengagement, contents and topics students are interested in, teaching behaviours and preferences influencing student engagement and ways of responding to disengagement in online and face-to-face foreign language learning environments. Understanding these aspects of student engagement in the EFL context has implications for teachers, teacher educators, instructional designers, material developers and educational psychologists.

1.5.5. Methodological Contributions

The study contributes to the qualitative research methodology in teacher PD by using novel data collection and analysis methods in foreign language teacher identity and PD research. First, all data in this study was gathered using digital tools and platforms. The study illustrates how digital tools and platforms are used to collect data in qualitative research. Moreover, apart from the conventional qualitative data sources such as interviews and

written self-reports, the study used written asynchronous focus group discussions (AFGDs). The study shows how written AFGD data is collected and analysed in qualitative inquiry. Second, the study presents a worked example of how the reflexive thematic analysis (RTA) (Braun & Clarke, 2006, 2020a, 2021) approach is conceptualised and utilised in teacher PD research. Despite being commonly used in educational research, most studies attempting to use RTA uses post-positivist data analysis and validity methods such as intercoder reliability and codebook approaches. This research is committed to 'fully qualitative' research values within the constructive paradigm. The study illustrates how fully qualitative data collection tools and analysis methods are utilised in case-study-design teacher PD research.

1.6. Definition of Key Terms

In this study, some terms might connote differently in different domains. Furthermore, I used some words and terms different from their literal meanings. There are also brand names which may be unknown to some readers. Therefore, this section clarifies some key terms to prevent potential ambiguities and confusion.

Action-Logic Model: "A logic model is a graphic representation of a program that describes the program's essential components and expected accomplishments and conveys the logical relationship between these components and their outcomes" (Conrad et al., 1999, p. 17).

Blogger: Blogger is the free blogging service of Google, enabling users to create blog pages online.

Communities of practice: Communities of practice refer to "groups of people who share a concern, a set of problems, or a passion about a topic, and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis" (Wenger et al., 2002, p. 4).

Google Docs: An online text editor allowing users to create documents that can be used on multiple devices by multiple users synchronously.

Flipgrid: Flipgrid is a digital tool that allows users to record video presentations and short response videos.

Fully qualitative research: Fully qualitative research, also named Big Q, is an approach to qualitative research committed to fully qualitative paradigmatic assumptions, data collection tools and analysis and reporting style. Fully qualitative research does not require or desire post-positivist approaches such as intercoder reliability and quantification of qualitative data (Braun & Clarke, 2013, 2021).

Khan Academy: Khan Academy is a non-profit educational organisation that offers students free online lessons, videos, digital tools and materials.

MAXQDA: MAXQDA is a computer software application used to store, organise and analyse qualitative data.

Teacher: In this study, the terms teacher and instructor were used interchangeably since the participant instructors of the study were teaching general English courses similar to the ones in high schools rather than academic subjects or contents. The term teacher was used as the name of the teaching profession rather than a title.

Teacher Behaviour: In this study, teacher behaviours refer to the observable behaviours of teachers during learning activities, such as verbal and nonverbal stimulations, responses to learners, prompts to stimulate learners' behaviours, instructional methods, and motivational strategies they employ. The term was deliberately selected to define this study's conceptual framework as it represents all aspects of teaching practices and traits.

Mentimeter: Mentimeter is a digital tool that allows users to develop interactive presentations.

Microsoft Teams: It is a learning management system which allows users to deliver or participate in synchronous and asynchronous courses, offering videoconferencing, chatting, submitting and assigning learning materials, and several other features necessary for distance education.

1.7. Philosophical Assumptions of the Study

Creswell and Poth (2018) state that "a close tie does exist between the philosophy that one brings to the research act and how one proceeds to use a framework to shroud his or her inquiry" (p. 16). This study adopts a 'fully qualitative' research approach within the constructive research paradigm. An overview of relevant research paradigms such as positivism, post-positivism, pragmatism and related approaches will be presented in the upcoming sections to explain the rationale for selecting the constructivist research approach.

1.7.1. Research Paradigms

A research paradigm is a set of scholarly-shared beliefs, assumptions, and common practices (Kuhn, 1962). The most traditional paradigm which attempts to explain the nature of reality and knowledge is positivism. Positivists refer to researchers or philosophers who accept systematically clear, factual and observable knowledge claims (Scotland, 2012). Positivist theory is associated with the nineteenth-century French philosopher Auguste Comte (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Pring, 2015). Indeed, he was an empiricist like British scientists and philosophers Mill, Durkheim, Newton, Locke, Hume, and Bacon, who were against philosophical and religious beliefs which were not directly observable (Pring, 2015). Positivism, associated with quantitative research and empirical science (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Pring, 2015), often adopts quantitative methods and uses large samples to eliminate

individual idiosyncrasies (Scott & Morrison, 2005). Positivists also analyse data using a formulated system of statistics (Dörnyei, 2007).

Positivist educational researchers attempt to get clear and absolute findings that can be generalised to a research universe or population (Mack, 2010), but this is not always easy to achieve in educational research since contextual factors limit the methods and isolation of variables can be difficult (Taber, 2013). Another limitation of positivism is that quantitative data and inferential statistics may not always offer reliable findings, as researchers may sometimes misinterpret findings when contextual factors are ignored (Scotland, 2012). To overcome the inefficiency of the positivist paradigm, 20th-century researchers attempted to investigate social and personal behaviours from a post-positivist perspective.

Post-positivism refers to the understanding of events after positivism, and it is a reaction against the traditional understanding of the absolute truth of knowledge (Creswell, 2014). The post-positivist worldview argues that it is impossible to draw absolute conclusions about the nature of knowledge in social sciences that investigate humans' actions and behaviours (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). Post-positivists adopt a deterministic and relativistic philosophy in which the effects or outcomes of events are determined by the causes (Sousa, 2010). According to this view, knowledge is based on "careful observation and measurement of the objective reality that exists out there in the world" (Creswell, 2014, p. 7).

Post-positivist research begins with a theory, collects data that either verifies or falsifies the theory, revises it and conducts additional tests (Creswell, 2014). Post-positivism suggests that knowledge is conjectural and absolute reality can never be found (Cooper, 1997; Popper, 1981). Therefore, post-positivist researchers do not attempt to prove the truthfulness of a hypothesis as no research is perfect, and all findings can be falsified (Popper, 1981). However, that does not mean ignoring reliability and validity issues in research. Being objective is still important, and researchers must conduct research free from bias and subjective comments (Creswell, 2014). However, the post-positivist paradigm is

often criticised as it may fail to validate and generalise research findings because reality is considered subjective (Cooper, 1997).

Within the post-positivist paradigm, pragmatism gained importance and credibility in the 20th century. Pragmatism originates from the studies of American thinkers such as "natural scientist and philosopher Charles Sanders Peirce (1839-1914), the psychologist and philosopher William James (1842-1910), and the philosopher, psychologist, and educationalist John Dewey (1859-1952)" (as cited in Biesta & Burbules, 2003, p. 4). Pragmatism considers reality out of actions, situations, and consequences (Creswell, 2014). Pragmatists are more concerned with applications that work and solve the problems best; to achieve this, they use all approaches available to investigate a research problem (Creswell, 2014). Supporters of mixed methodology base their assumptions on the pragmatic paradigm and stress the importance of using multiple perspectives or pluralistic approaches that best fit the research problem under investigation (e.g., Morgan, 2007; Teddie & Tashakkori, 2009). Therefore, pragmatism is not committed to any ontological assumptions (Creswell, 2014). Researchers who adopt a pragmatic orientation to research utilise methods, techniques, and procedures that best respond to their needs and objectives (Creswell, 2014). They benefit from quantitative and/or qualitative data based on their research agenda. While quantitative analysis offers a systematic and regulated way of obtaining a macro perspective, qualitative research provides a flexible and highly context-sensitive micro view of the phenomena (Dörnyei, 2007).

While pragmatism and post-positivism created a paradigm shift which was accepted and adopted by a large group of scholars, others argued that post-positivist assumptions are based on fundamental laws and theories that do not address marginalised individuals' problems, power issues, discrimination, social justice, and oppression (Creswell, 2014). This worldview led to the emergence of a transformative paradigm. The transformative paradigm argues that scientific research and researchers can transform society by focusing on these issues (Mertens, 2010). Transformative research provided "feminists; racial and ethnic minorities; persons with disabilities; indigenous and postcolonial peoples; and members of the lesbian, gay, bisexual, transsexual, and queer communities" to give their voice on these

issues, which would create awareness, raise their consciousness, and offer an agenda to improve their lives (Creswell, 2014, p. 9).

1.7.2. Constructive Paradigm

So far, major research paradigms have been outlined to provide a philosophical and conceptual basis for the selection of the research design of this study. This study does not intend to reach an objective or absolute truth by testing a hypothesis or the measurable effects of an intervention. Rather, the focus is on how a group of EFL instructors perceive the construct of student engagement and their role in engaging students with learning before, during and after their participation in an asynchronous OPD program. Therefore, the study bases its assumptions on the interpretivist/constructivist paradigm, which is based on the philosophy of "Edmund Husserl's phenomenology and Wilhelm Dilthey's and other German philosophers' study of interpretive understanding called hermeneutics" (Eichelberger, 1989, as cited in Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006, p. 4).

Constructivism, associated with qualitative research (Sale et al., 2002), attempts to construct or co-construct reality through individuals' experiences developed by their subjective understandings (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). The purpose of constructive research is to "rely as much as possible on the participants' views of the situation being studied" using broad and general questions (Creswell, 2014, p.8). Open-ended questions are posed to participants to understand their subjective meanings formed in their life settings. Thus, researchers can construct or co-construct the meaning within a discussion or interaction with other individuals (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Individuals construct meaning not merely based on individual experiences but also "through interaction with others (hence social constructivism) and through historical and cultural norms that operate in individuals' lives" (Creswell, 2014, p.9). Researchers' backgrounds, identities, positionings and relationships with research participants shape their understanding of behaviours and interpretations. Therefore, researchers adopting constructive paradigmatic assumptions should thoroughly clarify their relationship with participants, roles and positionings. Thus, readers can make

judgments about the nature of the interpretations and construction of meaning. This study explicitly explains' the researchers' role, positioning and engagement with research data.

The present constructivist case study intends to understand and interpret the patterns of meaning or personal theories that a group of EFL instructors have developed, constructed, co-constructed and reconstructed (Creswell, 2014) regarding student engagement and PD before, during and after their participation in an OPD program.

1.8. Theoretical Framework

Like all kinds of learning, it is almost impossible to explain adult learning with a single theory and approach (Merriam et al., 2007). Similarly, the notion of student engagement is a multifaceted and complex issue. Therefore, this study used several theoretical perspectives to guide and support the conceptual framework, OPD program and data analysis. Student involvement theory (Astin, 1984), participation identification model (Finn, 1989), and person-environment perspective (Eccles et al., 1993) provided a basis for the conceptualisation of the construct of student engagement in foreign language learning. Social constructivism (Vygotsky, 1978), adult learning theory (Knowles, 2014), and the community of Inquiry (CoI) framework (Garrison et al., 1999) contributed to the design of the OPD program and the investigation of participants' perceptions and experiences of the OPD program. The ICAP (instructive, constructive, active, passive) theory of cognitive engagement (Chi & Wylie, 2014) guided the conceptualisation of cognitive engagement, engagement-based instructions, OPD program design and investigation of participants' perceptions of engagement-based instructional design. As no theory, model or framework exists concerning teaching behaviours and preferences influencing student engagement in EFL courses, this study proposes a conceptual framework that defines and differentiates major teaching behaviours and preferences influencing student engagement, named ARPIM framework (see section 2.3). The conceptual framework informed the program design, data collection and analysis. Figure 1 presents the diagram of the theories and models that guided the OPD program and research design. The following sections briefly define each theory and model.
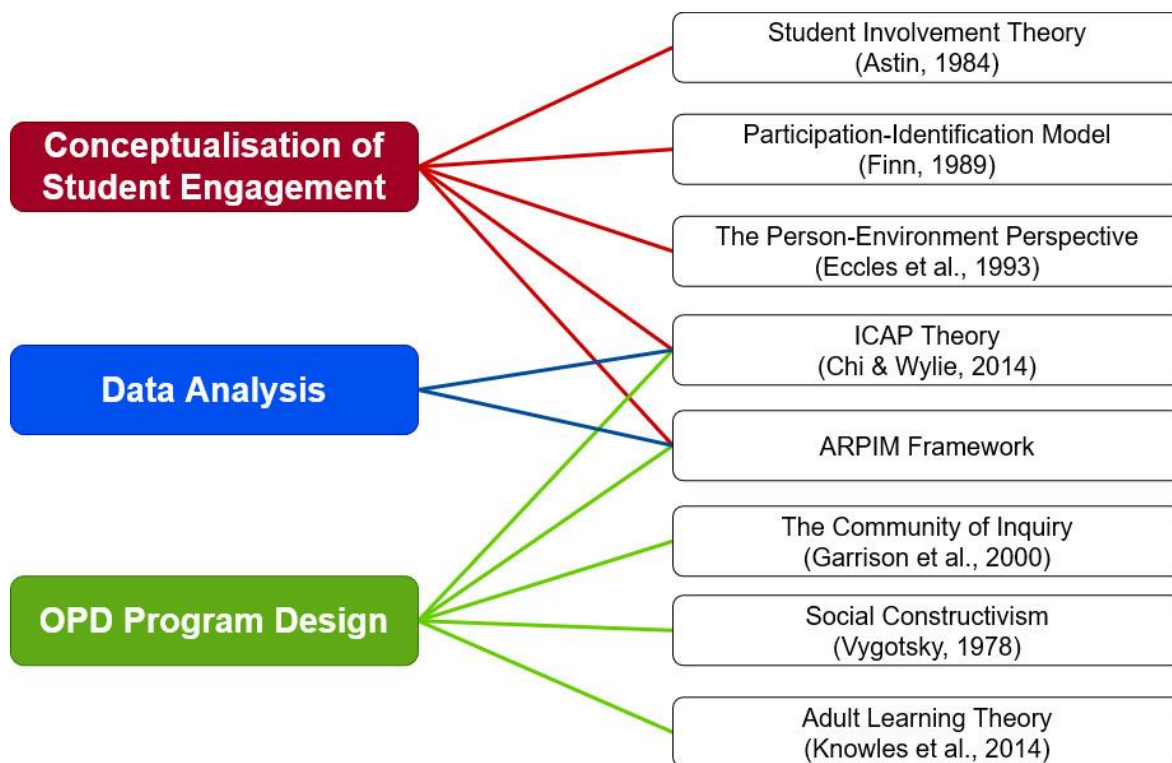
Figure 1. A diagram of the theories guided the conceptualisation of student engagement, OPD program design and data analysis

1.8.1. Student Involvement Theory

Astin (1984) was the first scholar who theorised the notion of college student involvement. He defines his theory as "student involvement theory", using the term involvement to refer to the "amount of physical and psychological energy that the student devotes to the academic experience" (Astin 1984, p. 518). While traditional pedagogical approaches and theories focused on techniques, subject matter, materials, and individualised or eclectic theories, student involvement theory focused on the students' motivation and behaviour. Astin (1984) described an active student as one who spends considerable effort on studying, is usually active in the learning process, and communicates and interacts with teachers and other students. His theory emphasises the importance of active participation and involvement during the learning process by asserting that the more students engage with

learning, the more they become successful. Astin's (1984) theory measures students' level of participation based on five basic principles as follows:

- Involvement refers to physical and psychological energy.

- Involvement occurs along a continuum.

- Involvement has both quantitative and qualitative features.

- Student learning and personal development is proportional to the quantity and quality of involvement.

- The effectiveness of any educational practice is directly related to the ability of that practice to increase student engagement. (p. 519)

1.8.2. Participation-Identification Model

Finn's (1989) participation identification model distinguishes participation (behavioural engagement) and identification (emotional engagement) aspects of student engagement. In this model, participation refers to active involvement in learning events both inside (course activities) and outside the classroom (extracurricular activities). This development model assumes that level one participation, which is the minimal participation in formal learning events in the classroom, leads to students' experience of success and a sense of belongingness to school. Thus, learners' involvement in school-related activities is enhanced. Level two participation refers to the initiation of interaction with teachers and peers. At this stage of participation, learners perform more participation than expected or required from them. Identification refers to the internal state of belongingness and valuing schooling (see figure 2).

According to the participation-identification model, the likelihood of student success is maximised when learners are involved in multiple, expanding forms of school-relevant activities. As students get older, requirements for successful participation change since learners have "greater responsibilities and opportunities to participate" in school-relevant learning events (Fredricks et al., 2019, p. 4). The failure of such participation and

identification may result in remarkably harmful consequences for learners who do not possess the required skills, attitudes and behaviours. These learners may show disengagement and alienation, experience serious academic/disciplinary problems, and have poor relationships with peers or teachers (Finn & Zimmer, 2012). The theory conceptualises dropout and completion as "ongoing processes of participation – school success - identification (completion) or nonparticipation, poor school performance - emotional withdrawal (dropout)" (Reschly & Christenson, 2012, p. 4). Drop-out and completion are defined as long-term engagement or disengagement processes with school rather than instant events (Reschly & Christenson, 2012). While some studies supported the importance and validity of the theory (e.g., Evans & DiBenedetto, 1991; Garnier et al., 1997; Jimerson et al., 2000), Beekhoven and Dekkers (2005) criticised the model for not fully explaining withdrawal from school.
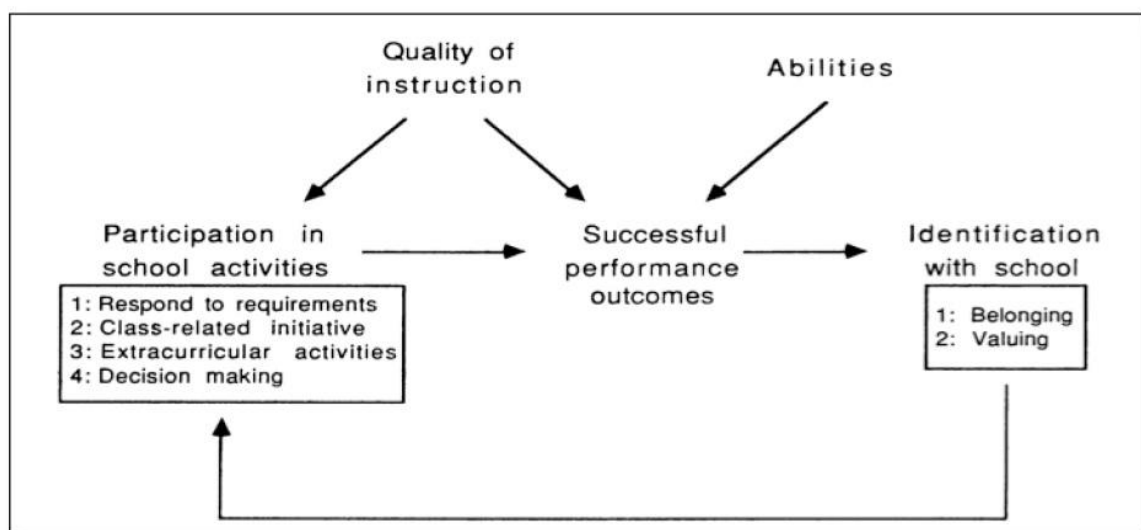
Figure 2. Participation-identification Model. From "Withdrawing from School," by J.D. Finn, 1989, *Review of Educational Research, 59,* p. 130. Copyright 1989 by the American Educational Research Association. Reprinted with permission.

1.8.3. The Person-Environment Perspective

The Person-Environment Perspective postulates that learners' engagement with learning is determined by person-environment fit, which is the consistency of learners' needs

and goals and the availability of opportunities to meet the needs and achieve the goals in their environment (Eccles et al., 1993). Eccles et al. (1993) argue that "negative psychological changes in adolescent development result from a mismatch between the needs of developing adolescents and the opportunities afforded them by their social environments" (p.90). This perspective offers examples of how this mismatch occurs and develops in the school setting and at home and its relation to negative developmental changes in early adolescents' motivation, autonomy and self-perceptions (Eccles et al., 1993).

1.8.4. ICAP Theory

ICAP theory of cognitive engagement proposed by Chi and Wylie (2014) suggests that students are more engaged with learning from passive to active, active to constructive and constructive to interactive. The theory defines passive mode as the one in which learners do not perform any observable engagement behaviour. For instance, reading a text silently or listening to the teacher without doing anything is considered a passive learning activity. The theory acknowledges that learners can still be engaged in passive mode, but this is the lowest level of engagement. In the active mode, learners perform a motoric or physical activity such as rotating an object, underlining and pointing. There are different definitions of constructive learning. The ICAP framework defines constructive mode as a process in which learners generate or produce new knowledge beyond what is provided during learning events. The theory assumes the interactive mode as the highest level of engagement in which learners co-create new knowledge in interaction with a peer, teacher or computer agent. Interactive mode can subsume constructive and active modes.

While these learning modes have long been discussed in research studies for many years, ICAP theory offers a conceptual framework for student engagement studies by making claims about each learning activity's relative effectiveness over another. The framework defines and differentiates broad categories of cognitive engagement. The ICAP framework can be employed for several purposes, such as testing the effectiveness of different interventions (e.g., Lam, 2020; Lim et al., 2019; Martinez, 2020; Menekşe, 2012; Miller, 2019; Williams, 2018), designing classroom observation schemes to measure student

engagement (e.g., Chase et al., 2019), designing teacher PD activities (e.g., Chi et al., 2018; Morris & Chi, 2020) and investigating the effectiveness of different instructional designs in language learning (e.g., Dahm, 2017). This study used ICAP theory as a theoretical lens to explore participants' perceptions of instructional design features of engagement-based instruction in EFL classrooms. The framework also guided the program design, tasks and implementation, focusing on constructive and co-constructive tasks to promote the engagement of program participants.

1.8.5. Social Constructivism

Social constructivism is the overarching learning theory that the OPD program relies on. There are different versions and forms of constructivism theorised differently by different scholars, such as Piagetian constructivism (Piaget & Inhelder 1969), radical constructivism (von Glasersfeld, 1996) and Vygotskian social constructivism (Vygotsky & Cole, 1978). The OPD program was designed based on Vygotsky's social constructivism, which focuses on the co-construction of knowledge during social interactions. Social-constructivism assumes that learners co-construct knowledge in such interactions, resulting in better learning outcomes and a heightened state of student engagement during learning events (Chi & Wylie, 2014). The OPD program aimed to create a professional learning environment where participants construct and co-construct knowledge and implementations to promote better student engagement in EFL classrooms.

1.8.6. Adult Learning Theory

Adult Learning theory posits that adult learning has distinctive characteristics that are different from those of pedagogical approaches (Knowles et al., 2014). The andragogical model (Knowles et al., 2014) is based on six assumptions that define the characteristics of adult learning different from pedagogy as follows:

- the need to know (adults need to know why what, and how to learn something)

- the learners' self-concept (adults have a self-concept of being responsible for their learning)

- the role of the learners' experiences (adults bring lots of prior knowledge and experience to a new learning experience)

- readiness to learn (adults are ready to learn what they are supposed to learn to cope with the challenges in real life)

- orientation to learning (While children and young people are subject-centred, adults are more life-centred)

- motivation (the source of motivation for adults in real-life appeals such as promotion, higher salaries, and job satisfaction) (pp. 49-50)

The adult learning theory guided the OPD program design and exploration of the participant instructors' professional learning needs, interests and experiences. I considered the characteristics of adult learning suggested by the theory while designing the program and the professional learning tasks.

1.8.7. The Community of Inquiry Framework

The community of inquiry (CoI) framework is a social-constructivist conceptual model that defines the essential characteristics of instruction in online learning environments (Garrison et al., 1999, 2001, 2010a, 2010b). The framework responds to the criticisms against online learning for lacking social and affective learning. CoI framework assumes that effective online learning occurs within the community through the interaction of three core elements: "cognitive presence, social presence, and teaching presence" (Garrison et al., 1999, p. 88). Cognitive presence refers to the construction and co-construction of new knowledge through the conceptualisation of a triggering event, critical thinking, exploration, integration and resolution. Social presence is defined as participants' presence in the online community as real people that reflect their personal characteristics, emotions, feelings and perceptions. A facilitator is needed to promote cognitive and social presence. Teaching presence pertains to instructional design and facilitation that would create optimum

conditions for realising educational outcomes through the new knowledge co-constructed through involvement in community practice. The CoI framework guided the asynchronous OPD program design, tasks and implementation in this study. The OPD program included design features and tasks that would promote cognitive, social, and teaching presence. The framework also relates to the findings of the study regarding effective design features of the OPD program.

1.9. Researcher's Positionality and Roles

The credibility of qualitative methods depends heavily upon the researcher's skill, competence, credibility and rigour. Since the researcher is the main instrument in a qualitative study (Patton, 2014), qualitative reports should provide information about the researcher's positioning and relationship with the research participants (Braun & Clarke, 2021; Creswell & Poth, 2018). The researchers' positioning may influence participants' disclosure and willingness to share information and how the researchers make the meaning of data and draw findings and conclusions from it (Berger, 2015).

I have taught English at all levels in four different Turkish universities, where I have worked as an instructor of English, testing office member, curriculum designer, department head, and PD unit coordinator. I participated in several workshops and in-service training sessions on ELT. I also held and organised several training workshops with colleagues from my school on distance learning and the use of technology. Through the conversations with my colleagues and students, I realised that in recent years, students were not satisfied with how they were taught, and teachers were not satisfied with how their students responded to their teaching. Hearing all these stories of dissatisfaction and disengagement from different stakeholders led to my interest in researching student motivation and engagement to contribute to the students' learning and my colleagues' PD. Therefore, I decided to conduct this study which combines theory and practice.

I am an insider researcher working as an instructor of English at a state university in Türkiye. I had known the participants professionally before the study for three years but did not have social contact with participants except for professional gatherings and discussions. At the time of the study, I had no positioning that would create issues of power or authority over participants. Positivist research orientations to qualitative research consider being an insider researcher as a threat to the objectivity of research findings and conclusions due to the possibility of having a biased position that might intervene with the interpretation (Chavez, 2008). However, in the 'fully qualitative' approach, researcher subjectivity is a valuable resource "rather than problematic," which is "essential to the process "of qualitative data analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2021, p.12). Being an insider researcher who is an accepted member of the group allowed me to gather rich and in-depth data as I had already built rapport and trust with the participants before the study. Moreover, I had a better and deeper understanding of participants' accounts as I was familiar with the contextual factors influencing participants' responses.

As this study is based on the constructivist paradigm, I constructed the interpretations based on participants' accounts of their perceptions, beliefs and experiences, relying on my research values, commitments, experience and assumptions (Braun & Clarke, 2021; Stake, 1995) that I explained in the methodology section in detail. While subjectivity is a valuable resource that I greatly benefited from in this constructive study, I critically interrogated my teacher and researcher positionings and identities through reflexive engagement with the research data (Braun & Clarke, 2021). I reflected upon my subjectivity, assumptions, and possible biases that might impact my interpretations.

I took several roles in this study as a program designer, facilitator, researcher and evaluator, as presented in figure 3. I designed, implemented, and evaluated the OPD program and developed the conceptual framework (ARPIM), program syllabus, and OPD tasks and contents. I also designed the website on which the program videos and AFGDs were delivered. I did not participate in the OPD program and virtual focus group discussions but facilitated discussions and learning through emails and text messages.
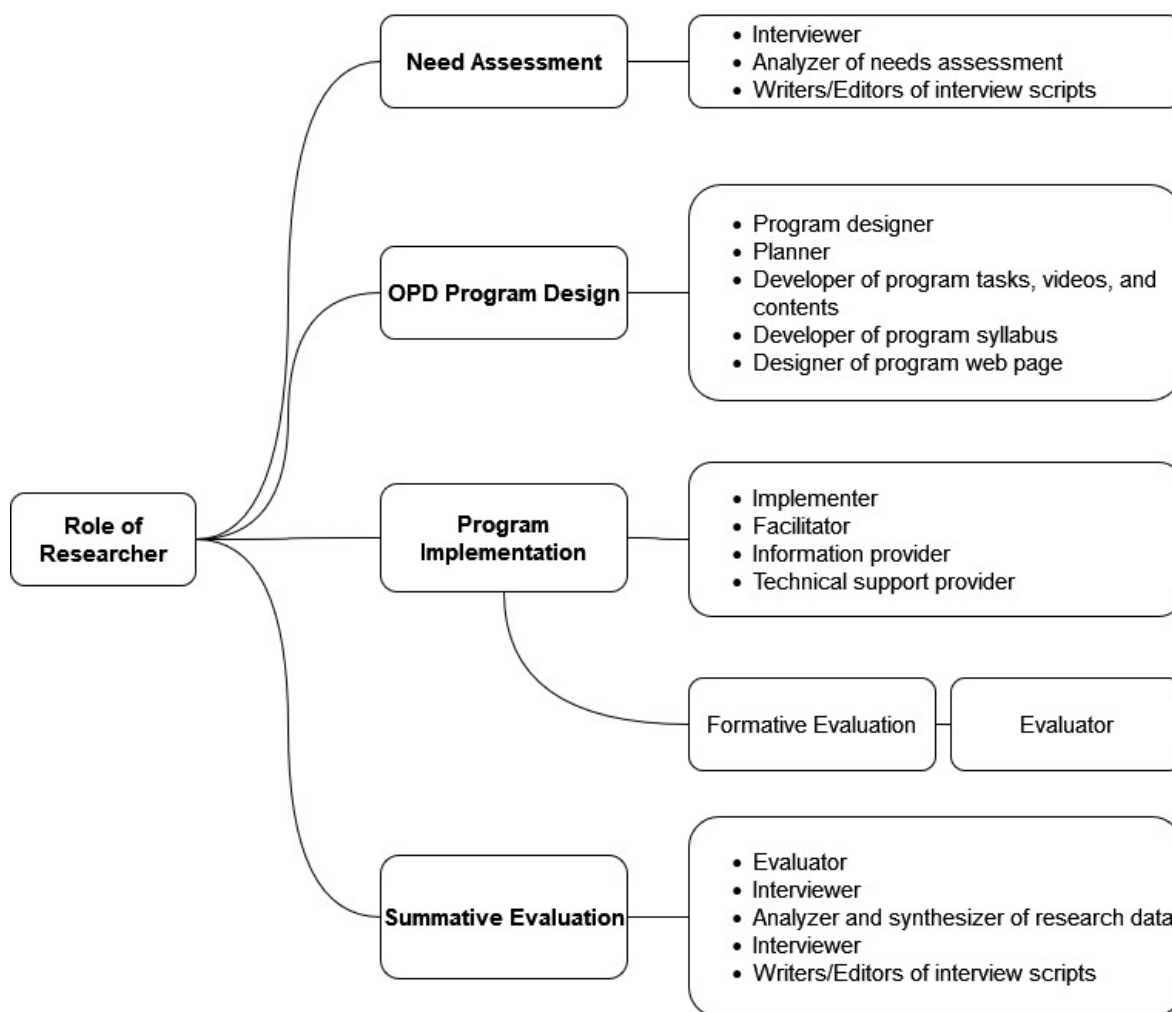
Figure 3. A diagram of the researcher's roles in this study

1.10. Delimitations and Limitations

Although this study was rigorously planned, implemented and analysed considering potential threats to the validity of the research, there are some delimitations and limitations that readers should consider while interpreting the research findings and conclusions. The first limitation is that this instrumental case study presents context-dependent findings which do not aim at objectivity and generalizability. The scope of the study was limited to ten female EFL instructors teaching tertiary EFL students. However, the case study approach generated rich, complex and comprehensive data and analysis, which present implications

for foreign language education, distance education and teacher professional learning. Another limitation regarding the scope of the study was that the program participants were volunteers who wanted to develop professionally. The study's results reflect the motivated instructors' self-reports. A compulsory program may not achieve the same learning outcomes and program satisfaction. Furthermore, the study was conducted during COVID-19, when restrictions and lockdowns were still in place. The impact of the global pandemic and the emergent shift to online education should be considered while drawing conclusions from the results of this study.

Second, I was the program designer, implementer and evaluator in this study. I was also an insider researcher who professionally knew the participants. While being an insider researcher provided me with advantages such as better rapport and disclosure, findings from the study should be interpreted cautiously, considering the impact of my positioning and roles in this study.

Third, all data for the study was gathered online, relying on participant instructors' self-reports. The ultimate purpose of teacher PD is to create a positive impact on student learning; therefore, evaluation of teacher PD should include observation or measurement of students' learning outcomes subsequent to PD (Guskey, 2000). As this study focused on student engagement rather than learning outcomes, I did not directly investigate students' learning outcomes and engagement but directed participant instructors to receive feedback from students through a classroom survey. Future studies investigating teacher OPD on student engagement can involve voices from students, school leaders and other stakeholders to explore teachers' PD needs, classroom implementations and students' learning outcomes. Prolonged classroom observations, coaching and measuring student learning outcomes may provide better insights into instructional shifts self-reported by participants.

1.11. Summary of Chapter One

This chapter introduces the research problem, purpose and significance of the study, philosophical and theoretical assumptions that guided the study, the researcher's positionality and limitations of the study. The chapter emphasises the significance of the research problem to teacher educators, ELT teachers, specialists, researchers and the qualitative research community. I also justified how and why I adopted a fully qualitative approach within a constructive paradigm to explore participants' perceptions, beliefs, experiences and implementations. I presented the delimitations, limitations, assumptions, research paradigm and theoretical framework that guided the research and OPD program design in the introduction part to allow readers better understand the other chapters and draw more accurate conclusions from the study.

CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review is divided into three sections. The first section defines, categorises and explains teacher professional learning and development. The second section defines student engagement and its components. The first two sections also present knowledge and findings from previous research regarding the research questions addressed in this study. The third section proposes a conceptual framework that defines and differentiates major categories of teaching behaviours and preferences influencing student engagement.

2.1. Teacher Professional Development

Teachers need different qualifications in different parts of their careers. Learner characteristics; developments in information and communication technology (ICT); needs of schools; expectations of families and administrators; social, political, and cultural context; developments in SLA research, assessment, curriculum design, and methods; and other ongoing changes in the field force teachers to develop themselves professionally. However, determining, defining, and categorising competency or knowledge requirements for teachers and qualities of effective PD is a challenging issue due to the context-dependent nature of learning and teaching. While the significance of teacher PD to the improvement of teaching and quality of education has been widely acknowledged (Borko, 2004; Dede et al., 2009; Guskey, 2002), it has become an unquestionable determinant of educational reform, quality, and improvement in education in the 21st century. The constant and rapid developments in information and communication technology have changed learners' characteristics, interests, sources of motivation, expectations, and emotions. This transformation has led to the emergence of new challenges and opportunities in teaching. To deal with these challenges and seize the opportunities, the PD of teachers has become more crucial to the long-term success of programs.

Craft (2002) uses the terms PD, continuing professional development (CDP) and in-service training interchangeably to define professional learning activities "undertaken by teachers beyond the point of their initial training (p. 9)". However, others regard PD as different from short-term training activities that address teachers' immediate needs and responsibilities (e.g., Freeman, 1989; Richards & Farrell, 2005; Richards & Nunan, 1990). This study defines teacher PD as all learning activities teachers are involved in subsequent to initial teacher education for overall professional growth and empowerment. PD serves a longer-term purpose and intends to promote teachers' development and understanding of self as a teacher (Richards & Farrell, 2005). While teacher training and education require another person, namely a mentor, trainer, university professor, or another collaborator, PD involves individual and reciprocal learning events for professional growth (Freeman, 1989). It is a process in which novice or experienced teachers improve, learn, and use relevant knowledge, values, and skills through job-specific support activities to enhance their professional skills (Bolam, 2000).

The purpose of PD is to "alter the professional practices, beliefs, and understanding of school persons toward an articulated end" (Griffin, 1983, p. 2). It is widely accepted that PD that achieve positive change concerning teachers' beliefs, attitudes, and perceptions result in better teaching and student learning. Teachers' beliefs and perceptions usually change when they experience improvement in student learning subsequent to a meaningful and relevant intervention (Guskey, 2002). However, until the 1990s, PD programs were top-down activities that mandated teachers a set of competencies, skills or principles (Craft, 2002). Most schools failed to address teachers' actual PD needs because PD programs were designed based on "centrally imposed reforms" and "the needs of the schools and departments" rather than teachers' perceived needs and interests (Day & Sachs, 2007, p. 42). Today, good PD is usually a bottom-up activity in which teachers' contextual needs and interests are considered. Creemers et al. (2013) state that PD is more effective if:

- the teacher has an active role in constructing knowledge (teacher as action researcher),
- collaborates with colleagues (collective critical reflection),
- the content relates to and is situated in the daily teaching practice (emphasis on teaching skills),

- the content is differentiated to meet individual developmental needs (linked with formative evaluation results),
- and the possibilities and limitations of the workplace are taken into account (pp. 51-52).

PD activities may not achieve the intended outcomes when they overlook teachers' needs' interests, problems, and motivation (Guskey, 2000; Kabilan & Veratharaju, 2013). From a socio-cultural perspective based on Vygotsky's ideas and thoughts, learning is situated in PD activities like other kinds of learning. It is not a process of transferring facts to the participants. Teachers construct knowledge and meaning based on the social context in which learning occurs. Therefore, teachers' PD needs should be addressed based on their previous experiences, perceptions, and the educational context (Deakin Crick et al., 2015; Postholm, 2012). Thus, PD activities can be meaningful and relevant to teachers' contextual needs.

2.1.1. Approaches and Models to PD

While the literature on teacher PD provides adequate knowledge and insights into professional learning, growth and empowerment (e.g., Clarke & Hollingsworth 2002; Fullan, 2007; Guskey, 1986; Kennedy, 2005; Murray & Christison 2010; Sykes, 1996), explaining professional learning and development with an overarching model or theory is a challenging task due to the complex nature of adult learning (Merriam et al., 2007). Therefore, different theories, models and approaches have been proposed to investigate teacher PD. Kennedy (2005) identifies the main categories of teacher PD as follows:

- training (skills-based, standard-based technocratic model delivered by experts)
- award-bearing (completion of award-bearing programs validated by universities or authorised bodies)
- deficit (addressing perceived deficits in performance and attempts to treat them)

- cascade (attending PD events and then cascading or disseminating the information to the colleagues)

- standards-based (meeting the requirements, competencies or qualifications determined by admissions or other authorities)

- coaching/mentoring (generally one-to-one PD through knowledge transfer or exchange)

- community of practice (mutual exchange of knowledge, practices and expertise through interaction among a group of individuals who share common conditions, problems and concerns)

- action research (research-based professional development addressing problems and concerns or improvement of practice)

- transformative (transformative PD through the effective integration of various approaches to PD) (pp. 336-337)

A broader approach to teacher PD that subsumes the models categorised by Kennedy (2005) is the reflective approach, which is a reaction against centralised, top-down, competency-based approaches. Reflective thinking and teaching are derived from Dewey's (1933) notion of "fork road situations" where the smooth progress of events is interrupted by a dilemma, ambiguity, or surprise. When people experience such a dilemma, they seek alternative solutions. Thus, they reframe their perspective to find appropriate problem-solving strategies. Dewey's (1933) idea of reframing was later developed and adapted into teaching by Schön (1983, 1987). Schön (1987) defined different kinds of reflective behaviour as "knowing in action (instant responses to situations and problems through constructions such as awareness, appreciation, and adjustment), reflection in action (tacit and spontaneous responses to unexpected and planned situations during the course of action) and reflection on action (critical evaluation of the actions after they have been performed to discover how our knowing-in-action may have contributed to an unexpected outcome)" (pp. 22-26).

Wallace (1991) proposed another reflective teacher education model, which is critical of previous teacher education models such as the craft and applied science models. He divided reflective teacher education into two stages which he assumed resulted in

professional competence. The first stage focuses on the individuals' existing knowledge and experience (in service or self-development), namely what they bring into professional training situations. Conscious or unconscious, teachers understand or believe in teaching based on PD they have undertaken or their exposure to the teaching profession as learners. The second stage in Wallace's (1991) model distinguishes received and experiential teacher knowledge. Received knowledge pertains to teachers' knowledge through formal learning events such as initial teacher education, PD, or training. The latter accounts for the knowledge that trainees have developed in action through teaching (Wallace, 1991).

The primary purpose of all these models is to positively impact teachers' knowledge, perceptions, and instruction and to create a parallel impact on student achievement and learning. Kennedy (2016) identifies four methods used by PD programs to enhance the enactment of innovative ideas in teaching. The first is prescription, in which programs explicitly define the best way to address a teaching program based on their beliefs. Another method of facilitating enactment is strategies that define specific objectives of PD programs. The third method of promoting enactment is the insight that refers to "self-generated "aha!" moments" by raising questions that direct teachers to re-examine their solutions to teaching problems and try to see them differently. The last way to facilitate enactment is to promote teacher autonomy, providing teachers maximum discretion on how they will use their knowledge in practice.

While the approaches to PD outlined in this section offer a theoretical lens or framework for the models that teacher educators can adopt, teacher PD does not have to fit one of these models. All these models support various levels and forms of teacher knowledge as a spectrum. Teachers may have different needs in different stages of their careers. Understanding these changing needs, teachers' perceptions and cognitions may improve in-service teachers' performance. Furthermore, PD is not limited to enhancing teachers' performance or content knowledge. The major goals of PD are to improve teachers' classroom practices, change their attitudes and beliefs, and make teachers educate their learners more effectively by improving teachers' professional knowledge, skills, and values. (Bolam, 2000; Guskey, 2002; Kennedy, 2016). Thus, educational reforms can achieve the desired impact and student outcomes (Sykes, 1996; Fullan, 2007).

The primary purpose of PD or teacher education is to create a positive change in teachers' classroom practices and behaviours, leading to better student learning (Guskey, 2002). Foreign language teachers need to update their professional knowledge regarding methodology and language skills, but PD opportunities may not always be available, or there might be constraints to participating in PD. OPD can be an alternative to overcome constraints such as time, funding, place, and travel.

2.1.2. Online Professional Development (OPD)

Recent developments in information and communications technology (ICT) have proliferated OPD programs and related research (e.g., Dana et al., 2017; Dille & Røkenes, 2021; Howard, 2021; Parsons et al., 2019; Powell & Bodur, 2019; Teräs, 2016). OPD refers to professional learning activities delivered online. They provide opportunities for teachers who may not participate in conventional face-to-face PD due to constraints of time, funding, travel, and distance (Elliott, 2017; Murray, 2014). Virtual professional learning and development environments also allow teachers to choose programs that they find meaningful and relevant based on their interests, needs and work schedule (Galley, 2002). OPD programs offer flexibility regarding time, approach, and cost (Quin et al., 2016) and create collaborative and interactive learning environments for teachers from different locations (Elliott, 2017; Lay et al., 2020). Thus, it also provides opportunities to build professional learning communities and networks across different schools and contexts regardless of the distance (Lebec & Luft, 2007).

OPD programs can be designed as synchronous (e.g., Chen et al., 2009), asynchronous (e.g., Yoon et al., 2020), flipped (e.g., Lee et al., 2016), or blended (e.g., Evans et al., 2020) programs. Synchronous OPD programs are real-time live sessions delivered through webcasts, chat rooms, and audio-visual technology, and asynchronous ones include emails, threaded forums, and newsgroups (Elliott, 2017). OPD activities can be formal courses, certificate programs, or informal professional learning activities such as personal learning networks or professional learning communities (Elliott, 2017). Informal OPD may fail to achieve the desired positive change as they have little or poor structure.

2.2. Student Engagement

Defining and conceptualising student engagement is challenging because students, researchers, teachers and families may attribute different meanings to it. An engaged learner can be defined as someone who participates in routine learning activities such as "attending class, submitting required work, following teachers' instructions in class, and involving learning events" (Chapman, 2003, p.2). While this definition seems straightforward, it only explains the observable aspects of student engagement. Although some learners do not show observable engagement behaviours, they might be cognitively engaged, focusing on and investing in their learning (Chi & Wylie, 2014). Moreover, some learners who participate in learning activities may not always be motivated (Johnston et al., 2015). Some students with integrative and instrumental motivations to learn a foreign language (see Dörnyei, 2009) may seem enthusiastic to participate to please teachers or to avoid negative consequences, such as lower grades and failure. The multifaceted and multidimensional nature of the construct makes defining and measuring it a substantial challenge. Bryson (2014) uses the metaphor of quantum mechanics to show the complexity of defining and measuring it:

I have contended here that student engagement is both a process and an outcome: it has features of both. My metaphor here is quantum mechanics, where one cannot measure all the properties of a particle, or even determine if it is particle or a wave. (p. 20)

Student engagement is linked to several variables; therefore, different definitions exist for different domains and contexts. Early research studies in the field of educational psychology attempted to define student engagement as a unidimensional construct measured by "the amount of time spent on a task, learner's sense of belonging and psychological membership to a programme, participation in study activities, psychological investment in comprehending knowledge or attention and effort spent in the work of learning" (Deng et al., 2019, p. 247). However, all behaviours and actions of involvement in learning events are not student engagement. Notions like involvement, commitment and motivation may seem semantically close to the meaning of engagement, but engagement is a separate multidimensional performance construct (Dao et al., 2019; Fredricks & McColskey, 2012; Fredricks et al., 2004; Furlong & Christenson, 2008; Philp & Duchesne, 2016; Svalberg

2009, 2018; Williams & Whiting, 2016). It extends beyond participation or involvement because engaged learners see the learning events as meaningful and worthy of doing, not because they are concerned about grades, approval, acceptance, or rank, but because they are motivated to learn (Johnston et al., 2015). Engaged learners are focused and alert and construct their knowledge, but involvement does not always require focused attention and meaningful involvement (Svalberg, 2009). It is related to but different from motivation. Motivation is related to "underlying psychological processes such as autonomy, belonging or connectedness, and competence and is perceived to answer the question of 'why' for a given behaviour" (Brooks et al., 2012, p. 558). However, engagement is the "energy in action, the connection between person and activity" (Russell et al., 2005, as cited in Appleton et al., 2008, p. 379). Two unique features of student engagement are "focused attention" and "action knowledge (making knowledge one's own)" (Svalberg, 2009, p. 246).

The multidimensional characteristics of student engagement make defining and measuring it a significant challenge. The difficulty of finding a uniformly accepted definition of engagement also stems from how learners manifest their engagement (Nystrand & Gamoran, 1991), and researchers use it to operationalise the constructs they investigate (Azevedo, 2015). Researchers understand different things from student engagement and identify various tenets, principles, and components through the lens they define the construct. Philp and Duchesne (2016) define student engagement "as a state of heightened attention and involvement", including behavioural, social, cognitive and affective dimensions of learners' individual learning experiences and responses to tasks (p.51). Zepke and Leach (2010) conceptualise main research perspectives on student engagement under four categories: motivation and agency, transactional engagement, institutional support and active citizenship. Ball and Perry's (2011) definition, on the other hand, focuses on the high-quality learning outcomes generated by learners' involvement in learning activities. Trowler (2010) defines student engagement as the interaction between different components, such as the time and effort to optimise the learning experience, enhance learning outcomes, and promote the school's performance and reputation. Some definitions only include the institutional curriculum policies and practices (Nelson et al., 2012). Others involve non-institutional settings as an essential facilitator of engagement (Zepke et al., 2012).

Although the definition of student engagement varies, it is usually associated with positive cognitive, behavioural, social, emotional and academic learning outcomes (Furlong et al., 2003; Jimerson et al., 2003; Klem & Connell, 2004; Philp & Duchesne, 2016). It is linked to the affective connections between the academic environment and active involvement in learning events (Appleton et al., 2008; Christenson et al., 2012). It depicts "effortful learning through interaction with the teacher and the classroom learning opportunities" (Christenson et al., 2012, p. vi). Engaged learners can self-regulate their behaviours persistently (Dörnyei & Mercer, 2020) to achieve a learning goal by challenging themselves inside and outside the class to learn rather than just attending or showing academic performance (Klem & Connell, 2004). An engaged learner invests time and effort in learning and strives to willingly achieve desired learning outcomes (Kuh, 2009; Newmann, 1992). They make a psychological investment in learning by incorporating what they have learnt into their lives (Newmann, 1992).

From a critical perspective, engagement is not only students' academic responsibilities or teachers' expectations (Freire, 1998). It is a construct beyond the school buildings and timetables (Chávez & O'Donnell, 1999). It is more concerned with the temporal and spatial contexts, teaching and learning environments, influenced by individuals' and groups' perceived understanding of education (Chávez & O'Donnell, 1999). It emphasises the importance of teachers' engagement with learning, along with students' (Portelli & McMahon, 2004). Freire (1989) states that "as a teacher, I cannot help the students to overcome their ignorance if I am not engaged permanently in trying to overcome my own" (p. 89). According to critical pedagogy, engaged learners and students make judgments about themselves and the status quo by rejecting and questioning authoritarian tendencies, taking a liberatory stance adopting a praxis of social justice and showing an interest in substantive issues (Chávez & O'Donnell, 1999; Freire, 1998). For Anderson et al. (1998), engaged classrooms are the ones in which students and teachers are critical of power and authoritative discourses.

This study defines student engagement as students' persistent involvement in meaningful and relevant learning events with focused attention and willingness at behavioural, cognitive, affective and agentic dimensions (see figure 4). The study assumes that a foreign language student can only engage with learning when these conditions are met.

Even when learners attend, participate and contribute to learning events willingly with great attention and focus, they may not be still fully engaged in foreign language classrooms when teachers do not create optimum learning environments that provide learners opportunities to engage in meaningful and relevant language learning activities. For instance, foreign language students may willingly read a text aloud by following teachers' instructions with focused attention. However, this task does not contribute to the development of foreign language reading skills because it does not require outcomes or skills like comprehension, metacognition, use of reading strategies, construction or co-construction of new knowledge. In this scenario, the students are willing, focused and investing in their learning, but the task is not relevant to an EFL reading course and probably not meaningful to students' needs and interests. Therefore, students are only engaged with foreign language skills when they are willingly involved in meaningful and relevant learning events with focused attention. However, the relevance and meaningfulness of learning events may vary according to the conditions for learning and teaching and contextual factors. Therefore, making judgements about students' engagement requires an understanding of contextual factors, which makes measuring it a significant challenge. Moreover, students' involvement in a specific task or course does not always mean they are engaged with the target language. Engagement with a foreign language requires persistence, prolonged involvement and investment in learning.
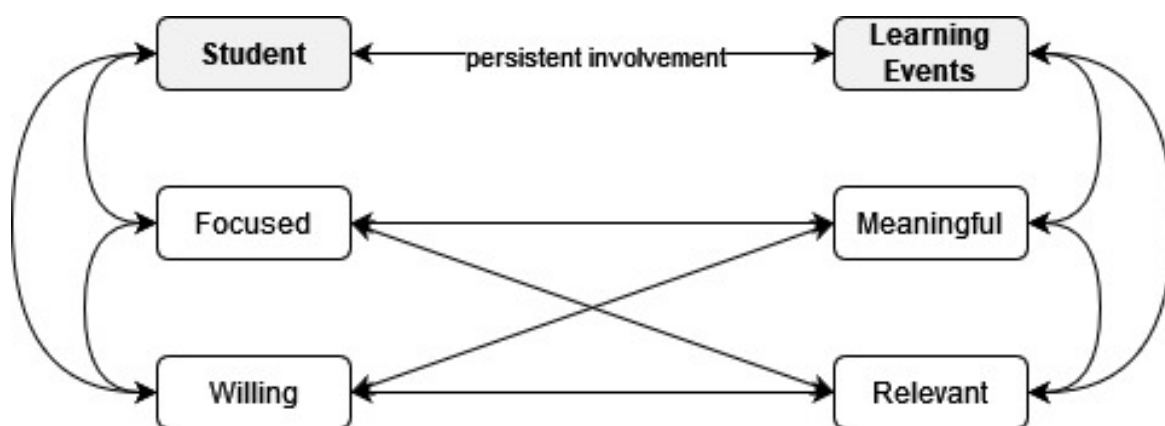
Figure 4. The conceptualisation of student engagement in foreign language classrooms

While there are different definitions and explanations of the construct of engagement, major components in the literature are behavioural, affective (emotional), cognitive and agentic engagement (Reeve & Tseng, 2011).

2.2.1. Behavioural Engagement

Behavioural engagement, sometimes called social engagement, focuses on learners' participation in classroom tasks and school-related activities (King, 2020; Maroco et al., 2016). Fredricks et al. (2004) state that "behavioural engagement includes involvement in academic and social or extracurricular activities and is considered crucial for achieving positive academic outcomes and preventing drop-out" (p. 60). Behavioural aspects of engagement are usually shown through overt and observable acts. Students' assistance to their peers, their responses to other students and teachers, and their contribution to the learning activities are some observable behaviours in the classroom (Dao & McDonough, 2018). Behavioural engagement is usually measured by time-on-task, word or turn counts (see Lambert et al., 2017) and students' self-reports (Green, 2015; Wang et al., 2016).

Behaviourally disengaged learners display observable behaviours such as attendance and participation problems, lack of task fulfilment, distracting others, actively defying directives given by adults, suspension, office referrals, and detention (Gion et al., 2020). When learners show behavioural disengagement indicators, it is critical to intervene at the early stages. Like other types of disengagement, behavioural disengagement is amenable to interventions (Reeve, 2012).

Some researchers argue that behavioural engagement subsumes cognitive, affective and social engagement since students indicate engagement through their behaviours (Dao & McDonough, 2018). This study conceptualises behavioural engagement as a separate component having specific boundaries. The study uses the term behavioural engagement to refer to students' observable actions, efforts, and persistence to achieve particular learning outcomes (Skinner et al., 2009).

2.2.2. Affective (Emotional) Engagement

Affective engagement, also called emotional engagement, pertains to students' affective reactions in the classroom during a learning experience, such as "interest, boredom, happiness, joy, sadness, stress, and anxiety" (Mahatmya et al., 2012, p. 47). It involves both

positive and negative emotions during a learning experience (Appleton et al., 2008). List and Alexander (2017) define affective engagement as emotionally reactive aspects of motivation. It is associated with students' sense of being significant to the school community (belonging) and perception of school as an institution that supports and facilitates social and personal development (Finn & Zimmer, 2012). It is more related to "behavioural forms of engagement than academic achievement" (Finn & Zimmer, 2012, p. 105), but it influences academic performance indirectly (Voelkl, 2012).

A large body of research studies shows that affective engagement is a predictor of success at school (Cook et al., 2020). A positive learning climate and positive emotional states during a learning experience contribute to positive classroom interactions and relationships. In contrast, a negative learning environment in which learners feel disrespected or disconnected leads to negative feelings and anxiety (Barkley et al., 2014). School experiences "such as negative interactions with teachers, punitive exclusionary discipline, bullying and harassment, and repeated academic failure" negatively impact students' affective engagement (Cook et al., 2020, p. 205).

While rejecting, chaotic, coercive and hostile teacher and peer interactions negatively influence classroom engagement (Furrer et al., 2014), a positive and supportive teacher-student relationship promotes better learning gains (Plater, 2018; Skinner et al., 2008). This view is consistent with Finn's (1989) participation-identification model, which suggests that identification (or disidentification) with school develops over time along with behavioural engagement accompanied by positive (or negative) learning outcomes. Educators can promote affective engagement through prevention and intervention practices, which induce positive emotional experiences and maintain learners' emotional well-being.

2.2.3. Cognitive Engagement

The definition of cognitive engagement is fuzzy, like other components of engagement, mainly because student engagement is a relatively new concept in educational psychology and relies on other research fields, such as drop-out prevention, school reform, and motivation (Pohl, 2020). The cognitive engagement theory proposed by Corno and

Mandinach (1983) is based on active and experiential learning principles expected to result in student engagement. Cognitive engagement is associated with several mental operations such as learning strategies (Walker et al., 2006), sustained attention (Helme & Clarke, 2001), mental investment in learning (Furlong et al., 2003), concentration, focus and willingness to go beyond what is required (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). Another indicator of cognitive engagement is private speech, such as expressing opinions, posing questions, arguing, showing agreement or disagreement, reasoning or exemplification (Philp & Duchesne, 2016). While some researchers argue that research on cognitive engagement may focus on one of these components, others argue that all of these perspectives must be involved (Fredricks et al., 2004).

In language learning, cognitive engagement is seen in elaborative talks in which students talk about tasks, content, the language they are producing, language forms and rules, self-correction, and negotiation of meaning (Dao & McDonough, 2018; Lambert et al., 2016). McLaughlin et al. (2005) state that "at the most general level, learning occurs through the cognitive engagement of the learner with the appropriate subject matter knowledge" (p. 3).

2.2.4. Agentic Engagement

Reeve and Tseng (2011) proposed agentic engagement as the fourth component of student engagement. An agent is someone who can "intentionally influence his or her functioning and life circumstances" (Bandura, 2006, p. 164). Scott (2008) defined agency as "an actor's ability to have some effect on the social world-altering the rules, relational ties, or distribution of resources" (p. 77). People do not always react or repeat given practices. Rather, they intentionally construct social and material worlds and initiate purposeful, autonomous, willing and free actions and choices (Lipponen & Kumpulainen, 2011). Behavioural, cognitive and affective engagement is usually teacher-initiated and directed by teachers. However, students also self-regulate and react to learning events by demanding more than provided to them by teachers. Agentic students do not only react to learning events but also proactively enrich, modify, personalise, create, and request learning opportunities (Reeve, 2012).

Reeve and Tseng (2011) define agentic engagement as "students' constructive contribution into the flow of the instruction they receive" (p. 258). Agentic students proactively contribute to the learning process by seeking support and motivation by expressing their learning needs, preferences, and interests (Reeve, 2013). Learners may show behavioural engagement, such as attending courses regularly, completing required homework assignments and tasks, and following teachers' instructions. On the other hand, agentic learners contribute to learning events by making recommendations, asking questions, and sharing their interests and ideas. They proactively take action before the learning activities by asking questions, making suggestions, and negotiating for a motivationally supportive learning environment (Reeve, 2013). While agentic engagement was proposed as the fourth type, some researchers argue that it co-occurs and mediates with other dimensions (Schunk & Mullen, 2012; Sinatra et al., 2015; Wang & Lee, 2021).

2.3. ARPIM: A Conceptual Framework of Teaching Behaviours and Preferences Influencing Student Engagement

This study proposes a conceptual framework that defines and differentiates major teaching behaviours and preferences influencing student engagement. While the literature provides theories and models for student engagement, the theoretical foundation of teachers' role in engaging students has not been fully established. This study aims to fill in the gap in the literature by providing a comprehensive conceptual framework.

Literature review, theoretical, and conceptual frameworks are sometimes used interchangeably (Rocco & Plakhotnik, 2009). Although they share common characteristics, each has defining and distinctive qualities. While a literature review offers knowledge, findings and implications concerning previous research related to the research problem under investigation, a conceptual framework presents a researcher's position and perceptions about the nature of the research problem. A conceptual framework clarifies who and what will be and will not be studied" and "explains, either graphically or in narrative form, the main things to be studied—the key factors, concepts, or variables—and the presumed relationships among them" (Miles et al., 2014, p. 20).

Crawford (2019) defines three sources of conceptual frameworks: experience, literature, and theory (p. 43). My experience as a teacher of English, curriculum designer, and educational leader for 14 years stimulated my conceptualization of this framework. However, experience is insufficient to prove assumptions on a particular topic or research problem (Crawford, 2019). I constructed and conceptualised the overall structure of the framework based on my experience (Maxwell, 2013). However, I supported assumptions of the framework with existing studies, concepts, empirical research and relevant theories to synthesise knowledge (Rocco & Plakhotnik, 2009).

While students' engagement with learning interacts with several variables, this framework focuses mainly on teachers' role in promoting better student engagement. The framework recognises and acknowledges the aspects of student engagement beyond teachers' control; however, teacher behaviours may overcome most of the inhibitors by regulating or initiating student engagement (Dörnyei & Mercer, 2020; Fredricks, 2014). Engagement-centred instruction may promote in-depth learning, higher grades and greater well-being (Appleton et al., 2008; Huo, 2022; Kuh et al., 2008; Marks, 2000; Robinson & Hullinger, 2008; Shernoff & Schmidt, 2008; Svanum & Bigatti, 2009; Van Ryzin et al., 2009). In contrast, teachers who ignore the significance of students' engagement with learning may fail to prevent disruptive behaviours, poor academic performance, absenteeism, and negative emotions (Henry et al., 2011; Nystrand & Gamoran, 1991; Wang & Fredricks, 2014). Creating optimum conditions for deep learning and engagement can minimise disengagement (Barkley, 2010; Pianta et al., 2008) and even overcome the influences of variables such as the academic domain, gender, age, socioeconomic status, and cultural background (Marks, 2000). Therefore, teachers can be more influential than other factors in engaging students with learning (Fredricks, 2014; Fredricks et al., 2016; Kuh et al., 2006).

The overarching guiding question of the conceptual framework was the following: what are the major teaching behaviours and preferences influencing student engagement? The framework categorises and defines broad categories of teaching behaviours and preferences concerning student engagement as follows:

- verbal and nonverbal actions

- responding to learner behaviours and learning

- use and preferences of pedagogical tools

- the instructional methodology

- motivation style

ARPIM (actions, responses, pedagogical tools, instructional methodology, motivation style) framework is not a cyclic, hierarchical, or linear model. The framework is a conceptual proposition that categorizes and defines major teaching behaviours and preferences influencing student engagement. It does not make claims about the relationship between these components or their superiority over one another. The framework assumes that teaching behaviours and preferences regarding these components can impact student engagement negatively and positively. The framework informs the OPD program design and data collection in this study. Additionally, it intends to provide further research implications by providing teachers, teacher educators, and researchers with a comprehensive framework.

The ARPIM framework focuses on teachers' role in engaging learners; however, it does not intend to offer a model in which the teacher is the dominant figure in the classroom. Instead, it aims to provide a conceptual proposition to reconsider teachers' roles in student engagement. While learner-centred approaches focus on learners' roles in the learning process to help them develop autonomy and self-direction, learner-centredness requires "a parallel change in the teacher's role" (Tudor, "1993, p. 22).

2.3.1. Actions

'Actions' in the ARPIM framework pertain to teachers' use and understanding of observable verbal and nonverbal actions during learning events. Though these aspects might seem old-fashioned or traditional teacher competencies, they might influence how learners are engaged with learning even when the optimum conditions for instruction and motivation are provided. Language teaching is a communicative process that requires effective verbal and nonverbal student-teacher interaction.

Verbal teacher behaviours refer to teachers' use of verbal stimulations, which involve the qualities of engaging classroom discourse, teacher questions, instructions and the use of paralinguistic features such as voice pitch, volume, tempo, intensity, pauses, and silences (Babad, 2007). Nonverbal teacher actions are teachers' use of nonverbal stimulations: proxemics and kinesics communication patterns such as space, posture, gestures, and mimes. While teachers' effective use of these behaviours is an essential skill for them, they should also recognise and understand learners' cognitive and affective states based on verbal and nonverbal behaviours. Thus, they can identify student requirements and affective states like boredom and joy during learning events (Witt & Wheeless, 2009). Teachers may also show their understanding and support by using supportive prosody and a motivating tone (Zougkou et al., 2017).

Nonverbal Actions

Teachers interact with students through various actions they perform during learning activities. High communicative competence in the teacher increases the quality of classroom interactions. Despite being an essential variable in learning environments, the influence of teachers' nonverbal and motoric behaviours on student engagement is one area that educational researchers overlook (Furmanek, 2014). However, teachers' effective use of proxemics, kinesics, paralanguage and motoric activities may influence student engagement (Castañer et al., 2011). Such actions include teachers' use of space, closeness to learners, movement in the classroom, posture, gestures, mimes and other types of teachers' motoric behaviour during a learning event. Students and teachers may also make inferences about each other's feelings or attitudes based on nonverbal behaviours such as posture or facial expression (Woolfolk & Galloway, 1985). Positive nonverbal teacher actions and immediacy enhance student motivation (Liu, 2021; Pribyl et al., 2004) and engagement (Mazer, 2013).

The use of nonverbal communication tools like facial expressions, eye contact, and body movement positively or negatively impact the quality of teacher-student interaction. Teachers' nonverbal communication is essential for positive and robust teacher-student interaction and for promoting students' "interest, satisfaction, and motivation to pursue their studies better engagement" (Babad, 2007, p. 256). Traditional classes usually offer desk-

based activities in which learners sit on their chairs during the whole course time. However, teachers can rearrange the position of the desks, chairs, students, and even themselves to make courses more engaging for learners (McCaughey, 2018).

Though teachers' enthusiastic and expressive nonverbal behaviours are essential to the quality of education, classroom interactions, and student-teacher relationship, it does not guarantee excellence in teaching. One should consider the possible "Doctor Fox Phenomenon" while making judgements about the quality of teaching based on teachers' nonverbal behaviours. "Theatrical aspects alone might lure students into the illusion" of learning even when the instruction is poor (Castañer et al., 2011, p. 1828).

Kinesics

Kinesics is one of the main categories of nonverbal behaviour, which accompanies gestures, facial expressions, posture and body language (Babad, 2007; Brown, 2000). Teachers' and learners' body language and posture signal several messages to one another. These are significant components that may affect cognitive states positively or negatively. Teachers can use such information to make predictions about student requirements, evaluate if learners need help, provide support when needed, and adjust the lesson's pacing, flow, or content (Behera et al., 2020).

Kinesics does not only exist in face-to-face courses (Behera et al., 2020; Dewan et al., 2019; Whitehill et al., 2014). It also signals behaviours like engagement, frustration, boredom, and confusion in virtual learning environments. Digital engagement detection tools based on learners' body language and facial expressions can detect engagement and disengagement in computerised educational environments (Dewan et al., 2019). While using kinesics is a vital skill for teachers for effective instruction, understanding these nonverbal clues showing affective states such as foreign language anxiety is also essential (Gregersen, 2005).

Proxemics

Proxemics, concerned with the perception and use of personal space, is one of the influential concepts of nonverbal communication and educational behaviours during a learning event (Babad, 2007). While the literature on the influence of teacher proximity and personal space on student engagement is scarce, some studies indicated that teachers' physical position in the classroom affects the quality of interactions, student engagement (Buai Chin et al., 2017; Dong et al., 2021; Gao et al., 2020) and motivation (Fernandes et al., 2011). Schunk (1991) emphasises the importance of teachers' movement in the classroom to maintain students' attention during a learning event. The physical conditions and arrangement of the learning environments impact student engagement (Holec & Marynowski, 2020; St. Onge & Eitel, 2017). Where and how teachers position themselves in the classroom sends messages to learners about what they should be doing and teachers' availability for support and guidance (Wall, 1993).

All these nonverbal actions help learners keep their attention high and more engaged with learning during a learning event. While the ARPIM framework assumes teachers' physical positioning in the classroom influences student engagement, more research is needed to explore the impact of proxemics on student engagement.

Verbal Teacher Actions

Teacher talk is one of the primary sources of comprehensible input in L2 classrooms, especially in learning settings, where the use of language is limited to the classroom. Walsh (2013) states, "Even in the most decentralised and learner-centred classroom, teachers decide who speaks, when, to whom and for how long. Teachers are able to interrupt when they like, take the floor, hand over a turn, direct the discussion, switch topics" (p. 29). As Johnson (1995) said, "teachers control what goes on in classrooms primarily through the ways in which they use language" (p. 9). This central role in the classroom discourse might promote or inhibit student engagement (Walsh, 2002). Many aspects of teachers' verbal actions influence the quality and effectiveness of classroom interactions.

SLA theories and models have long acknowledged the importance of interaction in foreign and L2 learning (e.g., Long, 1981, 1983, 1996; Swain, 1985, 1995; Pica, 1994; Schmidt & Frota, 1986). One of the well-known interactionist perspectives of SLA is Long's (1981) interaction hypothesis. The interaction hypothesis postulates that learners can access more target-like language when negotiating meaning and interacting with more competent interlocutors. In the classroom, teachers are the interlocutors that allow learners to interact with more knowledgeable others. Chen (2016) states that "stronger students can also learn from such interactions by creating an appropriate sociolinguistically conversation with someone less capable than them and by consolidating their existing knowledge when explaining to and supporting a weaker student" (p. 338). However, the interaction hypothesis is limited as it considers the negotiation of meaning just as a source of comprehensible input and ignores the role of comprehensible output (Ellis, 2015). Krashen's (1985) input hypothesis proposes that L2 acquisition is entirely input-driven, and learners need compressible input, which is slightly more advanced than their current level to master a foreign language. He argues that interaction may facilitate the acquisition, but it is not necessary or sufficient for it. Swain's (1985) comprehensible output hypothesis, on the other hand, suggests that learners need opportunities to produce output to achieve higher proficiency in L2.

Schmidt and Frota (1986) argue that "a second language learner will begin to acquire the target-like form only if it is present in comprehended input and 'noticed' in the normal sense of the word, that is consciously" (p. 311). Schmidt (1990, 2001, 2010) developed his argument as the noticing hypothesis, which claims that learners need to notice the linguistic features in the input by giving conscious attention to certain forms and structures to achieve higher proficiency in L2. Interaction with the teacher may provide learners with opportunities that noticing can take place.

Until the 1970s and 1980s, teacher talk studies were concerned with the phonological, lexical, grammatical, and discoursal properties (Ellis, 2012). Paralanguage, which includes voice pitch, volume, tempo, intensity, pauses, and silences, is one of the significant characteristics of nonverbal communication in the classroom. The loud, soft, or quiet voice may signal negative or positive messages to learners. The total nonverbal style of teachers is one of the most salient features of effective teaching (Babad, 2007). While paralinguistic

devices are significant to teacher-student communication, the content, nature, features, and amount of teacher talk are other influential components that might affect students' engagement with learning.

In the 1980s and early 1990s, the use of L1 (first language) was questioned and even harshly criticised (Cook, 2001). The use of L1 in foreign language classrooms remains a controversial issue because different approaches to L2 acquisition and learning propose contradictory ideas on the merits and shortcomings of the use of L1 in the classroom (Bruen & Kelly, 2014; Ellis, 2012). While some scholars argue that language teachers should maximise the target language use as much as possible to expose learners to the input in the target language (Canale & Swain, 1980; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003; Valdés, 1998), others highlight the usefulness of some use of L1 (Cook, 2001; Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009).

Until 2000, minimising teacher talk was considered an effective strategy to create more opportunities for students to produce language output. In the early 2000s, notions like teacher talking time were still important, whereas the focus shifted more to the quality of teacher talk (Cullen, 1998). However, determining norms of quality teacher talk in foreign language classrooms is not straightforward. Ellis (2012) proposes a framework and list of ideas for quality foreign language teacher talk. However, he acknowledges that making judgements about the merit and usefulness of the norms of communicative and non-communicative talk is challenging due to the context-specific nature of teaching and learning. For example, echoing learners' utterances is usually considered time-consuming and redundant, but the teacher may have a rationale or communicative purpose for echoing in a large class to make sure everyone heard what the student said (Cullen, 1998). The awareness of teacher talk is a vital skill for language teachers, but it is difficult to offer prescription fits for all settings. Teachers can use different forms of teacher talk based on the context they teach; however, they should have a communicative purpose to support student engagement and better learning. Instead of minimising the amount of teacher talk without a rationale, it is better to adjust the ways and amount of teacher talk based on the contextual factors in which the learning takes place (Ellis, 2015).

Teachers of English, especially novice ones, may not realise how difficult their language might be for learners to understand (Stanley & Stevenson, 2017). One strategy teachers can use to maintain effective communication with learners is speech simplification or foreigner talk, which is similar to the parents' way of talking to babies to make their language easy to understand (Wooldridge, 2001). As Krashen (1985) suggests that learners need comprehensible input to acquire an L2, simplified talk can increase the amount of comprehensible input that learners are exposed to.

Self-Evaluation of Teacher Talk (SETT)

A reflective mode that can be used to evaluate or self-reflect on teachers' language use is the SETT framework (Walsh, 2006). The framework consists of four classroom micro-contexts (called modes) and fourteen interactional features (called interactures). Walsh (2006) categorised these micro-contents as managerial mode, classroom context mode, skills and systems mode and materials mode. McCarthy and Clancy (2019) explain and exemplify each mode with examples. According to McCarthy and Clancy, the managerial mode deals with the transfer of information, the introduction of the learning materials, initiation and completion of activities and organisation of the learning environment. Interactional features of the managerial mode are long teacher talk, transition markers, and confirmatory expressions. There is no or little student involvement in this mode. The second mode, materials, defines exchanges driven by language practice based on learning materials that engage learners and teachers in discussing target items. Thus, learners find opportunities to ask questions, respond to tokens, and ask follow-up questions in naturally occurring contexts in which they can customise the materials and switch to classroom context mode. The skills and system mode accounts for both systems-controlled, form-focused instruction (phonology, grammar, etc.) and the skills such as reading and listening. This focused practice of systems and skills involves engagement in language as discourse. For example, in authentic texts, verb tenses are taught through contextualised form-focused instruction using tense-aspect choices for politeness and directness. Finally, in the classroom context mode, students co-construct the discourse to create opportunities for genuine communications. As learners practise speaking skills naturally in this mode, they have the chance to experiment with strategies such as holding the floor, changing the topic and using natural turn-openers

and responses. Teachers can scaffold this through post-activity feedback. Instead of focusing on language form, teachers should focus on discourse features of learners' talk, which require communicative competence such as (in)appropriacy or (im)politeness based on cultural and contextual conditions.

Assumptions of SETT are consistent with the ICAP framework (Chi & Wylie, 2014), which assumes learning events that enable learners to co-construct knowledge through meaningful interactions achieve the highest level of student engagement. Promoting passive, active, constructive or interactive modes of engagement proposed by the ICAP framework is closely related to classroom discourse. The teacher is responsible for monitoring and maintaining appropriate discourse in the classroom. McCarthy and Clancy (2019) argue that teacher education should provide teachers with the knowledge of discourse and the skills required to become discourse analysts:

> If our goal truly is to move from system to discourse, teacher education has to support teachers' professional development in not only gaining knowledge of discourse, but in becoming discourse analysts themselves, in their own classrooms, and constantly questioning the degree to which they seize upon and develop opportunities for creating the conditions that will lead to the emergence of natural discourse, whether it be in their interactions with students or in the interactions they set up among them. (p. 212).

Teacher Questions

Another component of classroom discourse that affects student engagement is teacher questions which promote "productive" conversation (Pehmer et al., 2015). In every lesson, teachers ask many questions to learners for many purposes such as elicitation, checking students' understanding, increasing attention and promoting engagement. Questions that teachers ask can significantly affect classroom interactions' quantity and quality during learning events (Brock, 1986). While questions with exact yes-no answers may inhibit engagement and make learners feel anxious due to the possibility of failure, open-ended questions that promote constructive learning enhance better learning outcomes

(Oliveira, 2010) and engagement (Tan et al., 2022). In constructivist or social-constructivist teaching, teachers pose students questions that encourage higher-order thinking skills. For instance, dialogic teaching (Alexander, 2006) requires questions that provoke thoughtful answers to encourage further questions. Dialogic classrooms promote better learning outcomes and higher levels of student engagement (Gamoran et al., 1995; Kelly, 2007; Nystrand, 1997). In language teaching, teachers can prefer referential questions which intend to achieve a real communicative purpose (e.g., "What did you do at the weekend?") rather than display questions that teachers attempt to test learners' knowledge or understanding (e.g., "comprehension questions on a reading text") through questions whose answers are already known (Cullen, 1998, p. 181). When teachers ask thought-provoking questions rather than evaluating what students know, they reduce the risk of negative evaluations and promote student engagement (Kelly, 2007).

Instructions

Another prompt or stimulus that teachers use to engage learners in EFL classrooms is instructions. Instructions are oral or written directories teachers use to initiate a task or activity. Teachers use several kinds of instructions in the classroom for many purposes, such as classroom management, warning, clarification, drawing students' attention, and engaging them with a task. Clarity of instructions is important because learners can only engage in the task successfully if they know what they should do exactly.

There are different levels of instructions that teachers use. ICAP framework (Chi & Wylie, 2014) categorises instructions as passive, active, constructive, and interactive prompts. Passive instructions are the ones that require little cognitive demand. Teachers usually use them for managerial purposes. These instructions do not require cognitive engagement. Instructions like "listen to the recording, read the text are straightforward and do not require physical activity and cognitive demand. Active instructions direct students to perform the physical activity by attending the learning event cognitively at the same time. According to the ICAP framework, these are more engaging than passive ones. Learners sitting at a desk without doing anything are more likely to disengage during learning activities. Therefore, active instructions help teachers to increase engagement. Constructive

instructions direct students to higher-order thinking skills. Teachers can use constructive instructions such as "construct, analyse, classify, paraphrase, compare and develop" to promote higher-order thinking skills and better engagement. Finally, interactive instructions can be defined as the most engaging ones because the primary purpose of an EFL course is to promote interactions. Interactive instructions aim at initiating a co-constructive dialogue in which learners engage with a peer or in a group. Interactive instruction should include a constructive prompt that directs learners to think critically (Chi & Wylie, 2014).

2.3.2. Responses: Responding to Student Behaviours and Learning

Responses in the ARPIM framework refer to teachers' responses to student learning and behaviours. Teachers respond to student learning and behaviours in many ways. They answer the questions that students ask, provide feedback, praise positive behaviours, and respond to undesirable student behaviours such as noise, failing to do assignments and playing with electronic devices. These teacher responses to students may promote or inhibit student engagement.

Feedback

Teacher feedback is one of the powerful tools to promote student engagement (Man et al., 2020; To, 2021; Tindage & Myers, 2020; Zhang & Hyland, 2018; Zhang, 2021). Hattie's (1999) synthesis of 500 meta-analyses, including 180 000 individual studies and representing approximately 20-30 million students, indicates that feedback is one of the most influential factors in student learning and achievement. Teachers using feedback promote increased behavioural and academic outcomes, motivation, a sense of self-efficacy, more time on task, and fewer disruptive behaviours (Harbour et al., 2014).

In EFL and ESL (English as a second language) research, the feedback was traditionally associated with summative evaluation and correction of errors in L2 writing and speaking courses, but it became more formative, facilitative, and systematic over time (Mulliner & Tucker, 2015). In contemporary classrooms, teachers respond to students' errors, mistakes and learning using various forms of feedback such as explicit, implicit and

metalinguistic feedback, error correction, recasts, praising, acknowledgement and reformulation.

While studies indicate learners' preference for corrective teacher feedback (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Leki, 1991), too much feedback may negatively impact students' performance and learning (Ackerman & Gross, 2010; Hattie & Timberly, 2007). Although most students prefer comprehensive error correction, correcting all errors might be frustrating for students (Lee, 2004). While correcting some students overtly may negatively impact their motivation and performance, it may not be an embarrassing matter for some learners (Seedhouse, 1997). The choices of the type, delivery and frequency of teacher feedback are closely related to the contextual factors and learners' individual preferences for feedback. While giving feedback, teachers should consider several factors such as the purpose of the activity, learners' individual characteristics and preferences, contextual factors and type of error (Hattie & Timberly, 2007). Teachers should make judgments about the consequences of their teaching behaviours and the effects these decisions create on learners.

Feedback is not only limited to the correction of errors. Feedback should focus on the learning process to direct students to re-thinking and re-constructing their understanding rather than telling them what is right or wrong. Teachers can also provide self-regulation feedback, which encourages autonomy, self-monitoring, and regulation of learning (Pehmer et al., 2015). Providing high-quality feedback, helping students develop metacognitive skills, and empowering students as partners in the learning process create a positive learning environment that promotes motivation and engagement (Barkley, 2010).

Responding to Misbehaviour

All learners may perform misbehaviour at one time or another (Çoban, 2015). Even ordinary everyday misbehaviours such as "speaking out of turn, leaving one's seat during class, refusing to follow directions, being late to class or school, talking back to the teacher, and using an electronic device interferes with teaching and learning and can potentially interrupt all students' engagement in the classroom" (Finn & Zimmer, 2012, p. 100).

Teachers may ignore some of these behaviours unless they are disruptive and consistent. However, these mild misbehaviours may still cause more severe problems such as bullying and cheating at further stages (Broidy et al., 2003). Therefore, the ability to deal with misbehaviours in the classroom is essential to the teachers.

Teachers' first impulse to misbehaviour may be to react angrily or punish students. However, punishment may have a negative impact that increases further misbehaviours (Wong, 2004). Instant reactions and punishment may deteriorate the situation and result in a more overwhelming experience for the learners and the teacher. Teachers should remind themselves they are the ones who are responsible and who can solve these behaviour problems with motivational and instructional support. Instead of responding to misbehaviour with punishment or instant reactions, teachers should focus on the causes of the undesired and disruptive behaviours (Johnson et al., 2019). They should see student misbehaviour as an opportunity to realise and solve a problem that the learners experience (Fredricks, 2014). Students might try to get a message across these behaviours (Beaton & Beaton, 2019), or sometimes students may not realise that they disturb or distract others (Johnson et al., 2017).

While there are several causes of student misbehaviour, such as personal skill deficiencies (e.g., lack of discipline, lack of empathy), academic skill deficiencies (e.g., poor planning, inability to engage), health management (e.g., lack of sleep, drug and alcohol abuse) (Johnson et al., 2019), the discussion of student misbehaviour is incomplete without emphasising the role of teacher misbehaviour. Kearney et al. (1991) define three major teacher misbehaviours that learners experience: incompetence, offensiveness, and indolence. Incompetence behaviours refer to the lack of fundamental skills and knowledge of learning and teaching. Offensive teachers indicate cruelty, meanness, and condescension toward students. Indolence includes teachers' lack of attention and care for learners. Teacher misbehaviours are associated with reduced learning, motivation, engagement, and increased student misbehaviour (Borzea & Goodboy, 2016; Broeckelman-Post et al., 2015). Therefore, teachers must approach student misbehaviour professionally rather than being reactive to prevent disengagement. How teachers respond to student misbehaviour can potentially impact their engagement with school and learning.

2.3.3. Pedagogical Tools

ARPIM framework defines pedagogical tools as measures and tools teachers use to get students to engage with learning. There are countless pedagogical tools for teachers in everyday classrooms. ARPIM framework defines major categories of pedagogical tools influencing student engagement as conventional learning materials, assessment and digital learning materials.

Conventional Learning Materials

Learning materials refer to tools that teachers use to support, encourage and promote student engagement. The first associations for course materials might be printed materials like coursebooks, worksheets and supplementary materials. Nevertheless, in foreign language teaching, materials are all kinds of "sources of language input" (Tomlinson, 2011, p. 2), measures and processes used to support acquisition and learning. McGrath (2013) categorises materials as "materials-as content" and "materials-as-language" (pp. 4-5). All kinds of learning materials, including coursebooks, worksheets, gadgets, artefacts and realia, may influence learners' engagement with learning. Educators consider several criteria, such as price, availability, layout, and content while selecting and designing learning materials. Another significant criterion should be whether these materials are likely to promote learner engagement.

EFL/ESL textbooks developed by global publishers may not meet contextual needs. These textbooks address an international audience. Therefore, their contents, exercises, tasks and activities may not be meaningful, relevant or essential to some contexts. For instance, knowledge of pronunciation is essential for EFL learners, but that does not mean teachers must focus on every single pronunciation exercise in coursebooks. Sound patterns that Turkish learners find difficult might be different from Arabic or Chinese EFL learners. EFL teachers working in the Turkish context might skip some of the pronunciation parts that their learners efficiently use or add extra exercises to practice sound patterns Turkish learners have difficulty pronouncing.

Textbooks may help teachers in many ways by providing a map and guidelines for teaching and saving time and effort. In schools where sources and PD opportunities are limited, coursebooks provide teachers with linguistic, cultural, and methodological support. Both students and instructors learn from coursebooks. Still, they are not magical books that deal with everything and address all learners' interests and needs globally. Adjustments and supplementary materials should support textbooks. Instead of shaping all decisions, testing, and classroom activities based on textbooks, a backward design in which instructional objectives are determined prior to material selection would be a better alternative to support students' learning and engagement (McGrath, 2013).

Digital Learning Materials

Integration of technology into education is the most defining characteristic of contemporary classrooms. Teachers and researchers have been interested in notions like classroom management, feedback, discourse, assessment, methodology and motivation for many years. However, the introduction of countless technology into schools has become a game-changer for over a decade. It is now an indispensable part of education that all learners and teachers use somehow and has become like paper and pencil in everyday classrooms. Even teachers who find technology redundant or are afraid to use it benefit from technology in many ways without realising how much they have become dependent on it. Computers, projectors, speakers, mobile phones, and smartboards have become so ordinary that most teachers do not consider these tools technologies. Several digital tools that have been developed for other purposes have been integrated into language learning. With the widespread use of smartphones and mobile devices, technology has become more accessible. Introduction of web 2.0. technologies have made creating internet content a simple everyday routine for many teachers and learners. Technology brings teachers and learners several opportunities. It saves time, effort and money. However, one critical question that educators should consider is whether technology always promotes better learning and engagement.

Effective use of technology is a skill both learners and teachers should possess. Studies showed the utility of technology in promoting student engagement (Campbell et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2010; Lee & Hannafin, 2016; Lindquist & Long, 2011). Technology

positively impacts engagement indicators such as enjoyment, improved confidence, positive attitudes, and better relationship with peers and teachers, but it requires using relevant and appropriate tools and pedagogy (Bond et al., 2020). Otherwise, the use of technology does not always guarantee increased student engagement.

TPACK Framework

ARPIM framework does not consider technology different from other kinds of pedagogical tools. Technology is not a magic tool to increase student engagement. Like other pedagogical tools, its effectiveness in enhancing student engagement heavily depends on teachers' content and pedagogical knowledge. ''Good teaching remains good teaching with or without the technology'' (Higgins et al., 2007, p. 215). Every piece of technology can be exploited to support learning and engagement as long as it is meaningful and relevant to students' needs and interests and target learning outcomes.

One framework often used to assess teachers' ability to integrate technology into education is the technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK) framework (Koehler & Mishra, 2009; Mishra & Koehler, 2006). TPACK framework assumes that teachers' effective use of technology, pedagogy and content are separate knowledge domains. Teachers can only promote student learning by addressing learners' different needs and effectively using all three domains (Alemdağ et al., 2019). While technology offers many opportunities in teaching and learning, minimal or superficial use of educational technology due to teachers' lack of competence and confidence in using and applying it may even negatively impact learning (Li et al., 2019). Studies show that teachers might be reluctant to use technology in teaching when they do not feel confident and competent. Two crucial factors determining teachers' technology use are their beliefs (Ertmer, 2005; Deng et al., 2014) and technology acceptance (Davis, 1989).

SAMR Model

SAMR (substitution, augmentation, modification, and redefinition) model proposed by Puentedura (2006) helps teachers conceptualise how they can stimulate technology in a

meaningful and relevant way. The model categorises different levels of the use of technology as substitution, augmentation, modification and redefinition. Substitution and augmentation activities support or enhance learning rather than transforming it. Substitution refers to the replacement of traditional printed learning materials with digital ones. For instance, learners can find and read articles on their mobile devices instead of textbooks. Substitution activities may help teachers reduce time, energy and financial costs spent on the learning activities. These activities may help teachers and learners get easy and fast access to resources. Still, in learning contexts where this activity can be done with printed material, substitution is not likely to create a significant change in engagement. Augmentation occurs when technology substitutes other learning activities with functional improvements. When the same reading passages accessed via mobile devices are transformed based on the learning objectives and other course materials, this is classified as augmentation in the SAMR model. For instance, teachers may write comprehension questions using these texts or have learners write questions about the text that they read and ask them to a peer.

On the other hand, modification and redefinition transform learning using technology apart from enhancing it (Puentedura, 2013). Modification occurs when the task of using technology enhances learning and redesigns the classroom tasks or activities. To illustrate, teachers find and share an authentic reading text with learners on a blog page or a learning management system such as Microsoft Teams or Edmodo. Then, learners read the text, take notes, create questions and share it with friends on the same platform, asking and answering questions. In such a learning activity, the learning material is substituted, augmented, and modified to enable learners' opportunities for comprehension and production of authentic language use in the classroom. However, similar activities can still be conducted without technology.

While technology supports and enhances learning, it can be replaced by other pedagogical tools such as printed texts and pictures. However, doing some learning activities is not possible in the everyday classroom without technology. With web 2.0. tools, learners can create contents that improve their information technology, language and 21st-century learning skills (creativity, collaboration, critical thinking, communication). For instance, teachers can use Google Docs to get learners to write essays collaborating with peers. Learners create mind maps on Mentimeter, working with their peers without time and place

constraints. They can discuss an issue without the time and place limitations using Flipgrid. Redefinition in the SAMR model refers to learning events that are not possible to implement without technology.

Flipped Learning

Another way teachers use technology to increase student engagement is flipped learning. Flipped learning is different from blended learning environments, which combine online and face-to-face education. In a face-to-face or blended learning environment, instruction or lecturing is followed by a piece of assignment or homework. Flipped learning reverses this process by providing the lecture or instruction online prior to face-to-face classroom activities (Bergmann & Sams, 2012). In this modality, teachers can use asynchronous online video lessons before face-to-face courses to replace teacher-led classroom instruction. Videos can be ready-made ones that they have found on content platforms such as YouTube, Ted Talks and Khan Academy, or they can prepare their own videos or screencasts. Face-to-face course time is used for more engaging activities which require construction and interaction. Passive learning activities like teacher instruction are delivered to learners before the face-to-face lesson. Thus, opportunities for engagement are maximised during face-to-face co-construction of knowledge (Hung, 2014).

Testing and Assessment

One factor that potentially affects students' engagement with learning is how their success is assessed. Learners are more likely to engage in tasks and skills that they will be assessed and ignore the ones they are not being asked in the exams. Therefore, teachers' assessment literacy plays a significant role in engaging learners. Assessment literacy refers to teachers' ability to design, select, and implement appropriate assessment tools to evaluate students' learning gains and success (Quilter & Gallini, 2000). While it is significant to learning and engagement, some teacher education programs do not offer courses on how to develop exams and exam items. Many teachers prepare and implement tests without taking any courses in their pre-service and in-service teacher education (Quilter & Gallini, 2000).

Tests are used for many purposes, such as "transfer, placement, diagnosis, guidance, school choice, institution monitoring, resource allocation, organizational intervention and programme evaluation" (Newton, 2007, p.161). Regardless of the purpose of using them, tests have considerable impacts on how learners learn, how teachers teach, selection of classroom materials, curriculum and syllabus design, methodology, degree, and depth of learning (Bailey 1998; Hughes, 2003; Pearson, 1988; Alderson & Wall, 1993). The effect of testing on teaching and learning is defined as washback or "backwash" (Hughes, 2003, p. 1). Depending on the quality of the test and assessment, the washback effect might be negative or positive (Hughes, 2003). In some school contexts where tests are the primary concern of learning and teaching activities rather than assessment or measurement tools, it is likely to see a negative washback effect. When grades and exam scores are the primary concern of education, teachers may find themselves preparing students for the exams that they or someone else prepares. They may desperately try to catch up with the pacing to get learners ready for the next exam rather than focusing on authentic language learning. Madaus (1988) describes such kind of education as "psychometric imperialism", which destroys creativity, and limits students, teachers and the whole curriculum (p. 84).

Teachers are influential in determining the effect of testing in classroom activities (Johnson, 1992; Rea-Dickins, 2004). Alderson and Wall's (1993) study conducted in Sri Lanka on teaching toward TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) revealed that teachers usually brought the washback effect to the classroom. Depending on the teachers' assessment literacy, this effect could be positive or negative. Preparing tests or exams, writing items and assessing them require a great deal of assessment literacy. Both technical and pedagogical aspects of assessment require the knowledge of reliability and validity checks, evaluation processes, and pedagogical implications. Tests or exams are indirect measures used to evaluate learners' success. Therefore, absolute objectivity is almost impossible (Broadfoot, 2005). Even multiple-choice items are only objective in scoring because all assessments involve professional judgement (Broadfoot, 2005). No tests can perfectly measure students' success, potential, strengths and weakness, and the results of tests might have significant consequences for learners. They may affect learners' focus, motivation, commitment, and retention. If educators fail to assess learner success properly and adequately, it might influence learning and engagement negatively.

Tests must be judged for their technical efficiency and contribution to learning (Spence-Brown, 2001). They are not just tools of summative assessments; they are also formative pedagogical tools that may support and promote better learning and engagement (Messick, 1996). Tests are so influential in language learning that even some simple mistakes may create significant issues. For instance, if the tests' contents are easily predictable, learners may ignore the rest of the contents and learning activities (Hughes, 2003). Formative assessment tools and processes focusing on the process of learning rather than the end product may foster better learner outcomes and engagement.

Even though several alternative assessment tools such as portfolios, projects, and tasks have been proven to be effective in promoting and evaluating students' learning, standardised tests still dominate much of the assessment procedures. One reason could be educators' beliefs and attitudes towards exams and assessment shaped by several factors such as their perceptions, experiences, and education (pre-service and in-service). Teachers usually believe that tests promote better learning and motivation (Brown, 2008; Gebril & Brown, 2013; Harris & Brown, 2009; Karp & Woods, 2008). It is a valid argument that standardised tests may promote learning, engagement and better learning outcomes (Adesope et al., 2017). Nevertheless, it depends heavily on the design, implementation and evaluation processes. Furthermore, they are not the only effective instrument to enhance learning.

Exam-oriented teaching is not always the teachers' choice. It may also be caused by top-down school administration policies, national education policies and centralised high-stake exams (Kirkpatrick & Zang, 2011). Teachers should be encouraged to focus more on formative and continuing assessment than summative exams considering the effects of tests on learning and teaching. The necessity of objective, valid and reliable exams and assessment in education cannot be ignored. However, it may sometimes turn into the primary concern of learners, teachers, parents, and policymakers. Educators should never forget that the purpose of education is to facilitate and promote learning. Measuring or assessing learning should not be the primary concern of education. Instead, the role of assessment should be to improve the quality of learning (Broadfoot, 2005).

The assessment also impacts learners' engagement in language learning tasks (Levi, 2012; Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006; Spence-Brown, 2001). When teachers and learners focus too much on success on exams, the content and scope of exams may dominate all learning activities (Alderson & Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Hughes, 2003). For instance, if learners' speaking skills are not tested at all and exams mainly focus on grammar, students are more likely to focus on grammar than speaking. If teachers do not assess the skills they intend to improve, learners will probably overlook or underestimate them.

2.3.4. Instructional Methodology

In the ARPIM framework, instructional methodology accounts for the approaches, methods, techniques, and activities teachers employ to engage learners during learning events. In foreign language teaching, engagement-based instruction is emphasised in communicative language teaching (CLT). Indeed, CLT is not a single method or approach. Instead, it is an umbrella term used for various approaches to language teaching in the so-called post-methods era (Kumaravadivelu, 2008; Richards & Rodgers, 2001), such as project-based learning, content-based learning, task-based learning and inquiry-based learning. These approaches are engaging, challenging, learner-centred, active, relevant, valuable and autonomy-rich (Mercer & Dörnyei, 2020).

One of the essential qualities of an engaging task is that it must be "sufficiently challenging (McKeachie, 1994). Vygotsky's (1978) zone of proximal development model of social-constructivist theory suggests that learning occurs when learners face situations that are slightly more advanced than their current level. Such a challenge provides learners with opportunities to improve and progress. Consistent with Vygotsky's (1978) ideas, Krashen (1985) argues that to acquire an L2, learners need comprehensible input, which is slightly more advanced than their current level. Barkley (2010) states that "working at the optimal challenge level creates synergy because it straddles both motivation and active learning" (p. 27). Therefore, teachers should design sufficiently challenging tasks and activities considering learners' levels.

Another common characteristic of engaging instructional methodology is that they rely on active learning, which is an umbrella term for several kinds of learner-centred and autonomy-rich instruction. Barkley (2010) postulates that "student engagement is a process and a product that is experienced on a continuum and results from the synergistic interaction between motivation and active learning" (p. 8). The ICAP framework proposed by Chi and Wylie (2014) provides a comprehensive framework that defines and differentiates modes of learning regarding how they engage students with learning.

ICAP Framework: Promoting Active Learning Outcomes

Chi and Wylie's (2014) ICAP (interactive, constructive, active, and passive) framework is a cognitive theory that defines and differentiates different modes of cognitive engagement by observable behavioural measures. ICAP theory proposes that small-grain-sized overt behavioural measures can be the indicators of cognitive engagement, which promote differentiated learning outcomes resulting in better learning and engagement. The theory's basic tenet is that engagement behaviours can be categorised and differentiated into four modes: interactive, constructive, active, and passive. The theory assumes that learners are more engaged with the learning materials from passive to active, to constructive, to the interactive mode, which means interactive mode achieves the highest learning outcomes and engagement. The changes in learners' knowledge differentiate in each mode (see Figure 5).

CATEGORY Characteristic	PASSIVE Receiving	ACTIVE Manipulating	CONSTRUCTIVE Generating	INTERACTIVE Dialoguing
Example activities	Listening to explanations; Watching a video	Taking verbatim notes; Highlighting sentences	Self-explaining; Comparing and contrasting	Discussing with a peer; Drawing a diagram with a partner
Knowledge-change processes	Isolated "storing" processes in which information is stored episodically in encapsulated form without embedding it in a relevant schema, no integration	"Integrating" processes in which the selected & emphasized information activates prior knowledge & schema, & new information can be assimilated into the activated schema.	"Inferring" processes include: integrating new information with prior knowledge; inferring new knowledge; connecting, comparing & contrasting different pieces of new information to infer new knowledge; analogizing, generalizing, reflecting on conditions of a procedure, explaining why something works.	"Co-inferring" processes involve both partners taking turns mutually creating. This mutuality further benefits from opportunities & processes to incorporate feedback, to entertain new ideas, alternative perspectives, new directions, etc.
Expected changes in knowledge	New knowledge is stored, but stored in an encapsulated way.	Existing schema is more complete, coherent, salient, and strengthened.	New inferences create new knowledge beyond what was encoded, thus existing schema may become more enriched; procedures may be elaborated with meaning, rationale and justifications; and mental models may be accommodated; and schema may be linked with other schemas.	New knowledge and perspectives can emerge from co-creating knowledge that neither partner knew.
Expected cognitive outcomes	Recall: knowledge can be recalled verbatim in identical context (e.g., reuse the same procedure or explanation for identical problems or concepts).	Apply: knowledge can be applied to similar but non-identical contexts (i.e., similar problems or concepts that need to be explained)	Transfer: knowledge of procedures can be applied to a novel context or distant problem; knowledge of concepts permit interpretation & explanations of new concepts.	Co-create: knowledge and perspectives can allow partners to invent new products, interpretations, procedures, and ideas.
Learning outcomes: ICAP	Minimal understanding	Shallow understanding	Deep understanding, potential for transfer	Deepest understanding, potential to innovate novel ideas

Figure 5. Activities, knowledge-change processes, knowledge changes, cognitive outcomes, and learning outcomes by mode of engagement. From "The ICAP Framework: Linking Cognitive Engagement to Active Learning Outcomes" by M. T. H. Chi & R. Wylie, 2014, *Educational Psychologist*, 49:4, pp. 219-243. Copyright 2014 by Taylor & Francis. Reprinted with permission

Passive mode refers to storing the knowledge and the ability to recall. In passive mode, learners are passive receivers of information provided through instructional materials, such as listening to a recording without taking notes and showing or performing any observable or overt learning behaviour. The ICAP theory acknowledges that students might covertly process the information deeply as they listen to a lecture without doing anything. However, such kind of engagement may not be maintained and controlled by most learners.

The ICAP framework defines active mode as learning events that require motoric or physical manipulations. Engagement with instructional materials can be considered active when overt motoric action or physical manipulation occurs during the learning event. Based on this definition of active learning, the literature suggests several examples of active overt behaviours, such as rotating objects and looking for objects by following instructions. However, the framework distinguishes motoric activities done without conscious attention or deep learning, such as reading a text aloud from active learning activities. The active mode should include motoric action and actively processing knowledge during the learning experience. Some examples of active learning activities are repeating or rehearsing, rotating objects, underlining or highlighting and walking around the class to interview peers.

Different definitions exist for the notion of constructivism and constructivist learning. One of the standard views is that learners should construct their knowledge or understanding by going beyond what is being told or instructed by the teacher (Chi & Wylie, 2014). The ICAP framework views constructive mode as generative learning in which students make inferences about the knowledge apart from the one provided to them, establish links with other schemas, and facilitate the transfer of new knowledge into meaningful learning outcomes. The constructive mode includes activities such as "drawing a concept map, taking notes in one's own words, asking questions, posing problems, comparing and contrasting cases, integrating two texts, or integrating text and diagrams, or integrating across multimedia resources, making plans, inducing hypotheses and causal relations, drawing analogies, generating predictions, reflecting and monitoring one's understanding and other self-regulatory activities, constructing timelines for historical phenomena, and so forth" (Chi & Wylie, 2014, p. 222).

Interactive Mode

The ICAP framework operationalises interactive activities to dialogues that meet two criteria: "(a) both partners' utterances must be primarily constructive, and (b) a sufficient degree of turn-taking must occur" (Chi & Wylie, 2014, p. 223). For instance, when students interact only at some physical or motoric level without discourse, such as students reading a text to each other aloud, that does not mean they are interacting constructively. The

interactive mode requires co-creating, co-constructing or co-inferring new knowledge with another interlocutor within a dialogue or discourse irrespective of whom they are interacting (e.g., a peer, a teacher, a parent, or a computer agent) by taking turns mutually to co-create the new knowledge during a learning experience.

2.3.5. Teacher Motivation Style

Educational and psychological research provides enough evidence to show the link between teacher behaviour and student motivation (Skinner & Belmont, 1993). Teacher motivation style, which is the interpersonal tone and behaviours that teachers employ to engage learners, is a critical determinant of student engagement (Reeve, 2009, 2016). Like student engagement, teachers' motivation style is malleable; thus, high-quality student engagement can be achieved (Reeve, 2012).

Major Theories of Motivation

Since motivation has taken great attention from different domains, several theories exist to define, explain, differentiate and categorise it. Some of these theories which are closely related to student engagement are self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 1985), social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986), attribution theory (Weiner, 1979, 1985, 1986) and expectancy-value theory (Eccles et al., 1983).

Self-Determination Theory (SDT)

SDT is a theory of human behaviour and personality development. (Ryan & Deci, 2017). The theory argues that people have three basic universal psychological needs; "autonomy (need to self-regulate one's experiences and actions), competence (need to feel effectance and mastery), and relatedness (need to experience social connectedness through warm, close, responsive, and reciprocal care within one's relationships)" (Ryan & Deci, 2017, pp. 10-11). The satisfaction of these needs may foster or inhibit student motivation and engagement. SDT acknowledges that learners may lack self-motivation, display

disaffection, and act irresponsibly (Reeve, 2012). SDT research identifies classroom conditions that might support and activate learners' inner motivation to enhance varying levels of student engagement. As SDT research has advanced over time, the following mini theories were proposed to explain these motivational phenomena (see figure 6). Reeve (2012) presents five mini theories concerning SDT: "basic needs theory, organismic integration theory, goal contents theory, cognitive evaluation theory, and causality orientations theory" (p. 150).
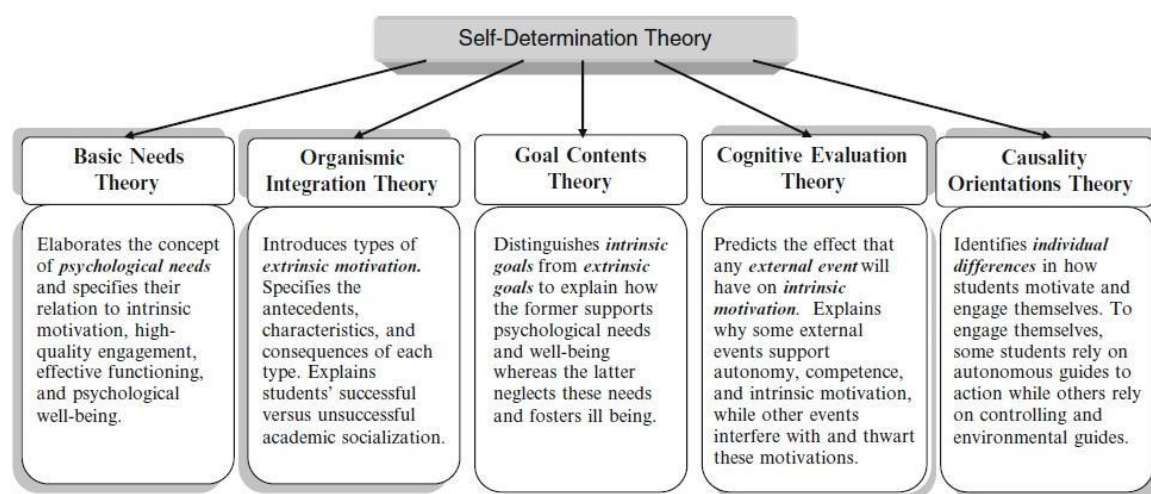
Figure 6. Five mini-theories of self-determination theory. From "A self-determination theory perspective on student engagement "by Christenson, A. L. Reschly, & C. Wylie (Eds.), *Handbook of research on student engagement*, p. 149–172. Copyright 2012 by Springer. Reprinted with permission

Self-Efficacy Theory, Attribution Theory, and Self-Worth Models

Students' expectations of themselves are closely related to how they perceive themselves. Three motivational theories which address student expectations are self-efficacy theory, attribution theory, and self-worth models (Cross & Steadman, 1996). Self-worth (Covington & Berry, 1976) and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977, 1982) theories highlight the importance of learners' perceptions of themselves in achieving goals or succeeding in learning events. Self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977, 1982) suggests that learners' beliefs about what they can achieve can be more influential than what they can achieve. When learners believe that they can perform a task successfully, they will be engaged to do it.

On the other hand, the self-worth model argues that individuals are intensely protective of their image, namely their "self-worth. Therefore, they prefer to be judged by their performance rather than their ability when they fail. Attribution theory (Weiner, 1979) argues that learners attribute a range of factors to success and failure, such as ability, effort, luck, fatigue, ease or difficulty of the exam, etc. While some learners attribute success or failure to external forces, others may attribute failure or success to internal forces. Attributions consist of three main dimensions: "locus (whether failure or success is attributed to causes internal or external to the learner); stability (whether the attributed cause is permanent or temporary); and controllability (whether the learner has the power to influence success or failure)" (Barkley, 2010, p. 12).

Expectancy-Value Theory

The expectancy-value theory argues that people's expectations of success for a learning task and the value they attach to it determine how well they do the task and their likeliness to pursue it (Atkinson, 1957; Eccles et al., 1983). In other words, when learners are confident that they will be able to perform a task successfully and that the task is meaningful to them, they are more likely to engage in the task and pursue doing it. If they do not believe they will be able to successfully complete the task or do not believe in the task's worthiness, they are not likely to engage with the task. Research indicates that expectations for success and task value are separate but correlated constructs; expectations for success may predict individuals' later task value (Leaper, 2012). In contrast, when learners perceive a task or assignment as too hard, they may not be willing to attempt it or quit due to anxiety of failure and low expectations of success (Schunk, 1991). The theory differentiates four components: "attainment value (i.e., the importance of doing well), intrinsic value (i.e., personal enjoyment), utility value (i.e., perceived usefulness for future goals), and cost (i.e., competition with other goals)" (Leaper, 2012, p. 359).

L2 Motivational Self System

Ellis (1997) states that "motivation involves the attitudes and affective states that influence the degree of effort that learners make to learn an L2" (p. 75). Various kinds of

motivation have been defined in the literature; instrumental, integrative, resultative, and intrinsic. Dörnyei (2005) argues that motivation is a cyclic process with at least three distinct stages. According to Dörnyei, the first stage of this process is the generation of L2 motivation. Then, L2 motivation needs to be maintained and protected. The final phase is motivational retrospection. Learners need to evaluate the learning experience retrospectively to judge how things went. This stage determines the kind of activities they will be motivated to pursue in the future.

One of the comprehensive self-theories concerning L2 learning motivation is the L2 motivational self-system consisting of three dimensions: the ideal L2 self, the ought-to self, and the L2 learning experience (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei, 2009; Dörnyei et al., 2006). The ideal L2 self is the "L2-specific facet of one's 'ideal self'" (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 29). It represents the ideal image that learners wish to have in the future. The ideal L2 self is how learners fancy seeing themselves. It is a real and vivid image such as a friend, a native speaker or an international friend. The source of motivation in this dimension is usually integrative and instrumental. The ought-to L2 self "concerns the attributes that one believes one ought to possess to meet expectations and avoid possible negative outcomes" (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 29). In this dimension, extrinsic motivation factors such as pleasing the teacher, family, requirements of a program, or employee expectations are more influential. The L2 learning experience is portrayed as "situated, executive motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience" (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 29). Contextual factors such as teachers, peers, and the curriculum may strongly influence learners' motivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Empirical studies consistently indicate that the L2 learning experience is often the most potent predictor of motivated behaviour (Dörnyei, 2019). However, the L2 learning experience notion did not have clear and measurable boundaries related to other variables affecting L2 motivation. Dörnyei (2009) refined the component of the L2 learning experience to translate it into specific and measurable terms. He provided a more thorough rationale for the theory, focusing on learners' actual learning process.

I also felt that we needed to add a third major constituent, which is associated with the direct impact of the students' learning environment. After all, one of the main achievements of the new wave of motivational studies in the 1990s was to recognise the motivational impact of the main components of the

classroom learning situation, such as the teacher, the curriculum and the learner group. For some language learners, the initial motivation to learn a language does not come from internally or externally generated self-images but rather from successful engagement with the actual language learning process (e.g., because they discover that they are good at it). (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 29)

As Dörnyei (2019) refined the L2 learning experience component, he adopted an engagement-specific perspective. Dörnyei (2019) divided meaningful facets of students' language learning process and L2 learning environment into the following aspects of student engagement:

- school context
- syllabus and the teaching materials
- learning tasks
- one's peers
- teacher (p. 25)

He notes that this list is not conclusive as future research may provide insights into the other aspects. Dörnyei (2019) further argues that the notion of student engagement may offer a "well-defined and sufficiently specific conceptual area that can be customized for use in L2 motivation research" (p. 26).

Autonomy-Supportive Teaching

The significance and effectiveness of personal autonomy in language learning have long been acknowledged. The focus has shifted more towards the ways that support it. Benson (2011) defines learner autonomy as "the capacity to take control of one's own learning" (p. 58). Teachers' ability to support learner autonomy promotes student engagement (Cheon et al., 2018, 2020). Autonomy-supportive teaching is more likely to promote task value, successful educational climates and outcomes. (Grolnick et al., 1991). Some autonomy-supportive teacher actions are "providing choice, encouraging self-

initiation, minimising the use of controls, and acknowledging the other's perspective and feelings" (Assor et al., 2002, p. 262).

In contrast, suppressing criticism and independent opinions, intruding-intervening in ongoing behavioural sequences, and forcing meaningless and uninteresting activities are "autonomy-suppressing" teacher behaviours (Assor et al., 2002, pp. 264-262). While autonomy-supportive styles promote the students' brighter sight, such as engagement, motivation, and adaptive functioning, teacher control creates the reverse of this impact (Reeve, 2016). Autonomy supportive instruction uses an interpersonal tone of understanding through appreciation, and support, targeting learners' psychological needs (Reeve, 2016). Autonomy-supportive teaching may also help learners develop a sense of choice over their learning, increasing the value and relatedness they attach to the learning.

Promoting Positive Group Dynamics

The quality of the relationship between class members and the overall climate of the learning environment impacts student and teacher motivation (Dörnyei & Muir, 2019). A negative classroom atmosphere in which learners are hostile to teachers and peers is an overwhelming experience for learners and teachers, likely to cause disengagement and behavioural problems. However, positive group dynamics have measurable positive effects, such as task motivation and language production (Dörnyei & Muir, 2019). While students may want to engage in some school-related activities just because they like to be a part of the group, they may avoid fitting into certain groups (Lawson & Lawson, 2013). The existence of conditions such as proximity, contact, and interaction among learners, a shared group history, and group extracurricular activities may positively contribute to establishing positive group dynamics (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003).

Building Rapport

Wright et al. (2013) define the term rapport as "a close and interactive relationship that is built upon trust, shared control, and engagement in activities that are aimed at advancing the skills, abilities, or knowledge of a clearly defined group, and of its individual

members" (p. 1603). The literature on student engagement has drawn attention to the relationship between positive student-teacher relationships and student satisfaction, positive learner attitudes, better learning outcomes and enhanced engagement (Rowan & Grootenboer, 2017). While the question of who is responsible for student motivation is more difficult to answer because of the complex and abstract nature of the construct, the construct of engagement is a more straightforward term since some levels of engagement are observable in everyday classrooms (Mercer & Dörnyei, 2020). Research on student engagement indicates that teachers play a significant role in supporting learners emotionally (Mercer & Dörnyei, 2020). Learners feel accepted and develop a sense of belonging when teachers make students feel cared for and valued (van Gijn-Grosvenor & Huisman, 2019; Ng et al., 2018; Pedler et al., 2021; Lavy & Naama-Ghanayim, 2020). The positive teacher-student relationship is associated with learners' feelings of relatedness, value, trust, sense of security, and confidence to engage (Gkonou & Mercer, 2017) and improved behavioural engagement (Ng et al., 2018).

While building rapport is an antecedent and supporter of student engagement, teachers should always remind themselves that they are leaders in the classroom. The psychological absence of a leader, guide, or facilitator may inhibit forming a group structure under which learners are "disorganised and frustrated, experience the most stress, and produce very little work" (Dörnyei & Muir 2019, p. 726). However, it does not mean creating an authority figure who makes all decisions about teaching and learning, mandates rules, and interacts with students formally only during certain learning events. Teachers can use democratic classroom management and moderate self-disclosure to build rapport with students. Self-disclosure is the teachers' statement about the self in the classroom, revealing information about the teacher that learners may not learn from other resources (Sorensen, 1989). Such self-disclosure might serve in many ways, such as building trust and understanding and relating personal information to the subject matter, which is likely to increase participation and motivation (Borzea & Goodboy, 2016).

Promoting Growth Mindset

Mindsets are people's beliefs or "implicit theories" about the nature of intelligence (Dweck, 1999; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Dweck called them theories because they might be faulty and falsifiable, and she called them implicit because people may not be aware that they have such beliefs about intelligence. She later named these implicit theories fixed and growth mindsets (Dweck, 2006). While some believe that human skills or intelligence are a fixed and innate gift that they cannot improve or change (fixed mindset), others think it is a malleable construct that can be shaped and developed (growth mindset) (Dweck, 2006; Dweck & Yeager, 2019). Research indicates that an individual's "theory" of intelligence influences their achievement (Aronson et al.,2002; Dweck, 1999; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Dweck & Yeager, 2019; Good et al., 2003) and language learning motivation (Mercer & Ryan, 2009; Ryan & Mercer, 2012). Students with a growth mindset are more likely to achieve better learning outcomes than the ones with fix-mindset (Lou & Noels, 2016; Pohl & Nelson, 2020; Yeager & Dweck, 2012). A growth mindset predicts learners' goal setting, goal operating and monitoring (Burnette et al., 2013).

Mindsets may influence learners' desire to accept challenges "even in the face of obstacles or failures" (Dweck & Yeager, 2019, p. 484). A similar approach to explaining learner motivation to face challenges is self-efficacy theory (Bandura 1977, 1982), which proposes that students' success at a learning task depends heavily on how competent they see themselves in completing the task successfully. Learners may have belief systems concerning how well they can perform a task (i.e., self-efficacy beliefs) and to what extent they can develop their abilities (i.e., implicit theories of mindset). Implicit theories of intelligence focus on how individuals perceive their intelligence and capabilities and their beliefs about improving their skills, abilities or intellect (Dweck, 2006; Dweck & Yeager, 2019). Therefore, motivating learners to perform a task successfully is not synonymous with fostering a growth mindset (Lou & Noels, 2019).

Language learners with a fixed mindset may believe they cannot learn the target language no matter how hard they study, as they do not possess a natural gift or aptitude for learning languages (Mercer, 2011). In the 1950s and 1960s, SLA research emphasised the importance of language aptitude (Carroll 1962; Rubin, 1975), which was considered a stable

and innate talent (Ellis, 1997). Carroll and Sapon (1959) developed the modern language aptitude test (MLAT) to measure learners' language aptitude. MLAT was initially designed to select learners with higher language aptitude for the military, then expanded to SLA research. MLAT has long been used to measure learners' language aptitude. Caroll (1962, 1981) argued that language aptitude is innate and difficult to improve. The notion of fixed and innate language aptitude was later devalued and challenged by several researchers (McLaughlin 1995; Mercer, 2011; Robinson 2019; Sternberg 2002) because foreign language learners' success at becoming proficient in the target language depends on so many factors which could not be explained solely with language aptitude. High language aptitude is not adequate or necessary to master a foreign language.

Intervention programs can quickly and easily change language learners' mindsets (Lou & Noels, 2019). One intervention that might foster a growth mindset is giving feedback on learners' effort and learning process rather than the product and their skills (Mercer & Ryan, 2009). Thus, learners' focus would be implicitly directed to hard work and effort instead of a natural language gift.

2.4. Summary of Chapter Two

Chapter two covered a large body of research in education with a particular focus on language teaching. This chapter established the conceptual foundations of the study by presenting and discussing relevant literature, theories and concepts on teacher PD and student engagement. I proposed a conceptual framework that defines and differentiates teacher behaviours influencing student engagement. The conceptual framework relates to previous research, theories, models and frameworks.

CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY

Chapter three presents the justification for the research methods, the research setting and participant selection, data collection tools and the analytical process. The chapter also reports the design and implementation process of the OPD program.

3.1. Research Design

This study intended to investigate a group of EFL instructors' perceptions, beliefs, experiences and implementations regarding student engagement through the design, implementation and evaluation of an OPD program. The study further investigated the participants' perceptions of the design features and characteristics of the OPD program and the program's contribution to their PD. To this end, I used a case study research design (Creswell, 2014; Stake, 1995), which is widely used in teacher PD research across different domains (e.g., Alemdag et al., 2020; Dayoub & Bashiruddin, 2012; Herro & Quigley, 2017; Powell & Bodur, 2019; Smith & Strahan, 2004; So et al., 2021; Vrieling et al., 2019; Xu & Ko, 2019; Xu, 2003).

3.1.1. Characteristics of Qualitative Research

Strauss and Corbin (1997) define qualitative inquiry as "any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification" (p. 17). While quantitative methods attempt to prove, disprove, test or experiment hypotheses through numeric data and statistical procedures considering control, predictability, and generalizability, the qualitative case study approach intends to understand "the relationship connecting ordinary practice in natural habitats to a few factors and concerns of the academic disciplines" (Stake 2005, p. 10). Quantitative studies may provide insights into the effectiveness of a program using tests, scales, and questionnaires. However, the unintended effects of the program and in-depth understanding of participants'

perceptions and situated experiences might be missed. To investigate unintended effects, the researcher must go into the field, observe and interview participants to understand what they feel and experience (Patton, 2014). Qualitative research allows researchers to investigate research problems that are not adequately addressed in the literature by locating the researcher as "the observer in the world" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005, p. 3).

Using qualitative data collection tools and procedures does not always mean qualitative research. When the analytical process requires quantitative methods such as intercoding reliability and quantification of the qualitative data, it is closer to quantitative research and post-positivist assumptions. Braun and Clarke (2021) define two broad approaches to qualitative research as 'big Q' and 'small Q,' arguing that the first is committed to 'fully qualitative' values and terms while the latter relies on positivist and post-positivist orientations and approaches. This case study adopts 'fully qualitative' research values and commitments (Braun & Clarke, 2013, 2021), relying on constructive paradigmatic assumptions (see section 1.5.2). Big Q, which is also called fully qualitative research, adopts qualitative terms and strategies at all phases of the research. Table 1 presents the comparison of the two approaches.

Table 1

The comparison of the 'big Q' and 'Small Q' approaches to qualitative research

Big Q	Big Q	Small Q
Commitments	Relativist	Realist
	Uses fully qualitative data collection tools and analysis techniques within a qualitative paradigm	Uses data collection tools and analysis techniques within the quantitative and qualitative paradigm
Researcher role	Theoretically embedded and socially positioned researchers	Presumably unbiased researchers
Coding	Discussion of interpretations for a richer interpretation	Coding agreement or negotiation
	No intercoder agreement/reliability	Intercoder reliability/agreement
Analysis	Robust process guidelines, not rigid rules	Recipe following procedures
	Provides nuanced, complex and contradictory insights into the topic rather than straightforward answers	Seeks objective and straightforward answers
	Meaning making	Truth-seeking
	Subjective and embedded	Presumably objective
Themes	Themes as shared meaning patterns	Themes as topic summaries
	Themes as outputs	Themes as inputs

	Themes do not emerge!	Themes may emerge from data
Reporting	Analysis	Findings and results
	First-person, subjective	Third person, presumably objective
Validity	Information power	Data saturation
	Rigour	Trustworthiness
	No member checking	Member checking
	Using multiple data sources for a more complex, in-depth, but still thoroughly partial understanding of the issue	Data triangulation
	Contextualising data extracts	Thick description

Note: Adapted from Braun and Clarke (2013, 2021)

3.1.2. Characteristics of Case Studies

Case studies have defining characteristics which make them exclusively different from other types of inquiry and research design. Merriam and Tisdell (2016) assert that "the single most defining characteristic of case study research lies in delimiting the object of study: the case" (p. 38). Creswell and Poth (2018) define the case study as a methodology "in which the investigator explores a real-life, contemporary bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information (e.g., observations, interviews, audio-visual material, and documents and reports), and reports a case description and case themes" (97). The case can be "a program, group, an institution, a community or a specific policy" (Merriam & Tisdel, 2016, p. 38). The bounded system in this study is the asynchronous OPD program.

Researchers offer different categories and models of case study research design. Stake (1995) defines three broad categories of case studies: single instrumental case study, collective or multiple case study, and intrinsic case study. Intrinsic case studies focus on a particular case because of its uniqueness or peculiarity; however, instrumental case studies provide a general understanding of an issue going beyond the particular case. Multiple or collective case studies attempt to offer a general understanding of a problem through multiple instrumental case studies. Yin (2018), on the other hand, argues that a case study researcher "investigates a contemporary phenomenon (the case) in depth and within its real-world

context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context may not be clearly evident." (p. 15). Both qualitative and quantitative research designs can be used in Yin's case study approach. Yin (2018) classifies case studies as explanatory, exploratory, and descriptive qualitative case studies. Merriam and Tisdell (2015) propose a more general approach to case studies. They describe a case study as "an in-depth description and analysis of a bounded system" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015, p. 37). This study adopts an instrumental case study design because the focus is not on the peculiarity of the cohort or the research setting but on particular research topics.

3.1.3. Justification of Research Design

This study did not intend to measure or test the effectiveness of the OPD or the conceptual framework it proposed through numeric data and statistical measures. Instead, it aimed to explore a group of instructors' beliefs, perceptions, ideas, experiences and implementations in a specific context. An instrumental case study approach adopting fully qualitative commitments was relevant to this study's particular purpose since it enabled me to overcome the inefficiency of the quantitative approach in providing an in-depth and broad understanding of participants' perceptions and experiences. Furthermore, this instrumental case study did not aim to generalise findings to a population (Creswell, 2014; Creswell & Poth, 2018; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). The study attempted to provide context bounded and rich interpretative analysis of the truth that a particular group of EFL instructors experienced. Whilst the study did not aim to claim generalizability, both the research process and outputs from this instrumental study involving conceptual framework, OPD design, implementation process, program tasks and implications may be extended or transferred to similar contexts (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Heigham & Croker, 2009; Patton, 2014). I followed the qualitative research phases shown in figure 7, consistent with Creswell and Poth's (2018) phases of qualitative research, Stake's (1995) instrumental case study design and the RTA (Braun & Clark's, 2021) approach. Details of each phase are explained in the following sections.

PHASES OF RESEARCH

January-May, 2020
- Identify a research problem to address a research gap in the literature → Student engagement in foreign language learning
- Determine the specific research gap → Teacher behaviours influencing student engagement
- Draft broad research questions → What are the major teacher behaviours influencing student engagement?
- Determine the research objective considering the available resources → Explore EFL instructors' perceptions of student engagement
- Draft research paradigm, design, tools and analytical process → Instrumental case study design through online professional development / Constructive paradigm
- Write broad research questions → What are the EFL instructors' perceptions of student engagement?

June-December, 2020
- Do an extensive literature review → Previous research addressing similar research topics and questions / Generate a conceptual framework that defines and differentiates teaching behaviours and preferences influencing student engagement
- Identify ethical principles and concerns → Grant ethical approval from Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University School of Graduate Studies

January-June 2021
- Identify research site → Design, implementation and evaluation of an online professional development (OPD) program → Goals / Inputs / Outputs / Outcomes-Impact
- Recruit participants → Advertise the OPD program in a meeting with EFL instructors at a Turkish state university
- Collect data through multiple sources →
  - Before the OPD program → Pre-intervention (needs assessment) interviews
  - During the OPD program → Asynchronous written focus group discussions / Teacher reflective reports
  - After the OPD program → End-of-program interviews (Interview 2) / Focus group interview

July, 2021-May, 2022
- Analyze data →
  - Rigour → Using multiple data sources / Peer-debriefing / Reflexive engagement / Clarifying the researcher's position / Keeping reflexive notes
  - Reflexive thematic analysis →
    - Familiarisation → Transcription, reading and taking familiarisation notes
    - Data coding → Organic, evolving and subjective coding on MAXQDA
    - Generating initial themes
    - Refining, defining, and naming themes → Generating theme maps and theme summary tables
    - Writing-up → Findings and discussions in relation to previous research → Conclusions and implications

June-August 2022
- Proofreading and editing

Figure 7. Procedural diagram for the phases of the research

3.2. Research Context

Using the typical site and purposeful sampling strategies (Patton, 2014), I selected an English Preparatory Program (EPP) at a state university in Türkiye as the research site for the following reasons:

- availability instructors sharing common characteristics and conditions
- representativeness of similar contexts, which might ensure the transferability and adaptability of the OPD program, research design and findings
- participants' willingness and interest in PD and student engagement, which is likely to provide rich, honest, authentic and accurate information

3.2.1. Characteristics of the Research Context

EPP is an extensive EFL program with around 700 hundred students per academic year. It offers students 20-24 hours of instruction for 28 weeks within two academic semesters. Students enter this program to improve their English prior to their education in their departments. Successful completion of the program is a requirement to enrol in English-medium (EMI) undergraduate and graduate programs (English Language and Literature [ELL], English Language Teaching [ELT], International Relations, Business Administration, Molecular Biology and Genetics, Biology, Environmental Engineering). It also offers an optional preparatory program to learners of Turkish-medium departments (archaeology, history, political science and public administration, management, radio, cinema and television, computer engineering, food engineering, foreign trade, public relations and publicity, business management, labour economics and industrial relations, international relations). Students of optional EPP can continue their education in their departments even when they fail in preparatory classes.

The program is composed of two subdivisions with different course contents and materials to address the needs of learners from various departments and levels of English: General English Preparatory Program (GEPP) and English Preparatory Program for Students

of English language departments (ELL-ELT). GEPP offers optional and compulsory general English courses with two courses: general English and skills. The general English course focuses on grammar, vocabulary and colloquial English. Skills course covers reading and writing skills such as writing paragraphs and essays, reading strategies and vocabulary. Students in GEPP are placed into two groups according to their scores in the placement test conducted by the School of Foreign Languages (SoFL) EPP at the beginning of the academic year. One group starts from A1 and completes B1 according to CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages). The other group starts from CEFR A2 and completes CEFR B1 at the end of the academic year.

ELL-ELT offers four courses: use of English, listening & speaking, reading and writing. Students are accepted to this program based on their score in a central placement exam which measures learners' reading, vocabulary and grammar proficiency in English. All students in the ELL-ELT preparatory program start from the CEFR B1 level and complete the program at CEFR C1 at the end of the academic year.

The minimum success grade for 100% EMI program students is 70, and the success grade is 60 for students whose departments offer 30% EMI. All students must attend 85% of all course hours each semester. Students who fail to complete the program successfully in two academic years cannot continue in English medium departments. However, they have the right to enrol in a Turkish medium department either in the same university or other universities.

Although the specific purposes of the program and the target levels vary in different subdivisions and courses, the overall objectives of the program presented on the school's official website are the following:

- to improve students' skills and knowledge in English to meet the requirements of English medium departments
- to provide students with opportunities to improve their communicative skills in English

- to prepare students for international English tests
- to train students to be able to meet the demands of professional life

At the time of the study, the program was delivered online due to COVID-19 restrictions and risks in Türkiye. Before the COVID-19 outbreak, all courses had been taught face-to-face. Twenty-seven full-time instructors were working in the EPP. The weekly teaching hours of instructors were around 20 hours. Most instructors had more than ten years of teaching experience and had an MA degree. Three instructors had PhD degrees, and five instructors were PhD students (3 English Language Teaching, 1 Educational Sciences, 1 Humanities). Instructors had their own offices shared by three colleagues. Twenty-six instructors were non-native, and one instructor was a native speaker of English.

3.3. Participant Recruitment

After taking the ethics committee approval, I advertised the program to the 27 instructors working at EPP through emails. The research advert included the objectives, scope, assessment criteria, and the OPD program's syllabus draft. The consent form was also shared with the instructors, which included information about the nature of the research and expectations from them. Instructors interested in the project were invited to an online meeting on Microsoft Teams. Twenty-six instructors and school administration participated in the meeting. I presented the program's description, objectives, and syllabus draft and invited them to the program. The meeting took 45 minutes, and I answered the instructors' questions about the program, such as contents, due dates and program requirements. After the meeting, volunteer instructors wrote emails and text messages to me through the email address and phone number I shared with them during the meeting.

Ten instructors with common characteristics and conditions (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016) voluntarily accepted participating in the study and the OPD program. All participants were white females, ages ranging between 33 and 47. Ceren, Defne, Yaren, Aylin and Zuhal were in their 30s, while Esra, Zeynep, Evrim, Aysel and Seda (all names are pseudonyms) were in their 40s. Their experience in teaching English ranged from 7 years to 21 years.

Participants shared similar characteristics, such as being female, working at the same school with other participants for more than five years and speaking Turkish. All participants were non-native English speakers. At the time of the study, they were teaching EFL courses in online and face-to-face learning environments. Participants did not pay for the program and did not earn any privilege, money or benefit from their participation. Participation in the program was entirely voluntary, and participants were allowed to withdraw at any time without any fine or penalty.

3.4. OPD Program Design

The OPD program was designed and implemented during the COVID-19 outbreak. An asynchronous OPD program would be the best alternative to protect the health of participants in pandemic conditions and eliminate constraints such as instructors' heavy workload, lack of time and limited funding (Elliot, 2017). When this program was implemented, courses in the research setting were online, but this was a temporary situation caused by the sudden and unexpected shift to online education due to the global COVID-19 outbreak. Therefore, the program was designed considering participants' PD needs in both online and face-to-face learning environments.

The OPD program utilised a practical and affordable action-logic model (see figure 8) developed based on ICAP theory (Chi & Wylie, 2014), the CoI framework (Garrison et al., 1999), social constructivism (Vygotsky, 1978), adult learning theory (Knowles et al., 2014) and ARPIM framework (see section 1.6. Theoretical Framework and section 2.3 ARPIM: A Conceptual Framework). The action-logic model was evolving and organic, which means it was enhanced and modified during the design and implementation stages of the program based on needs assessment, participants' reflective reports, and expert opinions. The following sections define and explain the details of the action-logic model's components shown in figure 8.
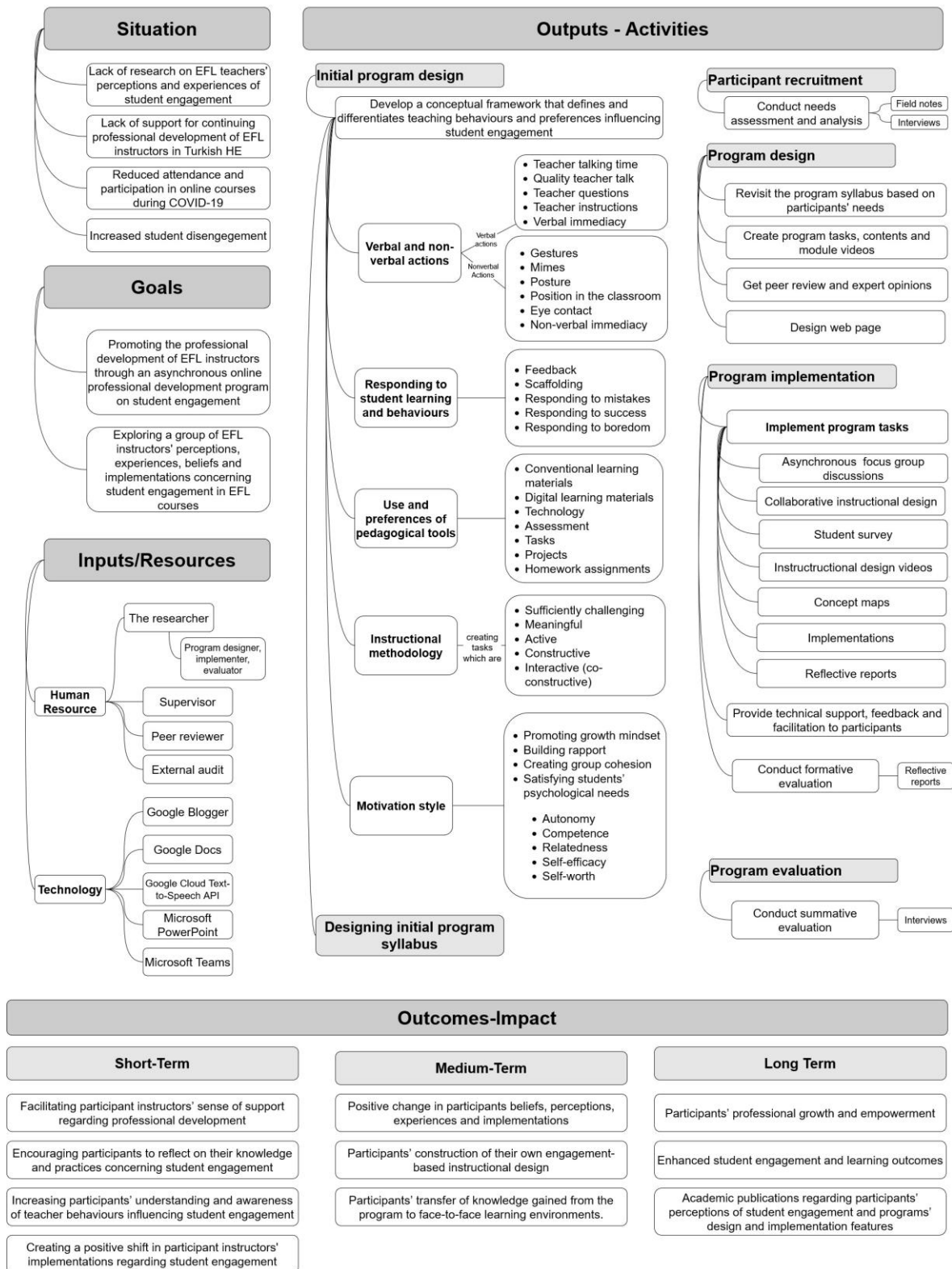
Figure 8. OPD program action-logic model

3.4.1. Goals of the Program

This OPD program aimed to promote the PD of participants regarding teaching behaviours and preferences influencing student engagement. The program did not make claims or assumptions about an existing student engagement problem in the current research setting or the level of engagement of participant instructors' students. The literature suggests an emerging disengagement problem across different schools and contexts. There are engaged and disengaged students in every class regardless of contextual differences (Appleton et al., 2008). Even when all learners seemed to be engaged, the level of learners' engagement with learning may vary from passive to active based on several variables such as task type, time and relevance (Chi & Wylie, 2014).

The OPD program did not attempt to treat deficits in teachers' knowledge or competencies. In contrast, it intended to direct participants to reconsider their practices and roles regarding student engagement and co-construct their own methodology to promote better engagement in EFL courses through interaction and collaboration with other participants. Relying on social constructivist and constructivist approaches to PD, the purpose of the program was to promote instructors' reflective behaviour (Schön,1987; Wallace, 1991) and community practice (Garrison et al., 1999; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger et al., 2002) on student engagement rather than transferring knowledge or treating deficits in teachers' knowledge. It encouraged participants to reflect upon their teaching and co-construct their own methodology to increase student engagement in online and face-to-face learning environments. Therefore, the program left participant instructors with questions rather than answers. Notions concerning student engagement were introduced to the participants without directing them to particular classroom activities or practices. Embedded in Vygotsky's ideas and ICAP framework, this OPD implemented constructive and co-constructive professional learning activities such as blog discussions, reflective reports, self-evaluations, student feedback, and individual and collaborative instructional design activities that aimed to encourage them to construct or co-construct their own engagement-based engagement instructional methodology.

3.4.2. Inputs

One of the purposes of this study is to offer an affordable and practical OPD that can be designed and implemented with limited staff, resources and funding. Thus, the design and implementation of this OPD program can be transferred into similar school contexts. Therefore, instead of using high-quality video shootings with experts and using costly software, this OPD was implemented on a close blogger.com page, a free platform hosted by Google (see figure 9).
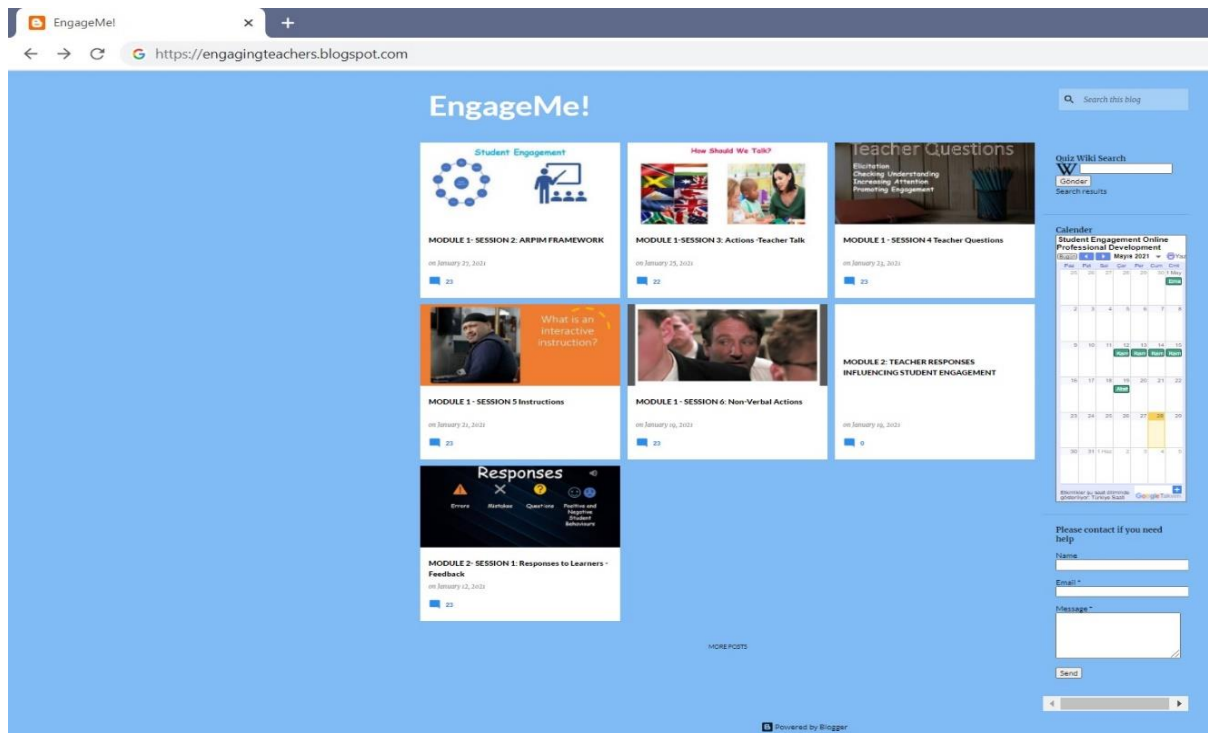
Figure 9. A screenshot of the main page of the program blog page.

The program also benefited from the following technological tools:

- Google Docs
- Google Forms
- Google Cloud Text-to-API (Trial Version)
- Microsoft PowerPoint
- Microsoft Teams

I was the program designer, developer of program contents, materials and tasks, the program web page designer, facilitator, and evaluator. The program did not involve other trainers or staff. However, two experts from the dissertation committee and a peer were involved in the program design and implementation to provide consultancy and review. One of the experts was an ELT professor who specialised in language teacher education. The other expert was a curriculum professor who had supervised similar OPD programs. They provided consultancy for the program contents, tasks and syllabus. It took 12 months to develop the program's conceptual framework, contents and syllabus.

3.4.3. Outputs and Program Tasks

The syllabus, materials, tasks, the contents of the modules and assessment procedures were designed based on relevant theories (see section 1.6. Theoretical Framework), the ARPIM framework, expert opinions, and needs assessment. The supervisor of this study, a curriculum professor and an instructor from the present research setting reviewed all program components to increase the reliability and effectiveness of the OPD program. After designing the first draft of the program syllabus and program contents, I shared it with the participants before the program and asked whether they found the contents relevant to their needs. The final version of the program syllabus (see Appendix 1) was designed based on participants' responses to the pre-interview survey and the semi-structured interviews conducted prior to the program.

The program consisted of asynchronous modules delivered on a Google Blogger web page. Five modules were designed based on broad categories of teaching behaviours and preferences conceptualised in the ARPIM framework. Each module included sessions that introduced participants to different concepts related to the module's theme. The modules' scope, length, and contents were determined based on instructors' needs, interests, and demands identified through needs assessment interviews. The program utilised written AFGD sessions stimulated by video presentations to encourage the co-construction of new knowledge. Other program tasks were concept maps, instructional design videos,

collaborative instructional design, classroom implementations, reflective reports and student surveys.

Instructional Design Videos

One of the program tasks was recording a screencast in which program participants vocalised their instructional design plan for the following week through a video presentation. They benefited from the presentation tools of the books they used in their lessons and described how they would teach that week's contents by vocalising their plan in the screencast. The videos lasted between 6 and 31 minutes. They shared these instructional design videos on a Microsoft Teams channel. Then, they watched each other's plans and wrote comments about the design features, contents and materials (see Appendix 2). Participants were required to post at least one comment to one of the instructional design videos, but they were free to write as many comments as they wanted.

Collaborative Instructional Design

Another task participants were required to complete was two collaborative instructional design plans in which they worked in groups to prepare a weekly plan for their courses focusing on five components proposed by the ARPIM framework: verbal and nonverbal actions, responding to student learning and behaviours, use and preferences of pedagogical tools, instructional methodology and motivation style. They met online on Microsoft Teams for two weeks and prepared the plans collaboratively. They shared ideas, course materials and technological tools that they can use to promote student engagement in their courses. Then, they implemented the engagement-based instructional design in their courses and wrote a reflective report about it.

Concept Maps

The participants were asked to draw concept maps (see Appendix 3) before and after program implementation. Some participants drew concept maps on paper and shared the images with the researcher. Others created concept maps on their computers. This activity aimed to encourage participants to think critically about the variables influencing student engagement and reflect upon their roles as a teacher.

Feedback

As the program was designed based on constructivist and social constructivist learning theories of PD, I did not dictate any rules and principles about teaching and learning. The program encouraged participants to construct and co-construct knowledge through open-ended questions asked to them in module sessions. However, I provided guidance and facilitation during the program. I sent participants emails and videos summarising the main points of the AFGDs and module outcomes. Based on the participants' discussions on the blog page, I provided whole-group feedback to participants and offered suggestions at the end of each module through emails and WhatsApp group messages. I scaffolded participants by sharing further resources, digital learning tools and activity videos I recorded in my lessons. I also encouraged participants to share some hands-on activities that they find useful in promoting student engagement. There was a separate page on which they shared suggestions for classroom activities. I also provided some feedback on instructional design plans sharing my ideas and experiences as a teacher.

Some tasks of the OPD program were also data collection sources and tools. The data collection and procedures section explains other program tasks used for data collection.

Assessment

Standardised exams or assessment methods were not used to evaluate the participants' success since this OPD program was designed based on social-constructivist learning theory. It was a pass-or-fail program, which means participants' success was evaluated based on completing a series of continuing tasks.

3.4.4. Outcomes-Impact

The short-term outcomes of the program were facilitating participant instructors' sense of support from school administration, encouraging participants to reflect on their knowledge and practices concerning student engagement, increasing participants' understanding and awareness of teacher behaviours influencing student engagement and helping participants transfer knowledge gained from the program to online learning environments. Another short-term goal of the program was to create a professional learning community where instructors collaborate to increase student engagement in EFL courses. Critical thinking and interaction were two key features of this program.

The program also aimed to achieve medium-term goals that participants would incorporate into their teaching during and after the program implementation. It aimed to encourage participants to construct their own engagement-based instruction methodology. The program was conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic, and participants were teaching tertiary-level online EFL courses. Therefore, program tasks and instructional design were implemented in an online learning environment—however, the program aimed to provide participants with ideas that they would transfer to face-to-face learning environments considering contextual factors, learners' needs, interests and expectations.

The program's ultimate goal was to promote the PD of participants, which is likely to result in a positive instructional shift and increased student engagement in their current and future teaching contexts. Table 2 summarises the OPD program outcomes for participant

instructors' professional growth and empowerment, explained thoroughly in the findings and results section.

Table 2

Summary of OPD program outcomes regarding participant instructors' professional growth

Material and provisionary outcomes	Participants produced instructional design videos, reflective reports, concept maps, and asynchronous focus group discussions.
Informational outcomes	Participants developed engagement-based instructional design plans.
New awareness	Participants acquired new and increased awareness of professional needs and strengths, student engagement, verbal and nonverbal teacher actions, and growth mindset.
Value congruence	The program encouraged communication and mutual understanding among the participant instructors.
Affective outcomes	The program increased participants' reflexivity, self-confidence and self-competence and positively impacted their professional identities, positionings and agency.
Motivational and attitudinal outcomes	The program increased participants' teacher motivation.
Knowledge and skills	Participants learned new learning events, tools and approaches.
Impact on practice	Positive instructional shifts occurred during and after the program.

Note: Adapted from Harland and Kinder (1997)

The program further intended to publish a scholarly article on the design, implementation, and evaluation processes of the OPD program to enable the transfer of the program to similar contexts.

3.5. Data Collection Tools and Procedures

Most outputs and activities from the OPD program were also data sources for this dissertation project. A large amount of qualitative data consisting of 276 899 words and 117 documents (20 interviews, 1 focus group, 25 written AFGDs, 71 reflective reports) were collected remotely through online data collection tools: two semi-structured online interviews, one online focus-group interview, written AFGDs, and reflective reports over ten months (see figure 10). The following sections explain the rationale for the selection of each data collection tool and how they were used in this study.
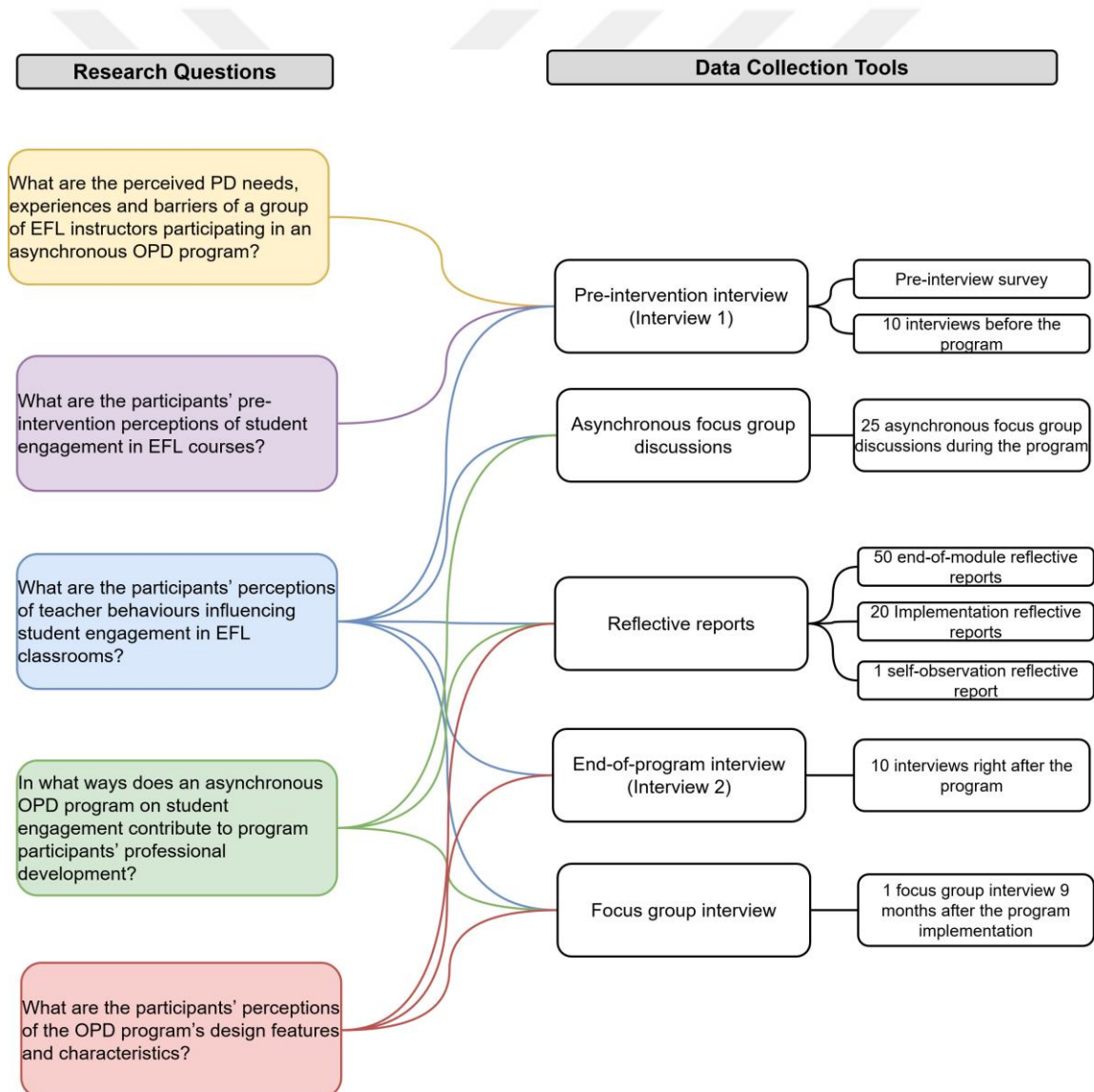
Figure 10. A summary of data collection tools in relation to research questions

3.5.1. Written AFGDs

In this study, participants were requested to join written AFGDs facilitated by short session videos (3-7 minutes), which introduced the topics, defined notions, and shared relevant knowledge. Written AFGDs provided participants with active participation opportunities without time limitations. In face-to-face oral discussions, participants have to give instant responses, and they do not have the chance to revise or edit their opinions due to time constraints. However, in written AFGDs, participants can start and participate in discussions without time and place constraints. While the participants in traditional face-to-face PD events are usually passive receivers of information due to time constraints, online discussions allow more time for interaction, critical thinking, self-reflection, and deeper learning (Elliott, 2017; Murray, 2014).

Participants of this study were posed open-ended questions to start discussions on different concepts and teacher behaviours related to student engagement in each session. Before the program, two researchers reviewed and validated the discussion questions to ensure soundness, correctness, and appropriateness. The AFGDs aimed to provide participants with opportunities to co-create knowledge that they can use to promote student engagement in their courses. To reduce the risk of little interaction among participants and promote social interaction (Elliot, 2017), they were required to post at least one comment answering the session questions and respond to at least one of the comments other participants posted. Participants were able to see each other's comments and write as many posts as they wished, although the minimum requirement was one discussion comment and response in each discussion session. They received an email notification when someone posted a comment or response. They were allowed to write comments until the due dates of the modules and sent weekly reminders via WhatsApp and mail about the due dates of modules and program tasks.

Apart from being an interactive task, written AFGDs are innovative qualitative data research tools, and sources increasingly used across different domains (e.g., Gordon et al., 2021; McNamara et al., 2014; Tran et al., 2021). AFGD method is theoretically sound and

provides convenience and efficiency for the researchers and participants (e.g. Biedermann, 2018; Gordon et al., 2021; MacNamara et al., 2021; Rupert et al., 2017; Turney & Pocknee, 2005). As long as the participants have a moderate internet connection and basic computer literacy, they can be involved in the research in a safe, comfortable and anonymous environment without time and place constraints (Turney & Pocknee, 2005). AFGDs can encourage self-disclosure and higher reflectivity and provide a rich and comprehensive dataset for the researcher (MacNamara et al., 2021; Williams et al., 2012). Participants can think deeply about the written discussions and have more time to reflect on their responses because interaction does not occur in real time (Hancock, 2017; MacNamara et al., 2021; Tran et al., 2021).

Some critics of the AFGD method argue that it lacks the nonverbal clues and group dynamics of face-to-face focus groups (MacNamara et al., 2021; Tran et al., 2021). Another challenge could be participants' lack of technical knowledge, poor typing skills and IT (information technology) issues. In AFGDs, participants must be provided with technical support and training on using discussion platforms. Before the program implementation, I sent participants a video guideline showing how they would use the discussion blog page, post their comments and access the contents. I provided technical assistance to the participants during the OPD program.

In this study, 25 written AFGDs (see example AFGD session page in Appendix 4) for 11 weeks generated rich and in-depth data on participants' perceptions, experiences, beliefs and implementations of several teacher behaviours influencing student engagement in EFL courses.

Discussion-stimulating Videos

The AFGDs were stimulated by session videos addressing the teaching behaviours and preferences influencing student engagement. I prepared the first draft of video scripts in 6 months based on relevant literature and the ARPIM framework. The video scripts were

edited based on the findings of the needs assessment. After the second draft of video scripts was prepared, another researcher reviewed them, and changes were made in 2 drafting stages. Using these scripts, the voice-overs were prepared on the one-month free trial version of Google Cloud Text-to-Speech API, a software that generates human-like voice-overs. Then, video presentations were prepared using creative commons licenced visuals on Microsoft Office PowerPoint. The images, written prompts and voice-overs were synced manually. Prompts and images appeared synchronously with the voice-overs. Videos were uploaded on YouTube as unlisted videos and embedded in the module sessions on Google Blogger.

The videos presented participants with different concepts, notions and principles related to student engagement. The videos aimed to stimulate AFGDs concerning the teacher behaviours and preferences influencing student engagement. When the first module was prepared, the videos were reviewed by another instructor from the current research setting who was not a participant in this study. She provided feedback on the web page's design, session videos, and discussion questions. When she listened to the videos, she did not realise voice-overs were computer-generated, which meant they were intelligible and sounded natural. Based on the feedback from the instructor, some videos were divided into two to avoid boredom and confusion. Final version of each discussion-stimulating video's length was around five minutes.

3.5.2. Reflective Reports

Reflective reports are commonly used in PD and teacher education research as a reflective task and qualitative data source (e.g., Alemdag et al., 2019; Debreli, 2019; Esau, 2021; Önal, 2019; Özdemir Baki & Kılıçoğlu, 2020; Tsybulsky, 2019; Tsybulsky et al., 2020; Tsybulsky & Muchnik-Rozanov, 2019; Vahed & Rodriguez, 2020). Participants completed three different forms of reflective reports in the OPD program. First, at the end of each module, they completed reflective reports concerning their perceptions of what they learnt in the module, their strengths and weaknesses considering the teacher behaviours and preferences addressed in the module and how they could relate what they had learnt to their

classroom implementations. Second, they prepared collaborative instructional design plans and completed weekly reflective reports at the end of the program. Third, they watched a video recording of a lesson they had taught before participating in the program and completed a reflective report. These reports presented a rich dataset about how participants perceived the OPD program and student engagement in EFL courses.

3.5.3. End-of-module Reflective Reports

End-of-module reflective reports were prepared in line with the research questions, the contents of the modules, and the program's intended outcomes. Open-ended reflective report items were peer-reviewed by another researcher, and items were prepared in two drafting stages. Participants were mailed reflective reports (see Appendix 5) at the end of each module. They responded to the questions by typing their responses on the digital document and sending it back to the researcher. The reflective reports also provided formative evaluation data for the study during the program implementation. Based on participants' reflective reports, changes were made during the program's implementation.

3.5.4. End-of-program Reflective Reports

When all modules ended, participants prepared collaborative instructional design plans in three collaborative planning groups for two weeks. I matched instructors teaching the same groups, and they collaboratively prepared weekly instructional design plans. Then, they filled in a reflective form (see Appendix 6) after implementing their plan. Participants were also asked to reflect upon their use of verbal and nonverbal actions, responses to learners, use of pedagogical tools, instructional design and motivation styles. They also self-evaluated the merit and worth of the instructional design plan through open-ended reflective questions.

3.5.5. Video-based Self-reflection Reports

Since the program was implemented during the COVID-19 pandemic, all courses were online for the last two semesters at the school where participants worked, and online lessons were recorded and stored on Microsoft Teams. This was an invaluable opportunity for teachers to self-reflect. After completing the first module, program participants were asked to watch the recording of an online lesson they had recorded before the program participation and complete a reflective report (see Appendix 7) about their verbal and nonverbal actions during the online lesson, such as teacher talk time, instructions, and questions.

3.5.6. One-to-one Interviews

I conducted two online semi-structured interviews (pre-intervention and end-of-program interviews), which allowed me to ask more free-flowing, exploratory interview questions such as probes and follow-up questions which were more likely to elicit in-depth answers (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Rapley, 2007; Richards, 2001). I prepared the interview protocols in line with the research questions. Two professors of the dissertation committee reviewed the interview questions, and I made changes in two drafting stages (see Appendix 8).

In qualitative interviews, open-ended interview questions are preferable to encourage participants to provide unbiased, in-depth and rich information responses (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Patton, 2014). On the other hand, interviewers must avoid leading questions likely to influence the participants' responses. To avoid presuppositions and leading questions, interviewers sometimes start with a "yes-no" question followed by an open-ended question: "*Do you think your family/your having children challenges any stereotypes? Why? Which one(s)? Why not?*" (see Braun & Clarke, 2013, p. 83). In this study, some interview items started with yes-no questions to avoid leading questions, which can lead to biased answers, as the following example illustrates: *"Did the program impact your perceptions and views concerning your verbal and nonverbal actions during the learning events?"* According to

participants' responses to yes-no questions, I asked them open-ended follow-up questions such as: *"If yes, in what ways did the program impact your perceptions and views concerning your verbal and nonverbal actions during the learning events? If no, please explain the reasons."*

When the final version of the interview protocols was prepared (see Appendix 9 and 10), I piloted a pre-intervention interview with an instructor working in the same research setting to see whether the questions were explicit to the participants and whether they could generate the data relevant to the study. Another purpose of the piloting interviews was to familiarise myself with the online platform and interview to see the potential issues before the interviews. The piloting process indicated that interviews took around 100 minutes. As I already knew the participants and established rapport, I removed interview questions related to demographics and preferences for the delivery of the program from the face-to-face interviews to prevent participant fatigue. I sent those questions to the participants as an open-ended survey form on google forms before the interview. Participants were asked to write about their demographic information and preferences for the modules' delivery and length in this survey form. The open-ended survey also included screenshots of the OPD program syllabus draft to allow participants to express their views about the contents and tasks. When needed, I asked further questions about their responses to pre-interview survey questions during the face-to-face interview. The same interview protocol was used for all interviews to maintain methodological consistency (Cohen et al., 2008).

Due to the COVID-19 restrictions, I conducted and recorded all interviews online on Microsoft Teams. Online interviews mimic traditional face-to-face interviews as they provide real-time audio and visual interaction between the interviewer and the interviewee (Hanna & Mwale 2017). They provide participants with convenience, flexibility and cost-effectiveness (Archibald et al., 2019). Online interviews provided participants with the freedom to schedule the day and the time of the interview. All participants were familiar with Microsoft Team's video call feature as they used it for their online lessons. I also familiarised myself with the platform in the pilot interview. Therefore, no technical problems occurred during the interviews.

Before the program implementation, I conducted the pre-intervention interviews (interview 1) as a needs assessment data tool to investigate participants' existing views, beliefs, and ideas about student engagement and PD (see Appendix 9). Pre-interview surveys and interviews provided data to adapt the modules' contents, program tasks, frequency and length of modules based on participants' conditions, expectations, interests, and needs. These interviews also allowed me to explore participants' pre-intervention perceptions and better understand the change in their perceptions, positionings and identities during and after the OPD program. Pre-intervention interviews took around 60 minutes.

End-of-program interviews (interview 2) aimed at evaluating the program's worth and merit from participants' points of view (see Appendix 10). It also intended to investigate how the OPD program impacted participants' perceptions, beliefs, positionings, professional identities, and implementations. The end-of-program interviews lasted between 45 and 80 minutes.

3.5.7. Focus Group Interview

Participant instructors were teaching online when they participated in the OPD program. However, they started teaching both face-to-face and online in the following semester. Nine months after the program, I conducted an online synchronous focus group discussion to have a deeper and comprehensive understanding of preliminary findings and investigate the program's long-term impact on participants' perceptions, beliefs, and implementation in online and face-to-face learning environments. As I had already conducted two one-to-one interviews and written AFGDs, I preferred synchronous oral focus-group discussions to explore the program's long-term impact and whether synchronous interaction among participants yields new findings. As some of the participants started to teach in a different program at the same university, I invited six program participants teaching at EPP to the focus group interview. The focus-group interview took 58 minutes.

3.5.8. Texts and Documents

I reviewed the school's website, institutional documents, and learning materials to gain knowledge of program policy, goals, and outcomes (Stake, 2004) and took field notes, which provided me with a better understanding of research data.

3.5.9. Reflexive Journal

From the start of the study, I kept reflexive notes on Google Docs and WhatsApp to "document and store ideas, reflections, interrogation and meaning-making" (Braun & Clarke, 2021, p. 19). Using a digital note-taking approach allowed me to take and access notes synchronously on my desktop, notebook and mobile phone. Whenever and wherever I had new ideas, insights, and interpretations, I wrote notes, which immensely helped me interpret the research data. The use of reflexive notes is detailed in section 3.9 — the analytic process.

3.6. Ethical Considerations

This study was conducted according to general research ethics (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Iphofen, 2020) in compliance with ethical standards of Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University (COMU) School of Graduate Studies and the seventh edition of the publication manual of the American Psychological Association (APA) ethical and legal principles (2020) by "ensuring the accuracy of scientific findings, protecting the rights and welfare of research participants and subjects, and protecting intellectual property rights" (p. 11).

After the research plan, research schedule, and interview protocols were prepared, ethical approval was granted by COMU School of Graduate Studies (see Appendix 11). Before the study, all participants were sent information documents, including the syllabus draft, description and scope of the OPD and the informed consent form (see Appendix 12).

Participation in this study was entirely voluntary, and participants did not gain any reward or privilege through their participation.

All data was pseudonymised and anonymised to remove any information which could reveal participants' identities. The OPD program was conducted on a close Google Blogger page to maintain the confidentiality of contents and blog discussions. When the program was completed, all contents were downloaded and deleted from Google Blogger. Interviews on Microsoft Teams were conducted as personal meetings, and recordings were deleted right after the interviews. I locally stored and backed up the research data on my personal computer and password-protected mobile phone. I transcribed the interview data using Otter Ai, which meets the "256-bit Advanced Encryption Standard" (Otter, 2022). I analysed data from the study on an encrypted MAXQDA project.

All sources and research used in this study were cited appropriately. Copyright permissions were obtained from publishers for the figures reprinted (see Appendix 13).

3.7. Rigour

As this study adopted a 'fully qualitative' approach and relied on constructivist assumptions, I did not use positivist and post-positivist validation strategies and terms such as inter-coding reliability, coding agreement and data saturation. This study ensures rigour using the following strategies:

- explicitness — thorough description and explanation of the theoretical and conceptual framework, research design, phases, context, and researcher's role, positionality and relationship with participants
- systematic, rigorous and reflexive engagement with the dataset recursively
- reflexive note-taking and journaling

While data triangulation, peer-debriefing and external audits are post-positivist validation strategies, I used these strategies to enrich the interpretations that could be drawn from the data rather than seeking objectivity or agreement.

3.7.1. Triangulation

Denzin (1978) proposes four types of triangulation: methodological, data, theoretical, and investigator. From a post-positivist point of view, the triangulation of data offers enhanced validity of interpretations supported by multiple evidence forms (Creswell, 2014). I used multiple data sources to have a richer, broader, in-depth, and diverse understanding of participants' perceptions (Braun & Clarke, 2021; Varpio et al., 2017).

3.7.2. Peer Debriefing

Debriefing in qualitative research is the process of seeking an external check by "someone who is familiar with the research or the phenomenon explored" (Creswell & Miller, 2000, p. 129). Lincoln and Guba (1985) define the peer debriefer's role as a "devil's advocate" who poses challenging questions concerning the methods, data sources, and interpretations (p. 308). Debriefing or peer review provides researchers with opportunities for reflection and realising potential problems in research design. The role of the peer debriefing in this study was to provide guidance and help regarding program design, research design and discussion of findings rather than reaching a coding agreement or negotiating.

A researcher working in a similar research setting was involved in the study at the early stages of the planning process to provide feedback and peer review on this research project. At the time of the study, she had over ten years of experience in ELT at the tertiary level and was a PhD student in educational sciences. She had PhD-level qualitative research courses and presented a qualitative research study at an international conference.

One-to-one meetings with the peer-reviewer were held on a regular basis. The drafts of the study were shared with her locally on flash disks at all stages of the study. Based on the feedback, suggestions and criticism coming from the reviewer, changes were made regarding the research methodology, data sources, OPD program design and data analysis.

3.7.3. Reflexivity

I presented a detailed justification and explanation of the research paradigm and design, the setting, the participant selection, data sources, data collection tools, my positionality, relationship with the participants (see section 1.7 - Researcher's Positionality and Role) and the interpretation process. I critically reflected upon all phases of this research project (Braun & Clarke, 2021), keeping reflective notes and revisiting the research design and analysis repeatedly and recursively, as explained in the data analysis section.

3.8. Data Analysis

Data for the study were analysed using the RTA approach (Braun & Clarke, 2006, 2013, 2019, 2020a, 2020b, 2021), relying on a constructivist orientation to qualitative research. Thematic analysis refers to a cluster of methods that intend to capture, analyse and report patterns or stories in qualitative data (Braun & Clarke, 2021). I selected RTA because it offers flexibility regarding data collection, analysis, and theoretical orientations. While qualitative approaches such as grounded theory and interpretative phenomenological analysis largely determine how the research questions are written, how the data is collected, how the coding is done, and how the results are presented, RTA can be used across diverse theoretical orientations, approaches and datasets. In this instrumental case study, I used different data sources (i.e., interviews, focus group interviews, written AFGDs), coding and analytical approaches (i.e., semantic, latent deductive, inductive) relying on the constructive research paradigm. RTA's flexibility offered a richer, deeper, and broader understanding of participants' perceptions, beliefs and experiences regarding the research questions addressed

in this study. RTA also allowed me to use inductive and theory-driven/deductive orientations to coding and data analysis as a continuum rather than a dichotomy.

3.8.1. Reflexive Thematic Analysis (RTA)

One of the common problematic issues in published papers is assuming thematic analysis as one approach that relies on the same qualitative paradigms and commitments (Braun & Clarke, 2020b). However, there are various TA versions that require different analytical approaches and engagement with data. They also differ in defining qualitative research terms such as codes, themes, data saturation and validity (Braun & Clarke, 2021). Braun and Clarke (2020b; 2021) describe three broad categories of TA: coding reliability TA, codebook TA and RTA.

Coding reliability TA is a neo-positivist approach that aims to interpret qualitative data objectively through inter-coder reliability (Braun & Clarke, 2020b, 2021). Multiple coders code the data to make sure coding is objective and unbiased. Then, they negotiate codes to reach a consensus and sometimes rely on statistical measures such as Cohen's Kappa (Braun & Clarke, 2013). However, agreement in coding or coding reliability only shows these researchers come from similar backgrounds and adopt similar research values, commitments, and approaches to analysing the data. It does not necessarily indicate objectivity or unbiased interpretation (Braun & Clarke, 2021).

In Codebook TA, on the other hand, inter-rater reliability is not always a concern for researchers. A structured coding frame is created to analyse the data. Codes and themes are developed at the early stages of data analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2020b). This approach limits the researcher in identifying in-depth and meaningful codes because new codes and interpretations are likely to be captured at further stages of data analysis.

RTA (Braun & Clarke, 2019, 2021) emphasises the role of the researcher as a reflexive and "artfully interpretative" practitioner (Finlay, 2021, p. 105). It is committed to

qualitative research values and does not require or desire multiple coders, inter-coder reliability, or codebook approaches (Braun & Clarke 2006, 2013, 2019, 2021). Embedded in fully qualitative research values and commitments, RTA highlights the crucial role of researcher reflexivity: a process of 'researchers' critical self-awareness' (Finlay, 2021, p. 107), subjectivity and critical interrogation of what they do (Braun & Clarke, 2021).

RTA is a dynamic approach in which coding and theme development are open, organic, and iterative (Braun & Clarke, 2019, 2021; Finlay, 2021; Terry & Hayfield, 2021). Codes are the smallest units of analysis and building blocks for themes (Braun & Clarke, 2021). Unlike the grounded theory approach (Charmaz, 2014), RTA does not require coding all data line by line. Researchers only code the data relevant to their broadly framed research questions (Braun & Clarke, 2021). Themes are not topic summaries that emerge from data but rather the patterns or analytic stories of shared meaning that researchers generate and interpret, guided by the research questions (Braun & Clarke, 2017, 2021). Moreover, research questions are not fixed in RTA. They can evolve and change during code and theme development (Braun & Clarke, 2017).

To centre reflexivity in thematic analysis, Braun and Clarke (2021) renamed their approach as RTA and updated the phases of data analysis as follows:

- familiarisation
- data coding
- generating initial themes
- developing and reviewing themes
- refining, defining and naming themes
- writing up the report

RTA is not just following these steps mechanically like a recipe; instead, it is researchers' reflexive engagement with the "data and the analytical process" (Braun & Clarke 2019, p. 594). Reflexivity requires reflecting and negotiating researchers' positionality that might influence how they interpret the data (Trainor & Bundon, 2021).

Researchers must consider how their subjectivity impacts their interpretation (Finlay, 2021). That does not necessarily mean they must avoid reflecting on their values, experiences, commitments and world views in their interpretation of data. However, RTA researchers should explicitly and transparently make readers aware of their positioning, values, and preconceptions, how they influence interpretation and knowledge production and align the research methodology, goals and researcher's positioning (Finlay, 2021).

One of the distinctive characteristics of RTA is flexibility (Braun & Clarke, 2017). Other qualitative data analysis methods such as interpretative phenomenological analysis (Smith et al., 2009) and grounded theory (Charmaz, 2014) distinctively define and differentiate research questions, data collection tools, coding, analytical process and reporting. However, RTA is a flexible approach that can be used across diverse methods, research questions, theoretical orientations, sample sizes, and data collection tools (Braun & Clarke, 2017). Researchers can use deductive, inductive, latent and semantic approaches (Trainor & Bundon, 2021) in a continuum rather than a dichotomy (Braun & Clarke, 2013). It can be used to analyse several different types of datasets, such as diaries, interviews, and documents. It is theoretically flexible, which means it is not committed to any theoretical positions. However, that does not mean it is atheoretical (Braun & Clarke, 2021; Clarke & Braun, 2017). Whilst it offers flexibility, researchers should always clarify their theoretical position, defining how they make sense and engage with the data.

Approaches to TA also differ in how they regard rigour in qualitative research. RTA does not rely on positivist validity or trustworthiness strategies and terms such as intercoder-reliability, triangulation, saturation, member checking, and code frequency. It does not attempt to reach an ultimate or objective reality (Braun & Clarke, 2021). Instead, it intends to capture the truth that participants experience, relying on researchers' subjectivity and expertise. It is a 'fully qualitative' approach that considers the researcher's subjectivity a valued tool or asset when reflexively engaged with and critically interrogated (Braun & Clarke, 2021). RTA researchers follow a rigorous, systematic and persuasive approach to data analysis and provide a detailed account of the philosophical assumptions, methodological choices, positioning and how they influence knowledge production (Braun

& Clarke, 2021). Readers decide to what extent results are applicable or transferable to other contexts.

RTA rejects data saturation as a gold standard in qualitative research (Braun & Clarke, 2021). Meaning does not reside, pre-exist or is self-evident in the data, and themes do not passively emerge (Braun & Clarke, 2019, 2021). Themes are patterns of meaning or stories that require an interpretation based on researchers' reflexive engagement with the data, which means new meanings and interpretations are always possible (Braun & Clarke, 2017). Therefore, data saturation does not depend on the size of the data but on the richness and depth of interpretations that researchers can draw. It is the construction of meaning, not discovering pre-existing knowledge in the data (Braun & Clarke, 2017).

One of the advantages of using RTA in qualitative data analysis is the availability of several articles (e.g., Braun & Clarke, 2006, 2017, 2019, 2020a, 2020b, 2021; Clarke & Braun, 2017; Finlay, 2021; Trainor & Bundon, 2021), book chapters (Braun & Clarke, 2012; Terry et al., 2017), books (Braun & Clarke, 2013, 2021; Terry & Hayfield, 2021) and internet resources that explicitly defines and differentiates the process of data analysis. The richness of resources makes the data analysis process concrete, detailed, solid, and accessible for researchers interested in using it. Even novice researchers who are new to qualitative data analysis can use these resources to make sense of RTA. Although RTA is a method that focuses primarily on qualitative data analysis, those studies and resources also offer insightful ideas for research methodology, examples of data sources, data collection procedures and analysis.

3.9. The Analytic Process

Data for the study was analysed recursively following the RTA phases proposed by Braun and Clarke (2019, 2021). As this was a case study with a large amount of data consisting of 276 899 words and 117 documents (20 interviews, 1 focus group, 25 written AFGDs, and 71 reflective reports), the analytical process took around 12 months to

complete. In the following sections, I define and explain the analytical process shown in figure 11 and how I engaged with the data.
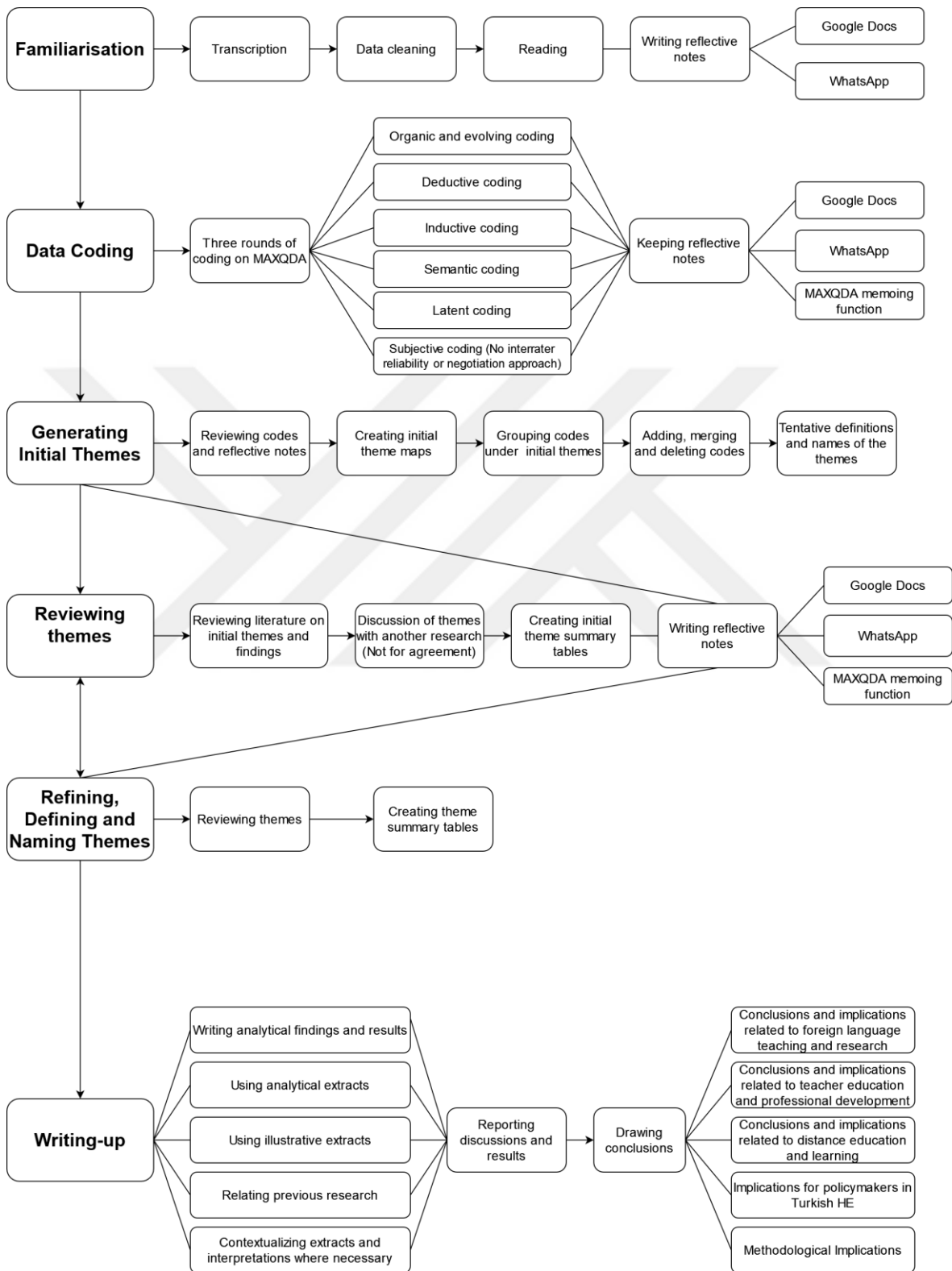
Figure 11. The analytical process of RTA

3.9.1. Familiarisation

Data familiarisation started with the program development and implementation, as I developed, implemented, and evaluated the OPD program. I read AFGDs and reflective reports during program implementation and conducted interviews before and after the OPD program. I transcribed the interviews using Otter.ai, which provides the written transcription of audio files. While the software offered high accuracy, I meticulously checked the scripts' integrity to ensure that everything participants said was transcribed verbatim by preserving the interviews' authenticity, including mistakes, slips, pauses, and similar discourse patterns. Then, I cleaned the information that could reveal the identity of the participants and the research setting by anonymising and pseudonymising all data. Writing, checking and cleaning the interview scripts immersed and familiarised me with the data.

I kept and backed up the data in password-protected devices: one hard disk, my personal computer (PC), and my smartphone. Maintaining data on my smartphone made them available to me all the time, and I read them whenever I had an opportunity or needed to check something. I carefully read all data on my personal computer and smartphone and took reflective notes on a synchronised Google Docs document available on my personal smartphone and computer. While getting familiar with the data, I read articles, books, book chapters, and internet resources about student engagement, teacher education, and PD relevant to initial findings and analysis. I used WhatsApp, an instant messaging and video-calling application, to take oral and written reflective notes and to save links, screenshots, social media posts, articles, and everything relevant to my research design and analysis. I created a WhatsApp group of which I am the only member. In this way, I could use the app note to myself. Using WhatsApp also allowed me to take voice notes using the voice messaging function. While there are countless apps available for note-taking, I found WhatsApp and Google Docs the most practical, functional, and quickest way of taking familiarisation and reflexive notes.

3.9.2. Coding

I coded data using MAXQDA 2020, a qualitative data analysis software providing rigorous and systematic coding tools. It enables researchers to find, edit, merge, or separate codes easily and quickly. It is particularly suitable for coding in RTA, in which coding is evolving and organic. In MAXQDA, researchers can effortlessly search, edit, merge, or separate codes and coded data. It provides visuals and charts to analyse your codes and elaborate on candidate themes. It allows for back-ups, which means you can see how your codes have evolved and changed over time and reflect upon and challenge how you have developed codes.

I repeatedly and recursively coded the data over a period of 12 months. As I worked with a large dataset, I sometimes took a break from coding and making interpretations to refresh my mind. I did coding at different times and places to avoid increased cognitive load and exhaustion. When I stepped away from coding, I revised the introduction and literature review sections. Thus, I could catch up with the due dates and progress according to the research plan. I did the initial coding in 4 months using an organic, evolving, and subjective approach. The RTA was recursive rather than a linear process. Therefore, I revisited, edited, merged, and separated codes while generating, naming, and defining themes. I identified latent and semantic codes mainly through an inductive approach but used a deductive approach depending on the research questions and participants' accounts. I coded data segments relevant to my research questions instead of line-by-line coding. While coding the data, I kept reflexive notes using MAXQDA's memoing and tagging functions, Google Docs, and WhatsApp. These notes helped me to identify initial themes and findings from the study.

3.9.3. Generating Initial Themes

At the initial stage of generating themes, I used reflexive notes and the conceptual framework (ARPIM) to collate the codes according to the research questions. I developed

some tentative maps and tables based on the initial patterns I identified across the codes and reflexive notes.

There are approaches to qualitative data analysis in which researchers attempt to seek evidence for the assumptions of a theory or a framework. There are also approaches that use theories or conceptual frameworks to generate codes and themes prior to data analysis. Researchers seek accounts in the dataset that fit into their pre-identified codebook or set of themes in this approach. I did not use the conceptual framework to create codebooks or pre-determined themes. The conceptual framework guided the focus of the analysis, but the components of the framework were not themes or codes. For instance, the framework included the concept of "teacher motivation style" as one of the teaching behaviours influencing student engagement. However, I did not use this component and its sub-components as themes in my analysis. I focused on participants' perceptions, beliefs, positionings, experiences, and implementations regarding teacher motivation style. Then, I generated themes, the patterns of meaning, that I inductively identified across the dataset.

While answering the research questions related to student engagement, I mainly used the ARPIM framework. However, I was not strictly committed to the framework. I did not try to find data to evidence or test my assumptions. Instead, I explored how the participant instructors perceived, experienced, and implemented each component of the framework. Although I did not seek confirmation, I reported the interpretations supporting my initial framework. When I identified new components and concepts in the dataset that I did not include in my initial conceptual framework, I reported them in the analysis and reconstructed the framework. On the other hand, I used a more inductive approach to answer the research question concerning participant instructors' perceptions, beliefs, and experiences of PD and participating in this OPD program.

3.9.4. Developing and Reviewing Themes

After creating the initial theme maps, I revisited codes and categorised them according to the initial themes I identified. It allowed me to reflexively evaluate whether themes fit into the construction of the meaning I interpreted from the data. Some codes fit more than one theme, so I copied these codes to different themes on MAXQDA. Then, I checked all the codes and data segments to see whether new interpretations were possible, and I sometimes renamed the codes to reflect the participants' construction of meaning better. Finally, I created tentative theme maps and tables.

3.9.5. Refining, Defining and Naming Themes

After generating the initial themes, I had meetings with my supervisor and a peer to discuss the themes, codes and interpretations I had identified across the data. The purpose of the meetings was to have a richer, broader, and deeper understanding of the dataset and participants' construction of meaning and my interpretations rather than to reach a coding agreement or negotiation. I also investigated the related literature and prepared a Microsoft Excel table relating codes, candidate themes and subthemes to the previous research (see Appendix 14). Then, I prepared initial summary tables that included the themes, subthemes, definitions of them, example codes and data extracts. I was also taking reflexive notes that I could use in the reporting of the analysis and discussions. I reviewed theme summary tables recursively and repeatedly.

3.9.6. Writing up the Report

As this was a constructive qualitative study, I used reflexive first-person and active language when expressing my views and describing the work I did in line with the 7th edition of the APA publication manual (2020) to highlight the researcher's active role and subjectivity in the RTA (Braun & Clarke, 2021). "The results and discussion sections are combined" to avoid repetition and present analysis in relation to previous research (Braun &

Clarke, 2021, p. 131). I did not present the number of occurrences for codes because the focus was on the construction of meaning in relation to research questions rather than showing an absolute truth commonly shared by participants.

I included clear and concise data extracts analytically and illustratively to evidence my analytical claims and interpretations, which allows readers to evaluate the truthfulness and credibility of the findings (Braun & Clarke, 2021). While presenting quotes, I edited grammar mistakes, unnecessary details, fillers (i.e., um, ah, you know, let's say), and repetitions to increase concision and readability. While editing quotes, I avoided changing the meaning by removing materials that might contradict my assumptions. After I edited the selected quotes, the peer reviewer compared the raw extracts with the edited ones to make sure the quotes precisely reflected the idea and message they tried to convey. I added clarifying the information in brackets "()" when necessary. The removed parts in the extracts were shown with square brackets "[…]".

I created a visual map to present themes I identified using RTA (see Figure 12). Furthermore, the tables showing the theme's definitions and subthemes were presented for each theme, along with sample codes and data extracts. After completing the analysis, I wrote the conclusions I drew from the study and the theoretical and practical implications.

3.10. Summary of Chapter Three

This chapter described the instrumental qualitative case study design used in this study. EFL teachers' perceptions of student engagement and theoretical foundations of teaching behaviours and preferences influencing student engagement in language learning classrooms have not been adequately addressed in previous studies. Therefore, the instrumental qualitative case study design was relevant to this study to explore a typical group of EFL instructors' perceptions, beliefs, experiences and implementations. The chapter explained the justifications of research methods, selection and characteristics of research cite, participant recruitment, and data sources. The chapter also described the OPD

program's action-logic model, design features and program tasks. Finally, the chapter describes the analytical process and theme development.

CHAPTER FOUR
FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the results of the RTA and discussions of findings in relation to previous research. Figure 12 presents a map of themes and subthemes identified using the RTA approach.
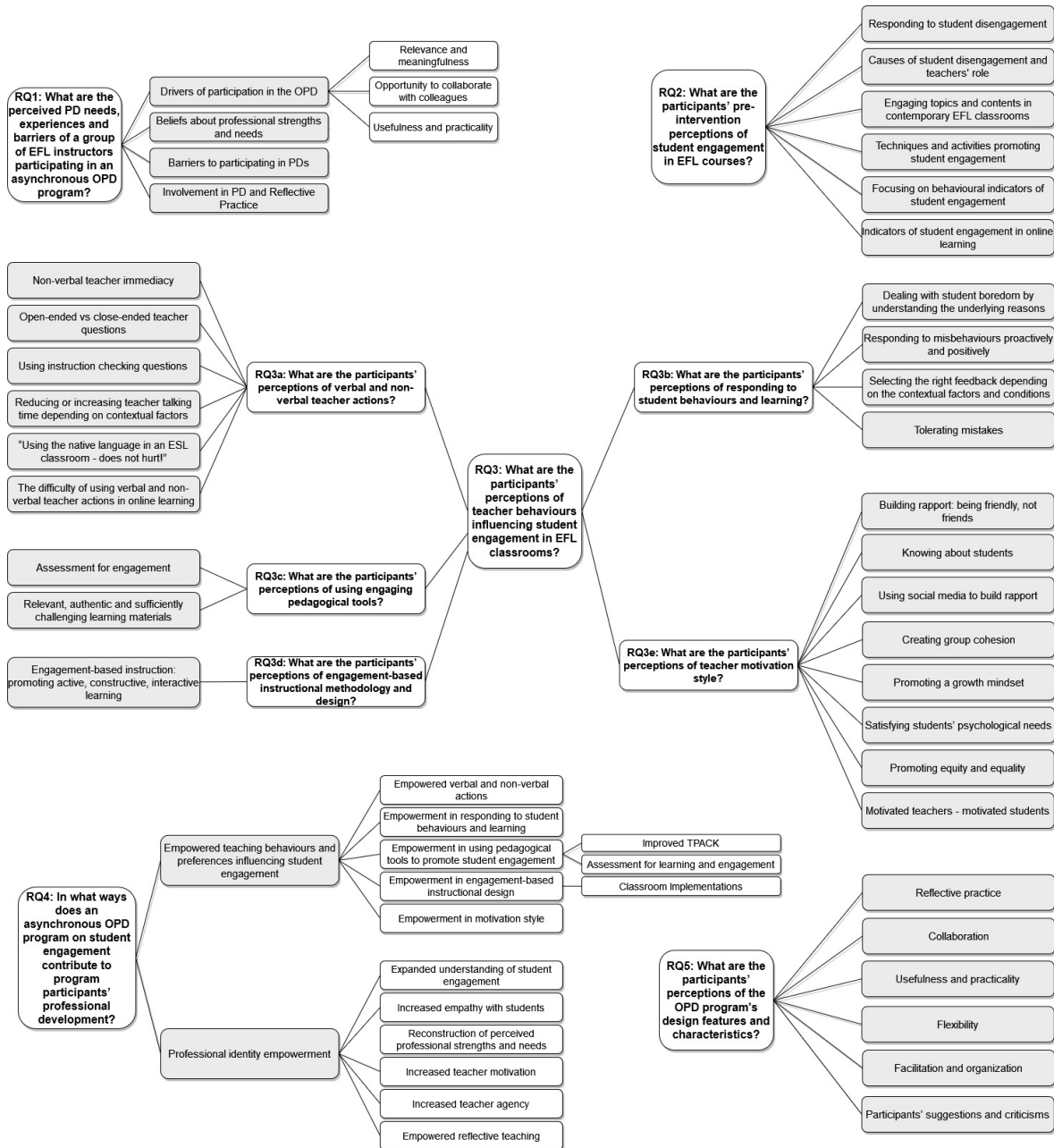
Figure 12. A map of themes related to each research question. Research questions are written in bold, themes are highlighted, and subthemes are shown.

4.1. Findings of RQ1

What are the perceived PD needs, experiences and barriers of a group of EFL instructors participating in an asynchronous OPD program?

Table 3

Themes regarding participants' perceived PD needs, experiences and barriers

Theme *Theme definitions are written in brackets	Subthemes *Theme definitions are written in brackets	Sample Codes	Sample Data Extract
Involvement in PD and reflective practice (This theme captures participants' current and previous involvement in PD and reflective teaching.)		Training sessions in the workplace Sharing ideas with colleagues informally	Researcher: Do you do anything for your professional development? Seda: Well, uh, not much, but at school, when we have any PD program, I attend them. I try to take notes. If there is something pragmatic and practical, any new techniques, games, or activities, I take notes. (Seda, interview 1)
Beliefs about professional strengths and needs (This theme captures participants' perceived professional strengths and needs.)		Increasing student motivation Use of technology in ELT	For me, I prefer to get involved in some courses on using technology and some applications, implementations and digital learning and teaching. That is the only thing I really need nowadays in such today's conditions (Evrim, interview 1).
Barriers to participating in PD (This theme captures participants' perceived barriers and constraints to participating in PD events.)		Heavy teaching workload Family responsibilities Administrative duties	Researcher: Are there any constraints or limitations which prevent you get involved in PDs? Yaren: Well, it's mostly, I think, the workload that we have at school. The PDs that are organised by the school, we can always participate in them, of course, because the time that is allocated is either we don't have classes or when we are on a break. But, there are some PDs that we can participate in outside of the school. Sometimes their time is not good for us. We either have classes at the same time or exams. So mostly, I would say it's the timing and work constraints. (Yaren, interview 1)
Drivers of participation (This theme captures why participant instructors wanted to participate in this OPD program.)	Relevance and meaningfulness (This theme identifies relevance and meaningfulness as one of the salient drivers of participation in the OPD program.)	Difficulty in engaging learners in online education Having disengagement problems in EFL courses Professional empowerment	And for the last few years, I think it's not only me, but many teachers are facing problems with student engagement and motivation. Now also, there is a problem with the pandemic. We are having a big problem with the pandemic. (Aylin, interview 1)
	Usefulness and practicality (This theme identifies usefulness and practicality as one of the salient drivers of participation in the OPD program.)		

Opportunity to collaborate with colleagues (This theme identifies the opportunity to collaborate with colleagues as one of the salient drivers of participation in the OPD program.)	Learning other's implementations Sharing ideas	Actually, I would like to have more interaction with other colleagues. And also learn about their experiences. I'd like to know about their activities interacting with each other and their development in teaching. (Ceren, interview 1)

Theme 1: Involvement in PD and Reflective Practice

Before the program, participants were involved in some PD activities, such as sharing ideas with colleagues, reading articles, joining webinars, and participating in compulsory training sessions at school. They also participated in a three-day PD program organized and implemented by the school administration based on the needs and interests of the instructors. However, these PD activities were limited in scope and did not include reflective practice. Participant instructors' engagement with reflective teaching consisted of informal activities such as note-taking after lessons, asking students' opinions during class time, making self-judgements and self-criticism based on students' exam results. RTA of the research data revealed that most participants' involvement in PD and reflective practice were mainly informal, temporal and unsystematic, as shown in the following extracts:

Sometimes I share some experiences with my friends at school with my colleagues, but that's very rare. (Defne, interview 1)

I'm trying to do some things, but unfortunately, because of the busy schedule of our program, I didn't have much time to join the professional development programs, but generally, we discuss the experiences we have in our classrooms. (Zuhal, interview 1)

I don't do much about my professional development, but at school, when we have any PD program, I attend them. I try to take notes. If there is something pragmatic

and practical, I take notes on any new techniques, games, activities, etc. (Seda, interview 1)

Theme 2: Beliefs about Professional Strengths and Needs

Whilst most instructors' involvement in PD was limited to school-based compulsory training sessions, three instructors participated in certificate programs (CELTA, British Council: Teaching Communicatively, and Cambridge Teacher Knowledge Test). Furthermore, two participants were postgraduate students in the department of educational sciences at the time of the study. However, most participants had not engaged in reflective teaching activities regularly and systematically. Therefore, their responses to interview questions concerning their perceived PD needs were usually limited and vague.

For instance, Evrim stated that she had no PD needs except for using technology. Although she had been teaching English for many years at the time of the study, her involvement in PD was limited to compulsory training sessions at the workplace. Additionally, she never engaged in formal and systematic reflective practice. She stated, "I have good reflections, I receive feedback from my students (orally during the course time), but I have never received a peer response or reflection." Her responses to interview questions demonstrated that she had high teacher self-efficacy beliefs about herself. Her reflections on her professional strengths and needs were based on her beliefs about herself and some informal talks with students. She said, "My students always tell me that you are quite an energetic person. You always walk, run and talk, do and touch. There's always action in the classroom." She was so self-confident about her teaching that she told me, "I think I'm quite good at it as an experienced teacher. That's it. Now we can pass on the other question (Evrim, interview 1)."

Nevertheless, Yaren, who participated in formal and continuing PD and certificate programs, gave more cautious, specific and detailed answers to interview questions about her perceived PD needs and strengths. Although she did not directly state the benefit of

previous involvement in PD in terms of being more reflective, it was apparent in her responses to interview questions that Yaren was more aware of her professional identity, strengths and needs than most participants as she engaged in formal and systematic reflective practice:

> As I said, my theoretical background is not language teaching, so I found methods and theories always boring. And the way I learned teaching was practical before getting into any theories. So, I think I need to fill that gap, and I can do that by reading and attending different (PD) courses. And what else can I improve? I like to talk a lot in class, so decreasing my teacher, teacher talk time, I think, is something that needs to be improved. (Yaren, interview 1)

While the literature indicates that EFL teachers' involvement in reflective practice (Kurosh et al., 2020; Moradkhani et al., 2017) and PD (Cabaroglu, 2014; Ravandpour, 2019) enhance their self-efficacy beliefs, lack of involvement in reflective practice and CPD may also create higher self-efficacy beliefs due to not being aware of professional needs. Participant instructors' involvement in reflective practice seemed to provide them with opportunities to make a more critical evaluation of their professional strengths and weaknesses. However, self-reports of teachers who are not involved in formal and continuing reflective practice may not always reflect their real PD needs. Findings of RTA reveal that higher teacher self-efficacy might result from the lack of involvement in reflective practice and CPD.

On the other hand, findings from the study indicated that the lack of involvement in regular and systematic reflective practice might prevent teachers from realising their professional strengths. In the pre-intervention interview, each participant reported different PD needs such as teaching productive skills, improving testing and assessment literacy, dealing with misbehaviours, using textbooks effectively and motivating students, highlighting the increased need for distance education during COVID-19. Apart from these areas, all participants reported a high need to improve the use of technology in teaching and learning English, as illustrated in the following extracts:

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As time changes, we need to improve ourselves, and I said that the students are changing, and now they expect to see technological things. They expect you to become competent in using computer programs, so I need to improve, especially technologically. (Aylin, interview 1)

I can learn very easily, but I'm not good at solving problems with technology. I mean, when there is something wrong with the computer or some other applications, some devices, I'm not good at solving them. In such cases, I need help. When somebody shows me and teaches me, I can learn very easily. I can adapt. (Evrim, interview 1)

Nevertheless, their competence in using technology and digital tools was not as weak as they perceived. Field notes, their posts in AFGDs and reflective reports indicated that they had effectively used several technological tools before the OPD program. During the program modules, they taught each other these digital tools and platforms and quickly learned how to use them in their classes. The RTA of data revealed that their reports of perceived PD needs in using technology were more about their interest or anxiety in using technology rather than professional knowledge, competency or skill gaps. Participant instructors' evaluation of their PD needs was sometimes about their professional interests rather than a critical evaluation of their teaching and roles in students' learning.

Theme 3: Barriers to Participating in PD

This theme captures participants' perceived barriers to participating in PD. Teachers' tasks related to teaching usually go beyond in-class teaching, and they are too busy to get involved in PD due to time constraints and heavy workload (Chaaban, 2017; Rhodes & Houghton-Hill, 2000). Similarly, instructors expressed constraints and barriers that prevented them from going beyond compulsory PD. The most prevalent constraint was the heavy workload consisting of lesson preparation, developing and assessing exams and giving feedback on students' tasks and assignments. Other barriers reported were lack of funding,

health problems, and involvement in postgraduate studies. Moreover, family responsibilities and commitments were other constraints preventing participants from getting involved in CPD, as shown in the following extract:

OK, I tell my daughter that she shouldn't get married if she wants to develop herself. She shouldn't have any kids (laughing). We can also do many things even if we are married, but I have limited time right now. I try to do my best for my students, for my kids, and for my house. So, sometimes, I can't manage the time. So that's my biggest problem, even if I am a middle-aged woman right now. (Aysel, interview 1)

Theme 4: Drivers of Participation

In our initial meeting, I introduced instructors to the program's content and design features, allowing them to evaluate possible opportunities, benefits and challenges of the OPD program. Thus, they were able to decide to participate in this program considering their perceived PD needs, interests, and conditions. Relevance and the opportunity to collaborate with colleagues were the most salient drivers of participation identified in the RTA. On the other hand, staying up-to-date, knowing the participants and the OPD program designer, and professional empowerment were less common but evident drivers of participation in this OPD program.

Subtheme 1: Relevance and Meaningfulness

"Teachers are facing problems with student engagement and motivation."

Addressing teachers' professional learning needs and the problems they experience in their classrooms is another driver of participating in PD (Howard, 2021; Powell & Bodur, 2019). My analysis yielded similar findings to previous studies suggesting that intrinsic motivation factors, such as promoting student achievement and self-improvement, are effective motivators for participating in PD (Hynds & McDonald, 2010). One of the most salient reasons instructors reported in the interviews was the relevance of the program

content to their needs and conditions. For instance, Aylin and Aysel stated that they experienced disengagement problems in their classes, which became more prevalent in online learning during COVID-19:

> And for the last few years, I think it's not only me but many teachers are facing problems with student engagement and motivation. Now, there is also a problem with the pandemic (COVID-19). I mean, we are having a big problem with the pandemic. (Aylin, interview 1)

> First of all, the name of the program attracts our attention. It draws our attention because all of us have problems with student engagement. (Aysel, interview 1)

The findings support the current literature that relevance (Appova & Arbaugh, 2017; Sancar et al., 2021) and providing teachers autonomy, choice and agency through online learning are drivers of participation in OPD (Howard, 2021; Tao & Gao, 2017). Participant instructors perceived the OPD as an opportunity to refresh their current knowledge and gain new knowledge and skills without time, travel, place and funding constraints.

Subtheme 2: Usefulness and Practicality

"I prefer especially workshops, not the lectures, the ones which resemble preaching sessions."

One of the significant factors determining the quality of effective teacher PD programs is usefulness and practicality, which means effective OPD programs should provide teachers opportunities to learn instructional practices and activities that they can use in their classrooms (Powell & Bodur, 2019; Dede et al., 2009). Despite not being as salient as the other drivers of participation identified in RTA, some participants reported a desire to learn practical implementations rather than implicit or theoretical knowledge and skills for teaching. Their expectation to learn new knowledge that they would use in their classroom seemed to be another driver of participation, as expounded in the following extracts:

[…] If I want to get some theoretical knowledge, something like self-paced courses where you just sign up for a course, read, and follow up on writings and so on, those are okay, but they're ok just for the theoretical part. But as for teachers, I personally prefer face-to-face and some kind of interactive workshops where you don't just listen, but you actually have to practice what you were taught to do. And I think your course your professional development is one of those because we will not just read and follow up in writing, but we also have to apply whatever we have learned in our classroom. So, for me personally, this way is the best because the theory that you get doesn't always work in the classroom. So, you have to practice it to see if it works. (Yaren, interview 1)

I prefer especially workshops, not the lectures, the ones which resemble preaching sessions. Not the lectures but workshops with practical ideas. Any new technology, something that we can be involved in actively, classroom activities games can be, but not the preaching session. (Seda, interview 1)

Subtheme 3: Opportunity to Collaborate with Colleagues

The research on OPD suggests that one of the desired qualities of teacher OPD is collaboration and interaction among teachers (Appova & Arbaugh, 2017; Powell & Bodur, 2019; Sancar et al., 2021). PD activities that combine theory and practice through discussions between colleagues make the PD processes more effective and preferable (Koç et al., 2009; Zein, 2016). Similarly, the RTA of pre-intervention interviews demonstrated that some participants prefer PD activities addressing practical classroom implementations in collaboration and interaction with colleagues. They seemed to perceive this OPD program as an opportunity to systematically collaborate and interact with their colleagues to discuss classroom implementations and ways to handle similar challenges and problems. Before the program, I informed them about the written asynchronous discussions that they would engage in. The opportunity to exchange ideas with other colleagues appeared to be another driver of participation for some instructors, as exemplified in the following extract.

Actually, I would like to interact more with other colleagues and learn about their experiences. I'd like to learn about their classroom activities and their approach to teaching by interacting with them (Ceren, interview 1).

4.2. Findings of RQ2

What are the participants' pre-intervention perceptions of student engagement in EFL courses?

I generated five salient themes regarding participants' pre-intervention perceptions, experiences, beliefs and implementations regarding student engagement in EFL courses as featured in table 4: (1) focusing on behavioural indicators of student engagement, (2) causes of student disengagement, (3) engaging topics and contents in contemporary EFL classrooms (4) learning events promoting student engagement in contemporary EFL classrooms and (5) responding to student disengagement.

Table 4

Themes regarding participants' pre-intervention perceptions of student engagement in EFL courses

Themes *Theme definitions are written in brackets	Sample Codes	Sample Data Extract
Focusing on behavioural indicators of student engagement (This theme captures participants' pre-intervention perceptions, beliefs and experiences regarding the indicators of student engagement.)	Curiosity Interacting with other students Body language	Probably, we can understand their engagement in their eyes. We can see it in their eyes because when I'm engaged, you can understand whether I'm engaged or not from my eyes. (Aylin, interview 1)
Causes of student disengagement (This theme captures participants' pre-intervention perceptions, beliefs and experiences regarding the causes of student disengagement.)	Physiological states of students L2 speaking anxiety Uninteresting topics	They are ashamed of speaking in English, for example. I go on with grammar subject listening, and pronunciation, and I decide when I decide to go on with speaking, students exactly go away. (Defne, interview 1)
Engaging topics and contents in contemporary EFL classrooms (This theme captures participants' pre-intervention perceptions,	Films Games	They (students) enjoy games: vocabulary games or role-playing games, but in writing lessons, it is not very easy to promote student engagement in this way by playing games,

beliefs and experiences regarding the topics and contents promoting engagement in foreign language courses.)	Internet and social media	but they are interested in social media and games and technology. (Seda, interview 1)	
Techniques and activities promoting student engagement (This theme captures participants' pre-intervention perceptions, beliefs and experiences regarding approaches, techniques and activities promoting engagement in foreign language courses.)	Gamification Personalisation Using digital tools	They (Students) don't like information to be bombarded on them: gamify and entertain. I really don't like to use this entertainment for class, but unfortunately, that's what we need to do now. (Yaren, interview, 1)	
Responding to student disengagement (This theme captures participants' pre-intervention perceptions, beliefs and experiences regarding how to respond to student disengagement.)	Ignoring if it is not permanent Personal meetings with students Focus on causes	OK, I actually after the class I call him or her, and that time we have a small meeting, and I ask him or her "what is the problem?". (Aysel, interview, 1)	

Theme 1: Focusing on Behavioural Indicators of Student Engagement

"You can understand engagement from students' eyes."

Evaluating, monitoring, and responding to student engagement is an essential teaching skill (Lee & Reeve, 2012). This theme captures participant instructors' perceptions of student engagement indicators to understand how they evaluate and monitor student engagement. Table 5 indicates the codes I identified regarding participant instructors' perceptions of indicators of student engagement based on pre-intervention interviews. The most prevalent category was behavioural aspects of student engagement, while affective, cognitive and agentic indicators of engagement were less common perceived indicators.

Table 5

Codes regarding participants' perceptions of indicators of student engagement

Categories	Behavioural	Affective	Cognitive	Agentic
Codes	Asking questions Attendance Being alert Being focused Bringing course materials Coming to the lesson prepared Completion of tasks and assignments Following instructions	Interaction with teacher Motivation Positive attitudes toward learning Willingness	Using or applying what is learnt Exam scores Progress in language skills	Not being afraid of making mistakes Curiosity Perseverance

Interacting with other students
Involvement in tasks
Participation
Paying attention
Listening carefully
Place in the classroom
Body language
Raising hands during learning events
Submitting assignments
Taking notes
Taking responsibility
Visiting educators' offices

As shown in table 5, RTA indicated that participants' perceptions of student engagement focused more on observable student behaviours such as overall posture, eye contact, raising hands, and showing interest by asking and answering questions. Instructors also described indicators of student disengagement through observable behaviours such as using mobile phones, sleeping in the lessons, not bringing course materials to the class and lack of participation during learning events, as shown in the following extracts:

> In face-to-face learning environments, you can understand engagement from their eyes. First of all, they participate in the class. They ask questions, criticise, reflect, and give feedback. They answer the questions. They come to the board and write, and sometimes one or more students, two or three students, sometimes visit you in your office and ask questions. They are engaged students. They want to learn more, but the number is not very high. One or two or three students only. (Evrim, interview 1)

> If the students are paying attention to the lesson and feel that they are alert, I think we can think that students are trying to get engaged in the class. Paying attention and being alert are some factors that I can think of. (Zuhal, interview 1)

As exemplified in the above extracts, most participants stated that they could read engagement from students' eyes. However, understanding and measuring student engagement through observable behaviours is not always possible because engaged students

may not always perform overt behaviours (Chi & Wylie, 2014). Some students are silent and do not participate, but they might still be focused and cognitively engaged. On the other hand, indicators of student engagement can be misleading because there are students who pretend to be engaged just to please teachers (Akey, 2006). Seda exemplifies the complexity of understanding student engagement in the following extract:

Factors such as in-class behaviours, posture, facial expressions and overall attitude are all indicative of the engagement level of students. Disengaged learners look bored and disconnected, and they tend to distract classmates. They sit in the back row wearing headphones or idling in the front row, daydreaming while pretending to be awake and attentive. Some extreme types even become classroom trolls. Engaged students, however, care about what is going on in the class, and their body language tells us that they are actually there. They are curious about the lesson and interested in the subject being taught. They ask questions, take part in discussions and interact with their friends. Some students are like rabbits. They may look aloof and uninvolved in class, but they may approach you for a chatting session after the lesson, which indicates that they actually enjoy your company and attitude. (Seda, module 1 AFGD)

Theme 2: Indicators of Student Engagement in Online Learning

"I cannot understand it on the screen."

Before the program implementation, some participants stated that it is challenging to understand student engagement in online lessons because they do not have the chance to observe students' behaviours and emotional states. As their understanding and perception of student engagement mainly focused on the behavioural aspect of student engagement, some participants associated student engagement with participation and task involvement, which was difficult to monitor in online learning (Alterman & Larusson 2013).

I can understand a learner is disengaged in face-to-face classes, but it is really difficult in online learning. I cannot understand it on the screen because their cameras and microphones are off most of the time. They say: "I'm not online. I'm offline. I don't have a microphone". Some say: "I don't have a camera". It is really difficult to understand this, but it is easy when they don't care about what we teach in the face-to-face classroom. They don't take notes, and they don't ask questions. (Evrim, interview 1)

Theme 3: Causes of Student Disengagement and Teachers' Role

Teachers can be more influential than many factors in determining students' engagement with learning (Fredricks, 2014; Kuh et al., 2006; Marks, 2000); however, participant instructors' pre-program perceptions of causes of student disengagement focused more on students' personal problems (i.e., family issues, economic problems), external factors (i.e., crowded classes, digital distractors), physiological state of learners (i.e., being hungry, tired or sleepy) and student motivation (i.e., anxiety, low self-esteem). As discussed in RQ1, participant instructors' lack of involvement in CPD and regular reflective teaching might impede them from making judgements about the effectiveness of their teaching and their role in students' learning and engagement. Before the program implementation, Aysel was the only one who highlighted the central role of teachers in engaging students with learning.

When a teacher always corrects them (students), or a teacher doesn't understand him or her, if they always keep quiet in the class, this can also cause student disengagement. Engagement occurs between a teacher and a student, and most of the time, the teacher has more responsibilities for it. It's a cliché, but when a student likes her teacher, you know the teaching style and her teacher's behaviours, she really wants to come to the lesson. (Aysel, interview 1)

Theme 4: Engaging Topics and Contents in Contemporary EFL Classrooms

This theme explores participant instructors' pre-intervention perceptions of topics and contents promoting student engagement in EFL classrooms. As illustrated in table 6, instructors reported that their students were interested in popular topics such as social media, video games, sports, music, films and fashion. They also stated students were not interested in outdated topics such as classic films and music.

Table 6

The topics and contents participant instructors perceived to be effective in promoting engagement in their courses

Topics and Contents students are interested		Topics and contents students are not interested
Celebrities	Politics	Classical Films
Computer Games	Popular Science	Classical Music
Cars	Shopping	Global Issues
Fashion	Songs	Reading
Internet and social media	Space	Sports
Marriage	Special Days	Writing
Movies	Sports	
Music	Teachers' Personal Life	
Nature	Technology	
Pets	Tv Series	
	Video Games	

Field notes and participants' accounts revealed that most contemporary textbooks' contents were dominated by global issues such as global climate change and environmental problems. Aylin and Seda stated that students are overwhelmed by these topics:

They are not interested in environmental issues and topics, but nowadays, the books include climate change, global warming, and the environment and all these things, but most students are not interested in them. Maybe we should inform the Cambridge University Press or Oxford University Press about it (laughing). (Aylin, interview 1)

Current subject matters like global warming, and climate change, they're bored with them, and I'm bored with them, so they want different things. More personal things,

personal things about themselves and personal things about their teachers' personality, personal issues. (Seda, interview 1)

While these topics are essential in contemporary classrooms to create awareness of these global issues for a sustainable future, participants' accounts indicate that teachers and students felt overwhelmed by too much content on this issue, which seemed to create burnout and boredom.

Some participants' responses to interview questions and AFGD posts showed that sometimes there was a mismatch between students' and teachers' preferences for course topics and contents, and they feel they need to be able to adapt to the learners' changing interests. For instance, Zuhal argued that:

If you talk about classical music, they don't have any idea. Even when we talk about a very classical film, they have no idea about that film, so we need to make ourselves adapt to the new information, the new era at the same time, I think. (Interview 1)

Moderate teacher self-disclosure may break the ice between teachers and students and facilitate student engagement (Dörnyei & Mercer, 2020). Likewise, Seda stated that students are curious to learn about teachers' lives and personalised content that addresses learners' personal issues.

As I said, social media is the first one (they are interested in), Instagram, technology Internet, and foreign countries travelling abroad. Because they all want to go abroad, they are interested in foreign countries. And they're interested in my personal experiences, my own teaching experiences. They ask me about my high school years and my university years. They're curious about our own experiences. (Seda, interview 1)

Some instructors also stated that they avoid topics such as politics, religion, and gender. It seemed they thought talking about these topics may create classroom disputes,

which might negatively affect group cohesion. For instance, Zuhal stated that "I generally prefer not to ask too personal questions, especially about some issues like family, religion, politics etc. (Module 5 AFGD)."

It was evident in field notes and participants' responses to interview questions that instructors' perceptions of engaging topics, contents and activities are mainly based on their classroom experiences and observations rather than critical and systematic evaluations of students' perceptions through surveys, classroom meetings or interviews.

Theme 5: Techniques and Activities Promoting Student Engagement

Instructors listed various techniques and activities that they find effective in engaging contemporary EFL students, such as using visuals, authentic materials, stories and games. The literature on student engagement indicates that interactive learning activities are more likely to engage learners (Chi & Wylie, 2014). Moreover, communicative competence is one of the primary purposes of EFL courses (Dörnyei, 2019). Creating an active and collaborative learning environment that encourages positive peer relationships and group cohesion is vital in engaging learners (Dörnyei, 2019; Zepke & Leach, 2010). Similarly, participants' self-reports showed that they perceived interactive and collaborative learning activities as one of the most effective ways of promoting student engagement and a strong predictor of it. For example, when asked about engaging activities, Yaren stated that:

> (Students prefer) pair work activities and activities where they're not alone, where they can rely on somebody else to help them like their peers, and their friends increase students' engagement. Right now, I'm talking more about online education because that's what we've been doing for a year, but before we got online, I would give students theatrical activities to do. They would have to prepare it overnight or over a few days, like conversations and different situational activities, and they liked performing in front of the class. A lot of students like doing posters or writing something that we would read afterwards, that everybody would read afterwards.

Activities that involve a lot of interaction with others and activities that they get feedback on are engaging. So, it's not just okay: "I did it, just the teacher reads it, gives me feedback, and that's it." They like activities that other students would also see, more communicative and interactive activities. (Interview 1)

Theme 6: Responding to Student Disengagement

This theme explores teachers' strategies for dealing with student disengagement. Participants reported different strategies to deal with student disengagement, such as changing the topic, making jokes and giving a break. Most participants echoed that they have a personal meeting with the students whom they think are disengaged. RTA of the interview data suggests that participants were willing to increase engagement in their courses and had already developed some implicit strategies to deal with disengagement before they participated in the OPD program, as illustrated in the following extracts:

I think I try to be careful about these (disengaged) students. For example, I talk with them privately and ask why they are not interested in English, the subject or the lesson, or why they are absent. I talk to them. Most talk about their financial or family issues, and some are not engaged because of it, but some of them say that they don't have attendance obligations. Others say I cannot do it because I'm not competent enough for it. I tried to talk with them privately. And on the sessions (online lessons), I sometimes try to motivate some silent students by calling their names. (Defne, interview 1)

I invite them to my office, and I talk to them. I try to learn the reason why they are disengaged if they have personal problems. I listen to them. If they have some suggestions, I listen to them. I take my notes, and it works. It really works. When you invite them to your office and give feedback to them personally, it works. (Evrim, interview 1)

4.3. Findings of RQ3

What are the participants' perceptions of teacher behaviours influencing student engagement in EFL classrooms?

RQ3 aims to understand what beliefs and perceptions participant instructors developed before, during and after their participation in the OPD program concerning teacher behaviours influencing student engagement in EFL classrooms. Codes, themes and subthemes were identified through deductive-inductive RTA (Braun & Clarke, 2021) based on the following sub-questions guided by the ARPIM framework.

4.3.1 Findings of RQ3a

What are the participants' perceptions of verbal and nonverbal teacher actions?

This sub-question explores participant instructors' perceptions, experiences, beliefs and implementations regarding the use of verbal and nonverbal stimulations during learning events. I generated the six salient themes regarding participants' perceptions of the nonverbal and nonverbal teacher actions: (1) nonverbal teacher immediacy, (2) open-ended vs close-ended teacher questions, (3) instruction checking questions (ICQs), (4) reducing or increasing teacher talking time depending on contextual factors, (5) "Using the native language in an ESL classroom - does not hurt.", (6) verbal and nonverbal teacher actions in online learning.

Table 7: Themes regarding participants' perceptions of verbal and nonverbal teacher actions

Themes *Theme definitions are written in brackets.	Sample Codes	Sample Data Extract
Nonverbal teacher immediacy (This theme captures participants' perceptions of using nonverbal teacher immediacy to promote student engagement)	Physical positioning in the class Considering cultural issues and stereotypes Immediacy	You should also be careful about the use of some of the nonverbal actions because there may be some cultural and regional differences between your learners, and some of the body language movements or mimics or facial expressions differ from one culture or region to another. (Zuhal, module 1 AFGD)

Open-ended vs close-ended teacher questions (This theme captures participants' perceptions of using open-ended and close-ended questions to promote student engagement)	Exemplifying answers for learners

Use of L1 in the classroom | I agree that when teachers speak in their mother tongue, students feel closer to you, and they know that they can reach the teacher without any barriers. (Zeynep, module 1 AFGD) |
| Instruction checking questions (This theme captures participants' perceptions of using instruction checking questions to promote student engagement) | Using active instructions

Using instruction checking questions | After giving the instructions, we need to make sure that all students understand what they are supposed or expected to do. We can even demonstrate some instructions for the students who do not understand them. (Aylin, module 1 AFGD) |
| Reducing or increasing teacher talking time depending on contextual factors (This theme captures participants' perceptions of reducing or increasing teacher talk to promote student engagement) | Reduced teacher talk

Quantity of teacher talk

Quality of teacher talk | I think the amount must vary on the circumstances such as the period of the term, the level of the students, the number of the students, the hour of the lesson etc. but of course, it is the vital point of building rapport, engaging attraction, explaining the activities, showing the general concept and importance of the topic and I sometimes think that this is a bit related to our culture because as far as I see our students/people exactly like talking and they need a thorough explanation most of the time. (Defne, module 1 AFGD) |
| "Using the native language in an ESL classroom - does not hurt" (This theme captures participants' perceptions of using students' native language to promote student engagement) | Building rapport with L1

Reducing anxiety | Should we use only English in the EFL classroom? I think it is not necessary. Some amount of native language use can create a warmer atmosphere in the EFL classroom. It helps to create a bond between teacher and students, and it also helps students understand better in lower language level classes. (Evrim, module 1 AFGD) |
| Verbal and nonverbal teacher actions in online learning (This theme captures participants' perceptions, experiences, beliefs and implementations concerning verbal teacher actions in online learning environments) | Using online communication tools

The difficulty of applying teacher actions online | But as we always repeat this, nowadays, as we do have online classes, we have online classes and lack of computer equipment for students. And so actually we can, they can see us of course, we use our cameras and microphones and all equipment. (Aylin, interview 2) |

Theme 1: Nonverbal Teacher Immediacy

Teachers' immediacy, which refers to behaviours promoting closeness and better nonverbal interaction between teachers and students, is associated with better learning (Witt et al., 2004). It reduces the perceived distance and enhances better communication between teachers and students (Frymier & Houser, 2000). Nonverbal teacher actions, including gestures, mimes, eye contact, posture, direct body positioning towards students and overall positive body language, promote immediacy and student motivation (Liu, 2021). Effective and positive nonverbal teacher behaviours can increase students' interest and attention to the course content and promote engagement (Mazer, 2013). Similarly, when asked about the effective use of nonverbal teacher actions in EFL classrooms, participants stated that positive body language, eye contact, showing interest while listening to students and physical positioning in the classroom are influential factors that impact student engagement, as voiced in these illustrative examples:

It is known that nonverbal actions are as important as verbal ones. I believe that "actions speak louder than words". That's why teachers have to be careful about using nonverbal actions. Nonverbal actions such as gestures, facial expressions, posture, body language, and eye contact signal several messages to the students, and those messages should make the students gain a positive attitude towards the lesson so that the teachers should have positive facial expressions all the time. On the other hand, depending on the task and instructional design, teachers determine the right physical position in the classroom without disturbing or distracting their students. For instance, the teachers can walk around the class or stand at the corner of the class to monitor the students in order to support them in need but not make them feel that "big brother is watching them". (Aysel, module 1 AFGD)

If you want a whole class disengaged, deadly bored and irritated, sit behind your teacher's desk till the end of the lesson, murmur to yourself all the time, fix your eyes on that hard-working 'special' student and never stop wearing that sulky, unpleasant, judgemental face of yours. Then you easily construct psychological and communicative barriers against your students. And when you form this indestructible wall, your students will never approach you, even if you are the most knowledgeable teacher in the world. A teacher's eyes fixed on a specific student in a class is quite discouraging for other students. Eye contact is a core element in forging a bond between the teacher and the students. (Seda, module 1 AFGD)

Theme 2: Open-ended vs Close-Ended Teacher Questions

Teachers ask 200-300 questions daily, which means a teacher with 30 years of experience asks between 1.3 and 2 million questions (Walsh & Sattes, 2004). Quality teacher questions are essential to promote productive conversation (Pehmer et al., 2015) and facilitate learning (Brualdi, 1998). Accordingly, findings from the study suggest that authentic questions relating to students' personal life and referential questions promoting

constructive learning enhance engagement and better learning outcomes in EFL courses, as exemplified by Zuhal in detail:

> I think in order to promote students' engagement, open-ended questions are effective tools for the instructors to encourage opinions, elaboration and discussion in EFL classrooms. The instructor asks questions in order to encourage learners to think and focus on the content of the lesson. The instructor should try to choose authentic questions that connect the learning process to the real world or the real life of the learner. Trying to engage the students by choosing interesting issues may be another effective method. The learners' interests, lifestyles, and background information are also important factors when asking questions to them. Instructors should be careful about choosing the content of the question. Questions should be planned and linked to the objectives of the course. The instructor should be clear while asking the question and give enough time for the learner to think and respond. If there is any problem with the comprehension of the question, the instructor should paraphrase it and make it clear and more comprehensible. The instructor should respect the individual differences of the learners in the classroom and create a stress-free, safe atmosphere in which learners do not feel anxious while responding to the questions. The learner also should feel free to ask questions to the instructor. The instructor should use friendly and communicative language while asking and responding to questions to engage the learners. (Module 1 AFGD)

It is widely accepted that referential or open-ended questions allow more opportunities to communicate and interact (Cullen, 1998; Nassaji & Wells, 2000; Thoms, 2012), whilst closed or display questions are regarded as less effective because they limit classroom interactions and do not require detailed or long answers. However, moderate and effective use of display questions can encourage participation and interaction in language classrooms (Lee, 2006). Most participants echoed this view in AFGDs, arguing that close-ended questions could also encourage interaction and increase motivation, especially in beginner and elementary level EFL classrooms where students' English levels are too low to produce meaningful and long utterances in English. For instance, Aylin stated that:

I think asking students questions with "yes/no answers" as a start may be helpful. Firstly, we should encourage them to participate and make them feel confident. We should especially use this strategy with disengaged students. Then, we will let more engaged and confident students answer -WH questions. After that, we'll make the disengaged students answer more informative questions by helping/letting them copy their classmates and reproduce answers. We should also avoid correcting every mistake they make so that they will participate more willingly next time. (Aylin, module 1 AFGD)

Theme 3: Instruction Checking Questions (ICQs)

Another critical component of verbal teacher behaviours is teachers' instructions employed to initiate, facilitate, elicit, or introduce tasks and learning events. As garnered from AFGDs, giving concise instructions that encourage interaction and constructing new knowledge promotes student engagement in EFL classrooms. Moreover, using a positive tone and language is more likely to engage and motivate students. One consideration for effective instructions that participants highlighted was students' English levels. For learners whose English level is low, teachers might prefer to write down instructions or use instruction checking questions (ICQs) to make sure students have understood what is expected from them. Yaren stated that even some simple instructions could be confusing for students as they are coping with understanding the task instruction in a foreign language. The other participants supported this view in AFGDs, arguing that apart from simplifying or writing down instructions, teachers should check students' understanding of the task instructions, as exemplified by Yaren:

I strongly agree that constructive and interactive instructions are more engaging and have a communicative purpose. Thus, interactive instructions should be concise and have a communicative goal and time allocated. I think it is also important to give students an idea of what they can do if they finish the task earlier. Instructions should be short, clear, precise, and to the point. I, personally, prefer using imperatives rather than "you will, you are going to" when giving instructions. From my personal

experience, I learned that writing down instructions word-by-word when planning a session saves a lot of time during the class. It also helps avoid any confusion and be ready for questions/clarifications learners might have/need. Another trick is asking ICQs (instructions checking questions). ICQs are very helpful in making sure that students understand what is expected of them, especially for longer and more complicated instructions. (Yaren, module 1 AFGD)

Theme 4: Reducing or Increasing Teacher Talking Time Depending on Contextual Factors

"I don't think there is an optimum time limit for teacher talk."

The literature on SLA and foreign language pedagogy have long acknowledged the critical role of interactions in the foreign language classroom (Long, 1983, 1996; Swain, 1985, 1995; Pica, 1994; Schmidt & Frota, 1986). While teachers' role in classroom interactions is vital in all domains, it is even more significant in EFL classrooms since meaningful communication experiences in the target language are usually limited to classroom interactions. Teachers are the main source of comprehensible input in the target language in an EFL setting. Therefore, the quantity and quality of teacher talk might influence student engagement and learning (Walsh, 2002). While it may be difficult to define characteristics of effective teacher talk due to contextual factors determining choices of quantity and content, the awareness of the pivotal role of teacher talk is essential to teachers. Since teachers are both facilitators and interlocutors in classroom interactions, teachers' discourses influence how students respond to learning and perceive their learning environment. Teacher discourse determines the communicative and non-communicative nature of classroom interactions and tasks (Ellis, 2012). While minimum teacher talk is usually considered better to provide learners more opportunities to talk, contextual factors should be considered while adjusting the amount of teacher talk in a foreign language classroom (Ellis, 2015). As highlighted by some participants optimising the quantity and content of teacher talk depends largely upon contextual factors such as students' levels, course outcomes and target language skills:

Adequate and comprehensible teacher talk is essential while managing activities and giving explanations and instructions. I think the quantity of teacher talk in EFL class actually depends on the lesson, the subject being taught, and the activity being conducted. The amount of teacher talk in a grammar lesson with A1 learners will not be the same in a C1 level Writing lesson. An experienced teacher will make the necessary adjustments in accordance with the level of the students and the subject matter. I don't think there is an optimum time limit for teacher talk. (Seda, module 1 AFGD)

Theme 5: "Using the native language in an ESL classroom - does not hurt!"

Another view proposed by participants concerning teacher talk was that the use of L1 in EFL classrooms should not be overlooked and prohibited as it might sometimes cause distress and anxiety among students. It is already known that using L1 reduces cognitive load and anxiety in L2 classrooms (Bruen & Kelly, 2014). Accordingly, the RTA revealed that moderate use of L1 could facilitate learning by creating immediacy and reducing anxiety in EFL classrooms, as illustrated in the following excerpts from AFGDs:

Using the native language in an ESL classroom - does not hurt! Moreover, it is helpful with lower-level students. "English only" classroom environment is scary and discouraging for learners (Yaren, module 1 AFGD).

We know that in EFL classrooms, for ideal interactive classes and active and engaged learners, target language usage should be common, but sometimes this has some negative impact on learners. They feel stressed, and the fear of not comprehending and making mistakes cause the learners to feel discouraged and unhappy. Therefore, I think sometimes adequate use of the source language (mother tongue) may motivate and encourage the learners. (Zuhal, module 1 AFGD)

Theme 6: Difficulty of Using Verbal and Nonverbal Teacher Actions in Online Learning

"The online classroom environment makes us all feel like robots."

The findings from RTA indicated that participants experienced several challenges concerning student engagement in online learning environments due to the lack of nonverbal interactions. The online environment restricts the use of nonverbal teachers' actions and classroom interactions, such as eye contact, smiling, proximity and other body language signals (Song et al., 2016). Similarly, most participants perceived online education as restrictive since it sometimes creates communication breakdowns due to the lack of nonverbal interactions, reduced emotional relationships between students and teachers, and technical problems, as expounded in the following extracts:

Unfortunately, the online classroom environment makes us all feel like robots, and it becomes even worse when communication comes down to a chat box or application-provided reaction/emotion buttons. It is only now that we completely realise the great importance of nonverbal actions! I can't even say which one is worse – not being able to evaluate the actions of students or not being able to fully use nonverbal communication techniques as a teacher. (Yaren, module 1 AFGD)

It is quite difficult to provide nonverbal actions in online education. It is absolutely necessary for students and teachers to see each other. So, we should have a camera and microphone, but when dealing with communicating on the internet, there can be a connection delay. Therefore, when asking a question or giving instructions, we should take more time to get an answer or response from students. It is also true that students' cameras and microphones are often closed, and it is difficult to interact and communicate. (Esra, module 1 AFGD)

Online education cannot replace face-to-face education. We cannot pass our energy and teaching passion to the students. In online lessons, the time limit is another

problem. We don't even have enough time to complete the planned topics, let alone nonverbal actions to activate their engagement. (Evrim, module 1 AFGD)

These extracts illustrate that participants perceive online learning environments as a limitation to immediacy. While the lack of nonverbal teacher actions and the possibility of monitoring students' engagement in online lessons pose a substantial challenge for engaging learners compared to face-to-face courses, teachers can still implement some nonverbal communication strategies using web cameras effectively in online lessons. Moreover, the same principles for verbal teacher immediacy may be applied to online learning environments. In this program, participants were involved in reflective practice to self-evaluate their use of verbal and nonverbal teacher actions in online classrooms. They discussed ways to increase engagement in online learning environments in AFGDs and synchronous collaborative instructional design sessions. The findings suggest that some participants' perceptions of using verbal and nonverbal actions in online learning positively changed during and after their participation in the OPD program. The reflective reports and post-intervention interviews indicated the changing perceptions of some participants concerning verbal and nonverbal actions in online learning environments. For instance, Aysel stated that:

As I said, while studying in the modules, it was really difficult to use both verbal and especially nonverbal teacher actions effectively in online education. It was also hard to use active instructions to promote student engagement. However, since I participated in the "Engage Me!" workshop, I have realised it is not as difficult as I thought before. I used to talk more than my students throughout my lessons since the beginning of online education, but now the quantity of my talk has decreased, and my students have begun to talk more. (End-of-program reflective report 1)

4.3.2. Findings of RQ3b

What are the participants' perceptions of responding to student behaviours and learning?

One of the teacher behaviours affecting students' engagement with learning is teachers' responses to student behaviours and learning. Teachers respond to numerous positive and negative student behaviours during learning events and interactions through verbal and nonverbal teacher actions. Furthermore, they respond to student learning by giving feedback, scaffolding, and praising. This sub-question explores participant instructors' perceptions, experiences, beliefs and implementations of responding to student behaviours and learning. I generated the four salient themes regarding participants' perceptions of responding to student behaviours and learning as featured in table 8: (1) dealing with student boredom: understanding the underlying reasons, (2) responding to misbehaviours proactively and positively, (3) selecting the proper feedback strategy depending on the contextual factors and conditions, (4) encouraging and tolerating mistakes.

Table 8

Themes regarding participants' perceptions of responding to student behaviours and learning

Themes *Theme definitions are written in brackets.	Sample Codes	Sample Data Extract
Dealing with student boredom by understanding the underlying reasons (This theme captures participants' perceptions, experiences, beliefs and implementations concerning responding to student boredom.)	Changing partners Activate physical manipulations Having a conversation about a different topic	Giving short breaks and talking about something in Turkish for a short time is our favourite. (Ceren, module 1 AFGD)
Responding to misbehaviours proactively and positively (This theme captures participants' perceptions, experiences, beliefs and implementations concerning responding to student misbehaviours.)	Private talk in the office Using nonverbal clues	In the first lessons of the term, deciding the rules of the class together may help as the learners may not be aware of the manners and behaviours which can cause discipline problems. (Zeynep, module 2 AFGD)
Selecting the proper feedback strategy depending on the contextual factors and conditions (This theme captures participants' perceptions, experiences, beliefs and implementations concerning feedback.)	Considering the skill being taught Being positive	I generally give written feedback on a writing assignment or on my students' workbooks after checking them. I usually try to give positive feedback, and sometimes I even write my expectations for future assignments to the students, especially those who do not fulfil their duty properly (Aylin, module 2 AFGD)
Encouraging and tolerating mistakes (This theme captures participants' perceptions, experiences, beliefs and implementations concerning responding to student mistakes.)	Tolerating and encouraging mistakes Helping students learn through their mistakes	I'm not that much into an instant correction. Actually, the way I correct student errors depends on many factors and variables. The 'severity' of the error, the context, the lesson and even the personality of the student should be taken into consideration while doing corrections. (Seda, module 2 AFGD)

Theme 1: Dealing with Student Boredom by Understanding the Underlying Reasons

Despite being one of the most "alarming problems in contemporary classrooms" (Pawlak et al., 2020), boredom in foreign language learning is underexamined in ELT literature. Unlike misbehaviours and anxiety, boredom is less apparent and disruptive in classrooms; therefore, it might be overlooked or ignored. However, it can negatively influence student learning and success (Nett et al., 2011). Students may feel bored even in the most decentralised and communicative classrooms, and there is no universal recipe or strategy to deal with boredom. The lack of literature on boredom in EFL classrooms poses a substantial challenge in dealing with this problem. Despite the lack of evidence in the literature showing the relationship between student boredom and engagement, how teachers react to and deal with student boredom can potentially minimise student disengagement in EFL classrooms. The most common strategies that participants proposed to deal with boredom in EFL classrooms were the following: having a contingency plan to change the topic of the lessons, activating physical manipulations in the learning events, playing games, giving short breaks and having a short chat about some daily event or students' lives to refresh their minds. For instance, Zuhal asserted that:

> How I respond to boredom actually depends. For example, if there is a student or two, I usually try to engage them and find individual solutions as they might have some personal issues, especially if this is not very common. But if many students feel bored, then I change the topic/activity, sometimes let them play a game or even have a short break and talk about something in Turkish! In online courses, it is not easy to understand if the students are bored or interested, though. There are even students who are online but not on the line! I do similar things like changing the topic, choosing more fun activities or playing a video when I get the feeling of boredom. I think that I know how to cope with boredom in class, but I try to be ready for such situations in online courses as they are new to me. (Zuhal, module 2 AFGD)

Participants' posts in AFGDs indicated that they valued students' needs and interests and looked for ways to deal with boredom in their classes. Although they proposed insights and techniques to deal with boredom and other undesired student behaviours, their evaluation of these behaviours was limited to informal observations, and they seldom focused on the reasons for coping with them. AFGDs and interviews revealed that they did not conduct formal or informal needs assessments in their classes to understand the underlying reasons for boredom, undesired student behaviours and other classroom problems. Teachers' lack of involvement in meaningful and systematic reflective practice may impede understanding the nature and scope of contemporary EFL learners' problems. Most instructors' posts in AFGDs concerning boredom focused more on external factors, while they did not discuss the teachers' role. Dealing with student boredom requires understanding learners' characteristics, needs, interests, and expectations. Irem states that focusing on the reasons for boredom and promoting a democratic classroom by involving students in decision-making processes can be an effective intervention:

> When students are bored during the lesson, I can change the type of the activity, find games, watch videos, find interesting activities that they enjoyed before, talk about topics they liked, try to make students more active (physically), and assign different tasks (if possible). Trying to find the reason for boredom may also help teachers overcome this problem. For both boredom and misbehaviour problems, if the learners feel that they are involved in the decision-making process, they will feel a sense of belonging and engage in the lesson more. (Module 2 AFGD)

Theme 2: Responding to Misbehaviours Proactively and Positively

Research investigating the potential link between teachers' responses to student misbehaviour and student engagement is limited. Using mobile phones, using L1, excessive talking and asking irrelevant questions are some common misbehaviours in foreign language classrooms (Debreli & Ishanova, 2019). The most common misbehaviours participant instructors reported were irrelevant talk, using electronic devices, and interrupting the teachers or other students during learning events.

The most common ones in my classes are whispering, annoying friends or teachers, distracting friends or teachers, using cell phones, asking irrelevant questions, sleeping, pretending to sleep, not participating efficiently in group work or other activities, and interrupting the lesson (Esra, module 2 AFGD).

However, when asked, the instructors reported that how teachers respond to undesired student behaviours such as boredom and misbehaviours may influence how students perceive teachers and the nature of teacher and student relationships. Participants' reports of common misbehaviours and their strategies to respond to these undesired student behaviours were consistent with the existing literature (e.g., Debreli & Ishanova, 2019), highlighting that teachers should not be reactive in dealing with misbehaviours. Instead, they should focus on the reasons and act proactively to prevent such behaviours even before they occur. They should set up classroom rules that explicitly define misbehaviours and their consequences. They also stated that teachers should consider the frequency of misbehaviours and ignore some of them unless they are disruptive and repetitive. They further recommended avoiding confronting students in class and dealing with misbehaviours by talking to students outside the class in their offices, as illustrated in the following AFGD post:

During a verbal warning, not to lose the warm learning environment in the classroom, maintain classroom management and discipline, I generally prefer to use positive language (using please and thank), understand, and reach them, be polite to them and stay in control, and try to learn the reason behind their misbehaviours. However, these tolerant and positive reactions depend on the student and the frequency of these behaviours[...]. And I believe, as a teacher, we first need to understand the reason behind the misbehaviour. Maybe, they do not know the rules, and I think their parental background and how they were brought up also have an impact on their behaviours. (Ceren, module 2 AFGD).

The instructors in this study seemed to value students' emotional well-being and support them when they felt students were struggling with personal problems. It was salient

in their narratives and AFGDs that they deal with misbehaviours without interrupting learning events, humiliating or offending students. Instead, they approach classroom problems with patience and tolerance.

Theme 3: Selecting the Proper Feedback Strategy Depending on the Contextual Factors and Conditions

Recent studies indicate that teacher feedback is a powerful tool for promoting student engagement (Hyland, 2003; Jonsson & Panadero, 2018; Man et al., 2020; To, 2021; Tindage & Myers, 2020; Zhang & Hyland, 2018; Zhang, 2021). While teacher feedback is not the only way of responding to students' learning, teachers play a pivotal role even in peer and automated electronic feedback as facilitators of inclusive and cooperative learning environments (Zhang & Hyland, 2022). Therefore, teachers' choices of type, delivery and frequency of feedback are vital to student engagement. Accordingly, participants' posts in AFGDs illustrate the effectiveness of feedback in promoting student engagement in EFL classrooms, highlighting the significance of selecting the right feedback type, delivery and frequency, depending on contextual factors such as the level, target skills and the course outcomes. For instance, Yaren stated, "My response to learners' errors depends on the skill, activity, purpose of the activity, and the type of errors learners make."

RTA supports the previous studies that how teachers give feedback could also impact students' agentic engagement (Winstone et al., 2017). Sometimes giving too much feedback can be even worse than providing no feedback. Teachers should use feedback in moderation by providing learners with opportunities to self-correct or self-monitor their learning to promote autonomy and self-regulation (Pehmer et al., 2015). Thus, they can enhance agentic engagement. Findings from the RTA suggest that feedback should not only focus on mistakes and errors. Instead, EFL teachers should provide feedback on students' overall learning, meta-cognition, improvement, and engagement by letting them self-evaluate their strengths and weaknesses in the target language. Some participants echoed this view, as expounded in the following extract:

Feedback motivates students to learn and improve and makes them engaged. We may encourage them to work in pairs or groups to discuss the decisions, share ideas, and also learn from each other. When they begin to understand where to start or what the main issues are and start to feel self-regulated learners, their desire to participate and engage in the lessons increases. (Ceren, module 2 AFGD)

Theme 4: Tolerating Mistakes

RTA suggests that most participants tolerate mistakes or errors and regard them as a normal part of the foreign language learning process by encouraging learners to take risks and learn from mistakes. Teachers' preferences and feedback methods interfere with not only students' cognitive but also behavioural, affective, and agentic engagement. As exemplified by Seda, teachers' overall attitude while giving feedback influences their behavioural engagement:

Effective feedback is positive feedback! When your attitude towards the students is mostly judgemental and overly critical, you cannot expect the students to benefit from the learning experience. If you are that 'toxic' teacher who is constantly ragging on students, pointing out their weaknesses and looking at what is wrong before what is right, the students will not even want to attend your classes. Therefore, my feedback motto is 'start from the good, slowly move towards the less good'. (Module 2 AFGD)

4.3.3. Findings of RQ3c

What are the participants' perceptions of using engaging pedagogical tools?

This study defines pedagogical tools as instruments, materials, and procedures teachers use to achieve intended course outcomes and support student learning and engagement. This sub-question aims to explore participant instructors' perceptions, experiences, beliefs and implementations of pedagogical tools to promote student

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engagement. I generated two salient themes regarding participants' perceptions of pedagogical tools: (1) assessment for engagement and (2) relevant, authentic and sufficiently challenging learning materials (see table 9).

Table 9

Themes regarding participants' perceptions of pedagogical tools

Themes *Theme definitions are written in brackets.	Sample Codes	Sample Data Extract
Assessment for engagement (This theme captures participants' perceptions, experiences, beliefs and implementations concerning the assessment to enhance student engagement.)	Students are more interested in grades than in learning The inefficiency of standardised tests to promote engagement Disengaged students due to test-driven curriculum	Students tend to focus on what they expect to meet in the exams. On the other hand, I feel directed by the pacing as a teacher. Multiple-choice tests are the reality of our education system, but I don't think it is easy to replace them with another one; yet I can see the results of a system lacking testing reading, writing or speaking skills. In prep classes, in which they actually start writing their own essays or paragraphs, they feel anxious as they are not accustomed to these tasks or exams. (Defne, module 2 AFGD)
Relevant, authentic and sufficiently challenging learning materials (This theme captures participants' perceptions, experiences, beliefs and implementations concerning the use of tasks and assignments to enhance student engagement.)	Relevance Authenticity Interactive tasks Sufficiently challenging tasks	Communicative (pair-work, group work), productive (creating dialogues, writing and replying to emails/letters), creative (creating group videos, presentations) – assignments in which students need to use critical thinking, engage their background knowledge and skills are the most engaging. Having students comes up with something themselves, rather than filling in blanks and finishing sentences, is what can engage students in learning and, at the same time, practising and producing a language. Assignments need to have a clear and achievable aim. Students need to know why they are doing it and how they will benefit from it in the end. (Yaren, module 3 AFGD)

Theme 1: Assessment for Engagement

The current literature indicates that student engagement is linked to better learning outcomes and success; however, only a few studies investigated how assessment can be used to promote student engagement. This study defines assessment as a pedagogical tool to promote student learning and engagement rather than simply measuring learning outcomes, assuming that teachers' preferences for assessment influence student engagement. Despite the crucial role in learning, research concerning how assessment can be used to promote engagement is scarce. Existing research studies indicate that formative assessment (Chen et al., 2021; Holmes, 2014, 2017; Vaughan, 2014), peer assessment (Weaver & Esposto, 2012) and assessment as learning (Wang & Lee, 2021) approaches can promote student engagement. Similarly, RTA indicates that formative and continuous assessment can

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increase student engagement by facilitating active learning and authentic engagement with the target language and the learning tasks. Participants' accounts concerning the impact of testing and assessment on student engagement suggest that proper and adequate assessment is essential to student engagement. Most participants expressed the view that students ignored the tasks that are a part of the assessment and focused on the contents of standardised exams rather than engaging with authentic language skills, as expounded in the following dialogue from the focus group interview:

Zeynep: […] There are two kinds of tasks in this online education. One of them was the task in the course content that was marked (graded) by us. The others were optional. For example, in the writing parts of the main course lesson, the students mostly did the homework, the tasks which were marked, which were going to be marked, but for other optional homework, just a few students did it. […]

Ceren: I would like to add something. For example, students feel like they know that they don't need to join for listening and speaking lessons, and they just learn about vocabulary and are not coming to lessons. I mean in online education. So, I agree with Zeynep.

Researcher: Because that's the only content graded in your course, am I right?

Ceren: Yes.

Researcher: OK, they just focus on the graded contents and ignore the rest?

Ceren: Yes, they feel like they don't need to join, and they are not coming.

Researcher: Then, can we say the assessment is important in engaging learners with learning events?

Zeynep: Certainly.

Seda: Exactly.

Ceren: Yes.

Yaren: Yes. I had a few cases when I would give some extra information about grammar, and then students would ask if it would show up in the test if they needed

to learn it. And when said, no, that's just for your general knowledge, and then they would just ignore it.

On the other hand, formative assessment can foster student engagement by encouraging active participation (e.g., grammar and vocabulary). One of the participants, who is a non-native speaker of Turkish, shared her experience of learning Turkish through formative assessment procedures as an engaging way of learning a language, as expounded in the following extract:

When I was learning the Turkish language at ABC University (The university name was anonymized. It is one of the top-ranked private universities in Türkiye), we did not have any exams/tests/quizzes at all. Our assessment consisted of a performance grade (we had to prepare presentations about daily topics, e.g., describing a family, talking about our city, interviewing random students on campus). However, the most important part of the grade was an end-of-the-term theatrical show/performance that took place at the university conference hall and was open to everyone to come and watch. When you are told at the beginning of the semester that you will be performing in a foreign language in front of hundreds of people, you have a solid reason to learn the language well enough :))). Now thinking about it, I realise that it was a very good approach to teaching and learning a language. It was engaging, authentic, and communicative; it had a practical use and involved a lot of language production. (Yaren, module 3 AFGD)

The literature on language testing and assessment suggests that exams may create a negative washback effect when they dominate all learning and teaching activities (Alderson & Hamp-Lyons, 1996; Hughes, 2003). As the above extract from the focus group indicates, testing and assessment may impact students' involvement in learning events and tasks.

A common view amongst participants was that students' past learning experiences and habits shaped by exam-driven curricula in Türkiye created a challenge for them to

implement engagement-based instruction. In Türkiye, high schools and universities accept students with national-wide multiple-choice high-stakes tests developed and implemented by the Measuring, Selection and Placement Center (ÖSYM). Instructors criticised this assessment and placement system, arguing that students developed misconceptions about learning due to exam-driven curricula, which were difficult to change at the tertiary level. Students' misperceptions and past learning habits seemed to create a powerful impact on teachers to satisfy learners' expectations. Hence, teachers and students focus on success in exams rather than engaging in authentic learning and language skills. The following extract illustrates how participant instructors perceive the impact of assessment on teaching, learning and student engagement:

> Our entire education system, starting from the first grade of primary school to university, is solely based on taking exams, passing exams and preparing for exams. This obsession with exams has become the cornerstone of our education system. In such an environment and under these conditions, students do not care about any subject that is not included in the exam, and they do not find any assignment necessary and meaningful if it is not graded. Since speaking skill is not tested in any of our language exams, it's nearly non-existent in curricula. Frankly, our education system operates contrary to what it should be. The lessons and syllabuses are structured according to the exams when they should be the other way around. In this respect, it seems almost impossible for teachers to develop alternative approaches and acquire different assessment and evaluation methods. The requirements of the system affect the expectations of the students, and their expectations affect the teachers' approaches, methods and teaching practices. In this chain reaction, teachers do not have free space to move. I think this is not a situation that can be overcome with the effort of teachers individually, and the whole solution depends on the change in the education policies of the state. (Seda, module 3 AFGD)

While expressing her feelings about standardised exams, Aysel implied that she accepted the fact that she could not change the dominance of standardised exams, but still, she was trying to keep students motivated to learn authentic language skills through self-disclosure.

Since I do not prefer exams as a measurement tool, I tell my students that learning English is a kind of game and it has some rules to be obeyed as the other games, so the important thing that we have to do is to try to have fun by attending and participating all the activities that are required while playing this game. When I manage to encourage them to attend and participate in the lessons so they can realize that they can do very well in their exams. (Aysel, module 3 reflective report)

Some participants argued that apart from students' previous learning habits and misperceptions about learning, their current English preparatory programs' dependence on standardised exams limited both instructors' and students' meaningful involvement in the learning process. %80 of the assessments in face-to-face classes before COVID-19 consisted of standardised exams in the English preparation program where they worked. Nevertheless, they started to evaluate student success through tasks and assignments after the emergent transition to online education. At first, that was an undesired change due to the pandemic. Nevertheless, some participants stated that after the transition to COVID-19 and participating in this OPD program, they realised that using tasks and other alternative methods to assess student learning gave them chances to enhance student engagement.

Theme 2: Relevant, Authentic and Sufficiently Challenging Learning Materials

When asked about the qualities of engaging tasks and assignments, relevance, authenticity, interactions, and sufficient challenge were the common features that participant instructors proposed. For instance, Ceren stated that:

While designing out-of-classroom tasks, we should consider our learners' level, and the activities should improve student-teacher interactions. As an effective activity in addition to sports events, leisure activities, trips, fundraising activities, and community projects, they may be Youtuber and introduce us to a book, movie, or a city. They may also create a travelogue and present it to us. They may also chat with a native speaker of English or talk on the phone in English with their friends. To

increase retention, we may use gamification etc. We as a teacher may use drone footage, mobile apps, and programs like Google Earth to bring the outdoor environment inside. (Module 4 AFGD)

4.3.4. Findings of RQ3d

What are the participants' perceptions of engagement-based instructional methodology and design?

Instructional methodology refers to teachers' overarching methodology to engage students with learning. The salient theme regarding participants' perceptions of the engagement-based instructional design and methodology was "Engagement-based instruction: promoting active, constructive, interactive learning", featured in table 10.

Table 10

Themes regarding participants' perceptions of the engagement-based instructional design and methodology

Theme 4 *Theme definition is written in brackets.	Sample Codes	Sample Data Extract
Engagement-based instruction: promoting active, constructive, interactive learning (This theme captures participants' perceptions, experiences, beliefs and implementations concerning the instructional design and methodology they use to promote student engagement.)	Translating ICAP theory into practice Qualities of engaging methodology Meaningfulness Considering students' needs and interests Flexibility	They start learning as passive receivers of information, and we can change it by using active mode by integrating motoric or physical materials, but without constructing the knowledge, being in a collaboration or being on the move is not enough. They should create new knowledge during and after the learning activity. To do is, students must know what we expect from the task. We should explain clearly and train them about turn-taking skills (Ceren, module 4 AFGD) The choice of methods that are expected to trigger student engagement may be related to the teacher's affinity for the topic or even whether he finds it boring. I think that the interest of the teacher, rather than whether the teacher is very experienced or not, will increase the students' interest in the lesson and keep them awake during the lesson. An aspiring teacher can find and use the classroom practices required for the lesson very quickly and explicitly. Students' interest in the lesson can be looked at in order to see the effect of the teaching method applied. However, this may not provide a definitive result. (Esra, module 4 AFGD)

Theme 1: Engagement-based Instruction: Promoting Active, Constructive, Interactive Learning

This theme explores participants' perceptions, experiences, beliefs and implementations concerning engagement-based instructional design and methodology in EFL classrooms. Until the 1980s, SLA research attempted to find a method that would ensure language acquisition by applying some essential principles, techniques, and approaches. These attempts failed to generate a method that perfectly fits all learning contexts. However, the so-called post-methods era (Kumaravadivelu, 2008; Richards & Rodgers, 2001) has emphasised the contextual factors determining the decisions and choices regarding learning and teaching. For the last two decades, there has been a shift to approaches such as project-based learning, content-based learning, task-based learning and inquiry-based learning, emphasising the contextual factors and learners' needs.

Chi and Wylie's (2014) ICAP framework, which defines and differentiates modes of cognitive engagement, proposes a flexible approach that could be utilised in engagement-based instruction. The framework argues that learners are more engaged with learning from active to constructive and from constructive to interactive. Similarly, participant instructors stated that an engagement-based instructional design relies on meaningful constructive and interactive (co-constructive) learning activities relevant to students' needs and interests, as shown in the following extracts:

> The engaging methodology should include a communicative, interactive, and constructive approach to make the students participate in the lesson actively and willingly. (Esra, module 4 AFGD)

> An engaging methodology should be active, interactive and motivating for the learners and also, in an engaging methodology, learners should have the opportunity to practise the theoretical information through life-like activities as much as possible. (Zuhal, module 4 AFGD)

Participant instructors' accounts of instructional design and methodology regarding student engagement highlighted the significance of flexibility of instructional design in promoting student engagement in EFL classrooms. For instance, Defne stated, "An engaging methodology should be interactive and learner-based; it should be interesting and flexible to meet their needs and attract them" (Module 4 AFGD). RTA indicates that an effective instructional design should allow teachers to adapt or change their instructional methodology before or during the implementation, as expounded in the following dialogue from module 4 AFGD:

Yaren

A method is a theory (perfectly written, often discussed, and argued about) of what the perfect lesson should look like (which never works and never happens). The methodology is how the actual class is conducted and what activities are used. There is no single methodology, but rather a set of activities/practices that work well with certain students and for certain skills. A methodology has to be always modified and changed: the perfect lessons with one group of students can always turn into a disaster with another group. […] The most important quality of an engaging methodology is that it should provide students with an opportunity to use/practice the language in the most natural way. It also should give the teacher the flexibility to change and modify tasks/activities based on students' needs and interests.

Aylin

"A methodology has to be always modified and changed: the perfect lessons with one group of students can always turn into a disaster with another group." Yes, there is no one perfect method or methodology, but there is the teacher and learners. The teacher needs to consider his/her learners and adjust everything s/he knows accordingly.

Defne

"My choice of methodology also depends on the skill/topic being taught." I agree
with it, and I try to do the same.

4.3.5. Findings of RQ3e

What are the participants' perceptions of teacher motivation style?

Teacher motivation style refers to the motivational strategies teachers construct to
support learners' psychological needs and promote better engagement and learning
outcomes. Previous research indicates the link between teacher motivation style and student
engagement (De Loof et al., 2019; Jiang & Zhang, 2021; Reeve, 2009, 2016). I generated
five salient themes regarding participants' perceptions, experiences, beliefs, and
implementations of an engaging teacher motivation style: (1) building rapport: be friendly,
not friends, (2) promoting growth mindset, (3) satisfying students' psychological needs, (3)
creating an equitable learning environment and (5) motivated teachers – motivated students,
as featured in table 11.

Table 11

Themes regarding participants' perceptions of the engaging teacher motivation style

Themes *Theme definitions are written in brackets.	Sample Codes	Sample Data Extract
Building rapport: be friendly, not friends (This theme captures participants' perceptions, experiences, beliefs and implementations concerning building rapport with students.)	Moderate student-teacher relationship Learning about students Using social media	As we all aim at teaching English, without interaction and communication, it is not possible. We are the guides and sources of English in the class. For this reason, we have to be in a relationship with our learners, but the level of this relationship depends on the teacher himself/herself. It should be friendly but not too friendly. Learners can talk about their life and problems, but also they should also know where to stop. This relationship should be honest and straight, but it shouldn't offend one side. Nobody should confuse who the teacher and the leader is. (Evrim, module 5 AFGD)
Knowing about students (This theme identifies knowing about students and understanding them as an important component of building rapport with students)	Knowing students Being honest with students	Honesty is the keyword in relationships. As long as we are honest, we can build rapport. (Aylin, module 5 AFGD)
Using social media to build rapport (This theme captures participants' perceptions, experiences, beliefs	Controversy Privacy	The other thing is that when teachers use social media to build rapport with learners, some posts may be disturbing for them, and this can affect learners' attitudes towards teachers. (There may be some controversial topics, such as religion, politics or some habits

and implementations concerning using social media to build rapport with students.)		like drinking alcohol) . For this reason, teachers should be careful about using social media. (Evrim, module 5 AFGD)
Promoting growth mindset (This theme captures participants' perceptions, experiences, beliefs and implementations concerning growth mindset and ways to promote it.)	Environmental factors influencing growth mindset Strategies to promote a growth mindset EFL students' mindsets	My learners generally have a growth mindset about language learning but not all of them, of course. (Actually, it depends on the level and department of the learners) Low-level learners (with low grades) tend to have a fixed mindset, whereas when the rate of being successful increases, learners mostly have a growth mindset. (Zeynep, module 5 AFGD)
Satisfying students' psychological needs (This theme captures how participants perceive motivation theories and relate these theories to their classroom practices to satisfy students' psychological needs)	Translating motivation theories into practice Promoting task value Promoting autonomy and relatedness	We should support our learners' autonomy by giving our learners choices, providing our learners with multiple ways to do a task, and encouraging them to think independently. Competence is also another important issue. As I have written before, by setting simple goals that are easy to reach, our learners may have the feeling of success, and this will absolutely increase their motivation and improve their competence. (Zuhal, module 5 AFGD)
Creating group cohesion (This theme identifies creating group cohesion as an important component of teacher motivation style)	Classroom dynamics Using group work to increase motivation	The class dynamic is also important, so when learners have a disagreement, we may help them reach an agreement. Evrim, module 5 AFGD)
Creating an equitable learning environment (This theme captures participants' perceptions, experiences, beliefs and implementations concerning equality and equity in EFL classrooms and how it impacts student engagement.)	Promoting equity and equality Mutual respect	I want to show them from the very beginning of my classes that they are valuable to me, I care about them, and I respect each of them equally, but of course, our learners' individual differences, needs, levels, and background information differ from each other so as time passes we get to know each other during our lessons. (Aylin, module 4 AFGD)
Motivated teachers – motivated students (This theme explores the interplay between teacher motivation and student motivation)	The difficulty of motivating some students	Whatever you do, sometimes you cannot motivate some students. You can try different techniques, different approaches for them, and different methods in your lessons, but they're still not interested in your lesson. This happens. So, I don't know how to overcome it. Sometimes, I don't care about it anymore because, as I said before, if you give an assignment, which is not graded, they just don't do it. (Seda, interview 2)

Theme 1: Building Rapport: Being Friendly, Not Friends

Positive student teacher-relationship promote students' sense of trust and confidence (Gkonou & Mercer, 2017), behavioural engagement (Ng et al., 2018), and engagement in pursuing academic goals (Derakhshan et al., 2022). Accordingly, participants' AFGDs argued that building rapport is an essential teacher behaviour to enhance student engagement in EFL classrooms. Moreover, participants were aware of the significance of the positive student-teacher relationship and had already been using some strategies to establish and maintain rapport with learners, as exemplified by Aylin:

In the first week of the term, I always try to get to learn some basic information about my students by asking them to describe themselves, including their hometown, their birthday, their mom's and dad's occupations, their siblings their hobbies, their interests, their likes and dislikes (The question can change according to my students' level). After learning these pieces of information, I try to use them in the lesson to make my student feel that I read your writing or I listen to you carefully. For instance, one of my students wrote that he worked as a referee when he was a university student. When our topic was football, I told my students that there was a referee among them. My student was shocked because he did not think that I was going to keep it in my mind. I had the same kind of experience with the other students. They began to feel so close to me, and at the end of the term, I was told by my students that I had a good memory, and some of my students told me that I cared about them. Even though all my students know that I have strict rules, they also know that I am a student-friendly teacher. My students know about me as much as they have to know. I mean, when you ask my students to describe me or talk about me, I am sure they all give the same answer. I just give general information about my life but also tell them some of my experiences as a student. The most important thing for me is to be always honest towards them and expect them to be honest with me. (Aylin, module 5 AFGD)

It was salient in AFGDs that most participants felt responsible for motivating learners and implemented strategies to establish rapport with students, such as self-disclosure, outdoor classroom meetings and activities. For instance, Yaren states that "We do have a responsibility to support every student and create a friendly atmosphere in the class where students feel comfortable and accepted" (Module 5 AFGD). Participants' accounts suggest that building rapport with students and moderate self-disclosure is one of the essential qualities of an engaging teacher motivation style, as illustrated in the following AFGD post:

I believe building rapport is one of the crucial factors in an ideal student-teacher relationship. There must be a balance in an ideal student-teacher relationship to improve motivation and engagement for our learners. We should have a friendly attitude towards them, but our relationship shouldn't be considered like the

relationship that we have with our friends, and our learners have with their peers. Both the learners and teacher should be aware of this distinction and respect each other within this context. […] I think the appropriate and right amount of disclosure may create a secure, comfortable and warm atmosphere for our learners. They wouldn't feel under stress, and they would feel that they are valued and cared for. But I don't agree with the idea that a less formal teacher-student relationship may help us to engage the young generation of learners. Of course, we should follow the developments and keep up with the latest technological improvements according to the needs of our learners, but this doesn't mean having a less formal relationship with them. We should build the right balance for this. (Zuhal, module 5 AFGD)

Theme 2: Knowing about Students

RTA suggests that what teachers know about students and what students know about teachers is important in building a high-quality student-teacher relationship. Learning about students through classroom surveys and moderate teacher self-disclosure to build mutual trust and understanding are effective strategies for creating a positive student-teacher relationship. For instance, some participants highlighted the importance of addressing students by their name: "One of the things they are attracted to is being called by their names. They feel respected and cared for" (Defne, module 5 AFGD). The following extracts illustrate how knowing about students helps teachers to boost student engagement:

I believe so. I think a lot of times, what students feel is like. If the teacher respects the students, if there is some kind of personal engagement, if the teacher knows the students well, if the teacher makes it obvious that the student does matter to class, that's what can also engage students because sometimes we put labels on students and he's not a good student. He's shy, he never participates, and sometimes we just ignore those students. They come to class, they go, and they are just there. But I feel. If you pay attention more to that students, if maybe you have a little chit-chat before

or after class, if there is some personal connection, then it's easier to engage those types of students in the class. (Yaren, interview 1)

I think in building rapport with our learners, trust, mutual understanding, and self-disclosure are necessary too. In order to motivate, engage and build mutual trust and understanding with our learners, while getting information about them like asking about their families, their hobbies or their favourite movies, etc., giving some information about us within the appropriate content of our lessons is a good idea, and I sometimes do that in my classes, but we must be careful about the amount and content of what we share with our learners. I think the appropriate and right amount of disclosure may create a secure, comfortable and warm atmosphere for our learners. They wouldn't feel under stress, and they would feel that they are valued and cared for. (Zuhal, module 5 AFGD)

Theme 3: Using Social Media to Build Rapport

When asked about the use of social media to build rapport with students, participants were unanimous with the view that teachers should not communicate with students using social media because it is their personal space where students should not be involved. For instance, Yaren stated that:

There are many other ways of building rapport, and social media is not one of them. Social media is my personal boundary which I don't let students cross. In addition, it is not a professional space, and we need to remain professional. Yes, it is good to be an approachable and reachable teacher – but not 24/7 (Module 5 AFGD)

The analysis of the data reveals that in an attempt to build close relationships and rapport with students, using social media can negatively influence the student-teacher relationship because social media postings tell a lot about someone's personality and worldview that everyone may not like. In this case, when students do not like a teacher's

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social media profile, namely, world views, this might negatively affect their relationship, as expounded by Seda:

As for social media, I avoid befriending my new and current students on my social media accounts as my posts are generally very personal and somewhat against the flow and even contrary to the general values of Turkish society. However, I am more welcoming of my former students, who will not drive me crazy by sending messages begging for extra grades. (Seda, module 5 AFGD)

Theme 4: Creating Group Cohesion

Creating positive group dynamics is another component of teacher motivation style (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003; Dörnyei & Muir, 2019) that might enhance student engagement in EFL courses. Some participants implied that group cohesion is an important factor influencing student engagement. For instance, Defne stated that students might be unwilling to take risks while responding to the questions due to the classroom atmosphere. Furthermore, some participants stated that creating group cohesion in online learning environments is far more challenging, which confirms the previous research (Sun & Rueda 2012). Similarly, the following AFGDs indicate that another challenge of teaching online is the difficulty of creating group cohesion, which impacts students' engagement negatively:

Before expecting an answer to a deep question, we must be sure that the atmosphere is suitable for it. Explaining the question in detail and group work may be helpful too. I am not sure this is relevant, but I want to add that this year, in online education, I witnessed that the lack of friendship ties also affects their cooperation and encouragement negatively. (Defne, module 1 AFGD)

Homework and group work can be given to the students to make them position themselves as valuable in the classroom environment. Interaction with students at

approximately the same level can be achieved, and they can move to the next level as they succeed. (Esra, module 1 AFGD)

Theme 5: Promoting a Growth Mindset

Having a growth mindset is an essential quality for teachers (Thadani et al., 2015; Zilka et al., 2019). Findings suggest that participants knew little about growth mindset before participating in this program. Although the term was new to them, they already had some implicit theories of mindsets without being aware of it. Most participants had a growth mindset and attempted to promote it even before they knew the term. It was apparent in AVFDs that most participants perceived having a growth mindset as a facilitator of student motivation and engagement, as phrased by Evrim:

I certainly believe that growth-mindset influences all kinds of learning positively, not to mention language learning. Learning cannot occur if a person closes the gates to improvement, adaptation and innovation. People having a growth mindset are ambiguity-tolerant, curious and willing to improve. (Module 5 AFGD)

Participants identified several factors influencing growth mindsets, such as students' families, cultural backgrounds, and previous learning experiences. For instance, Yaren stated that: "First of all, I should state that having a growth or fixed mindset depends on the person's family, cultural and educational background (Module 5 AFGD)". Participants proposed the following strategies to promote growth mindset in EFL classrooms, which confirms and extends the previous research on teachers' perceptions of growth mindset (Zilka et al., 2019):

- creating a positive learning environment
- encouraging learning from mistakes
- promoting critical thinking
- setting achievable goals
- providing feedback on mindsets

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Theme 6: Satisfying Students' Psychological Needs

Participants' views concerning student motivation confirm the previous research suggesting that creating conditions that satisfy students' psychological needs, such as self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977, 1982), self-worth (Covington & Berry, 1976), autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2017), is another essential quality of teacher motivation style to promote student engagement, as shown in the following extracts:

> As students often do not realise what type of learning style is suitable for them, just showing them that there are different ways to learn may stimulate them to try something new. Setting doable tasks, keeping a positive attitude regardless of their results, and encouraging them are good ways to meet their competence needs. (Yaren, module 5 AFGD)

> Many language learners in Turkey somehow have negative beliefs, attitudes and experiences about language learning (and, most of the time, Mathematics). This causes low self-esteem and negative self-efficacy in language learning. In such a case, language teachers should be encouraging and facilitative to help them overcome their negative beliefs about language learning. (Evrim, module 5 AFGD)

Theme 7: Promoting Equity and Equality

Another factor some participants highlighted regarding teacher motivation style was creating a fair and inclusive learning environment that promotes equity and equality in the classroom. Participants' accounts indicated that considering students' cultural and individual differences and showing respect to them is significant to student engagement.

Trying to be at an equal distance to each learner (not too close to some of them and too far from some of them) and being fair is necessary for building rapport, too, because these factors may create trust between our learners and us. […] I want to show them from the very beginning of my classes that they are valuable to me, I care about them, and I respect each of them equally, but of course, our learners' individual differences, needs, levels, and background information differ from each other so as time passes, we get to know each other during our lessons. (Zuhal, module 5 AFGD)

We need to consider our learners' needs, expectations, even their culture, and our goals, too. (Ceren, module 3 AFGD)

As teachers of a foreign language, we set an example that together with a language, we also need to learn about cultural factors and society of the countries and tolerant and understanding of cultural differences and peculiarities. (Yaren, module 1 AFGD)

I really agree that teachers should be understanding and tolerant of cultural differences and even physical appearances. (Zeynep, module 1 AFGD)

The above extracts indicate that teachers' motivation styles should address the needs and expectations of diverse groups of students. A motivation style that promotes an inclusive and equitable learning environment can potentially increase students' sense of relatedness and engagement with learning.

Theme 8: Motivated Teachers - Motivated Students

RTA of participants' accounts shows that building rapport with students, promoting growth mindset, satisfying students' psychological needs, creating an equitable learning environment minimises undesired student behaviours and promotes engagement. Apart from these teacher behaviours, the interplay between student and teacher motivation, educational

context and teachers' perceived roles and responsibilities could influence student motivation (Jodaei et al., 2018). The RTA reveals that teacher well-being is also significant in promoting student engagement because how teachers perceive themselves, students, teaching, and learning seems to shape their perceived role in engaging students. While most participants believed that teacher behaviour is influential in student engagement, Defne asserted that teachers' success in engaging students with learning depends largely on students' internal motivation and willingness to engage. She states that teachers' attempts to increase student engagement will help those with intrinsic motivation to learn, while teacher behaviours and preferences for learning and teaching create little impact for those unwilling to engage.

> I've tried very different things in this period. For example, I used different types of (technological) tools to implement the lesson in the last month, but everything was the same. The engaged students were the same. The disengaged students were the same. Nothing changed, but I believe that I contributed to my engaged students a lot. They benefited more, but disengaged students didn't change. I'm not sure, but if we continued for a few weeks more, maybe something would change, but I'm not sure about it. […] if the student is not good, clever enough, motivated enough, nothing works. (Defne, interview 2).

The interview and field notes indicated that Defne had taught 2-hour compulsory elementary-level English courses at vocational schools for a long time, where classes were too crowded, and students' motivation was too low. She had taught the same 2-hour basic English course to 10 different groups weekly in crowded classes. The content and scope of the course were limited to elementary English topics that students had been learning for many years, which was likely to affect students' motivation negatively. Working with unmotivated learners and repeatedly teaching the same topic appeared to cause burnout and demotivation. When she started teaching intensive English courses (from elementary to intermediate) with another group of students more likely to engage with the course, the COVID-19 pandemic broke out, and she had to teach online. Apparently, she had never worked in a learning environment where she could build rapport and mutual understanding with students. It was salient in participants' responses to interview questions that their current and previous teaching experiences impact their perceptions of student motivation and

engagement. The ones who worked in learning environments, where most learners respond positively to teachers' attempts to motivate them, have a stronger belief in teachers' responsibility and ability to increase student motivation and engagement.

4.4. Findings of RQ4

In what ways does an asynchronous OPD program on student engagement contribute to program participants' professional development?

RQ4 explores programs' contributions to participant instructors' PD. I generated two main themes and related subthemes regarding RQ4: (1) empowered teaching behaviours and preferences influencing student engagement and (2) teacher identity empowerment.

Theme 1: Empowered Teaching Behaviours and Preferences Influencing Student Engagement

This theme explores the OPD programs' positive impact on participants' perceptions, knowledge and implementations regarding teaching behaviours influencing student engagement. I generated five sub-themes (see table 12) that explored participants' perceived empowerment in each component. Unanimously, all participant instructors echoed the view that they believed all teaching behaviours and preferences defined and differentiated by the ARPIM framework influence EFL students' engagement with learning. Therefore, they found the program contents relevant to their PD needs and interests.

Table 12

Themes regarding participants' perceived empowerment in teaching behaviours in preferences influencing student engagement

Theme 1 *Theme definition is written in brackets.	Subtheme *Theme definitions are written in brackets.	Sample Codes	Sample Data Extract
Empowered teaching behaviours and preferences influencing student engagement (This theme captures the OPD programs' positive impact on participants' perceptions, knowledge and implementations regarding teaching behaviours influencing student engagement.)	Empowered verbal and nonverbal teacher actions (This theme captures the OPD programs' positive impact on participants' perceptions, knowledge and implementations regarding verbal and nonverbal teacher actions such as teacher questions, instructions, immediacy behaviours and classroom discourse.)	Reduced teacher talk Using instruction checking Questions Using web-camera effectively	I learned that we should avoid interrupting learners during learning events. I can sometimes be impatient and ask questions or try to show the right. I should be more careful on that topic. I also liked the idea of using emojis in online lessons to provide feedback and praise learners. I am going to try it. (Ceren, module 1 reflective report)
	Empowerment in responding to student behaviours and learning (This theme captures the OPD programs' positive impact on participants' perceptions, knowledge and implementations regarding how they respond to student learning and behaviours.)	Increased confidence Being more patient The focus of the feedback	I also focus on fluency rather than accuracy for learners of lower levels, and I think that there may be some acceptable grammatical errors. I also usually correct the mistakes without offending anybody. I learned that we should avoid interrupting learners during learning events. I can sometimes be impatient and ask questions or try to show the right. I should be more careful on that topic. (Ceren, module 2 reflective report)
	Empowerment in using pedagogical tools to promote student engagement (This theme captures the OPD programs' positive impact on participants' perceptions, knowledge and implementations regarding pedagogical tools to enhance student engagement.)	Learning new tools Preparing sufficiently challenging materials Assessment for learning	When I talked about the pedagogical tools, first of all, the course books came to my mind. And also the worksheets that we prepared for the students. But right now, it's different because I feel confident about using technology after this program. (Aysel, interview, 2)
	Empowerment in engagement-based instructional design (This theme captures the OPD programs' positive impact on participants' perceptions, knowledge and implementations regarding engagement-based instructional methodology and design.)	Promoting active, constructive and interactive learning Teacher as a guide Reduced dependence on coursebooks Instructional shifts and practical implementations	This program affected my perception views concerning the instructional design that I use during my learning events. For example, I'm happy to learn the ideas within the ICAP framework: the active, the use of active interactive and constructed learning activities. We came together with our colleagues. We shared our ideas and opinions on how to design a not ideal, maybe, but a better productive lesson on how to make a plan for this. We shared the results of this. So, this was really enjoyable and fruitful for me, in fact, because some of the ideas that I hadn't thought of before were very interesting. And I applied them. Also, you were in one of the meetings on these plans. So, I really enjoyed it. And I liked learning new perspectives and new thoughts and ideas. So, so it was really nice for me. (Zuhal, interview 2)
	Empowerment in motivation style (This theme captures the OPD programs' positive impact on participants'	Increased awareness of factors influencing student motivation	Of course, first of all, I want to say that learning the theoretical part of the process is something nice for me, because at the beginning, I mean, in our first interview, I said that I didn't study in the education faculty. I studied translation and

perceptions, knowledge and implementations regarding teacher motivation style promoting student motivation and engagement.)	Improved theoretical knowledge about student motivation Helping students learn through their mistakes Reflection through a student survey	translating and interpreting, so I always feel a little bit. I'm not comfortable with the theoretical knowledge. So, I enjoyed, in fact, learning the theoretical part of the information here. (Zuhal, interview 2)

Subtheme 1: Empowered Verbal and Nonverbal Actions

There were considerable changes in most participants' beliefs and perceptions of verbal and nonverbal teacher actions influencing student engagement following the OPD program. It was evident in their self-reports and responses to interview questions that they perceived increased awareness and improvement in verbal teacher actions such as giving instructions, teacher talk time and asking questions. Changes in the perceptions also created instructional shifts, as illustrated in the following extract:

Although I have been using "instruction checking questions" for some time, I decided to use them more often, and I actually did this week. I'm learning new things in this program, and I want to apply them as much as possible. I'm also proud to say that I started to integrate some (technological) applications into my teaching this week, and I've also planned to integrate a few more in the following weeks. (Aylin, module 1 reflective report)

One of the tasks in the first module was watching a recording of an online lesson they taught before the program and filling in a reflective form. It was apparent in their reflective reports and responses to interview questions that participants benefited greatly from this reflective activity. They stated that they realised their strengths and PD needs regarding verbal teacher actions such as the fillers, stress, intonation and teacher talking time. Reflective reports and interview data indicated that one of the areas that participants did not consider before the program was teacher-talk time. Most participants stated that they improved themselves in adjusting the amount of teacher talk time in learning events after

participating in the OPD program. For instance, Aysel noted that "I have made a reflection after studying this module, and I have realized that I have been talking too much in my online classes. (Aysel, module 1 reflective report)". Similarly, Yaren said, "I try to limit my teacher talk time" (Focus group interview). Moreover, some participants stated that they became more aware and reflective about teacher discourse, as exemplified by Seda:

> I regard this module as a prolific activity that provides us with an insight into question types and the classification of instructions. I also believe it creates an urge to rethink our classroom practices. It also helped me re-evaluate myself regarding the questions I asked during the lessons, the instructions I gave, and the effectiveness of the nonverbal language I used. (Seda, module 1 reflective report)

Changes in instructors' perceptions and beliefs concerning verbal actions are driven mainly by their involvement in collaboration and interaction in AFGDs. They stated that they greatly benefited from exchanging ideas and experiences with their colleagues.

The instructors' implementation of nonverbal actions was limited during their participation in OPD program because they were teaching online due to COVID-19 restrictions. Defne stated that her ideas and implementations about nonverbal teacher actions did not change since she did not find the opportunity to implement what she had learnt in the program:

> Well, it didn't affect my nonverbal actions because of online education, in fact. It was difficult to implement nonverbal actions because of online education, but my verbal actions changed slightly. (Interview, 2)

However, Aysel said that the program contributed to her nonverbal actions in online learning, arguing that nonverbal actions are significant and could be implemented in the online learning environments despite the restrictions, as shown in the following dialogue from the end-of-program interview:

Aysel: As nonverbal actions, including gestures, facial expressions, body language, and eye contact, I know that it's really difficult for us to have eye contact with the students (in online learning), but right now, I can. I learned how to use the camera. Right now, I am looking at the camera. Can you see my eyes? (laughing)

Researcher: Yes, it's more like real communication. You just directly look at the camera, and it feels like you're looking into my eyes.

Aysel: That's right. To be honest, at the beginning of the online classes, I didn't do this. I was just looking at my students. And I thought that eye contact was not as important as in face-to-face classes, but it's not like that. I learned this. Thank you.

Subtheme 2: Empowerment in Responding to Student Behaviours and Learning

Changes in participants' perceptions concerning responding to misbehaviours were not as salient as other kinds of teacher behaviours because they did not experience serious misbehaviour problems and responded to undesired student behaviours with understanding and tolerance. Nevertheless, findings suggest that the program contributed to most participants regarding feedback and responses to mistakes.

Instructors discussed different types, delivery, and frequency of feedback, ways of responding to mistakes and boredom and techniques to scaffold student engagement in AFGDs and collaborative instructional design activities. They seemed to expand their understanding of responding to student behaviours and learning. For instance, Aysel said that she realised "when we give feedback to our students about their assignment, we should first tell them which part they are strong and in which part they are doing well". Zuhal, on the other hand, stated that she changed the timing and type of the feedback:

My colleagues shared some of their ideas, precious ideas. You also shared videos concerning the theoretical knowledge of these issues. So, after the program, yes, I changed, and I tried to change some of my implementations. And for example, I don't usually give immediate corrections or immediate feedback to my classes, but I try to be more careful about that. And I tried to give whole-class feedback. (Interview 2)

Subtheme 3: Empowerment in Using Pedagogical Tools to Promote Student Engagement

The program seemed to impact most participants' perceptions of tasks, course materials, use of technology and assessment in EFL courses. For instance, Esra and Aysel noted that their perceptions of tasks evolved after the program because they realised that learning tasks were not limited to face-to-face or synchronous online classes. The program seemed to awaken some participants' perceptions of the significance and effectiveness of tasks and learning materials in enhancing students' engagement with learning, as phrased in the following extracts:

Actually, the program impacted my perceptions, my peers impacted my perceptions, and you impacted my perceptions. I mean, the whole program impacted because we talked about course materials, and we started to adjust, omit, or do some extra things instead of the course materials or the activities in coursebooks. And also, for example, sometimes, as you recommended, we can skip the activity in the classroom but do it as a recording. For example, we tried it, and it worked. It saved time. So actually, using pedagogical tools effectively is really important. We used to do, or try to do every activity, everything in the book earlier. But after making lesson plans with our peers, we tried doing different things. And I added extra material, adding extra things which may encourage students, which may raise their motivation. (Aylin, interview, 2)

OK, it was the most useful and successful aspect of the program, and it really helped me. I can't say very much. I can say extremely. It actually helped me a lot. For

example, questioning my pedagogical tools, course materials, technological devices, and tools. I questioned myself. I can say that I've questioned their quality because I was trying to add some extra activities, extra worksheets, etc. This program helped me a lot in this way. (Defne, interview, 2)

Participants' perceptions of learning materials focused more on their impact on learning outcomes before and during the program. However, the OPD program directed instructors' attention to using learning materials to engage students with learning. Before the program implementation, some participants associated course materials with conventional learning materials such as printed textbooks and worksheets. For instance, Aysel said: "When I talked about the pedagogical tools, the course books came to my mind and also the worksheets that we prepared for the students, but right now, it's different because I feel confident about using technology after this program." The program seemed to create a broader understanding of learning materials under the title of pedagogical tools, as illustrated in the following extract:

The module made me think and evaluate my current practices and beliefs about the classroom: am I doing enough modification to the material, or am I simply going with what the book provides; are the tasks I give useful in terms of interactivity/practicality; do I utilize technology enough and correctly. It is always useful to read and see what my colleagues are practising and how I can use their examples in my classroom. (Yaren, module 3 reflective report)

Participants' involvement in AFGDs and collaborative instructional design activities provided them opportunities to learn new learning materials, digital tools, tasks and homework assignments. Instructors also learned new tools from each other. For instance, Evrim stated: "In this module, from the comments of my colleagues, I found out about Mentimeter, Padlet and Flipgrid, which I haven't discovered yet, and I decided to learn how to use and implement them in my classes" (Module 3 reflective report). On the other hand, Aylin noted that learning from colleagues and reflecting upon current practices of using

pedagogical tools encouraged her to self-evaluate her practices, knowledge and competence in using pedagogical tools effectively.

Findings from the study indicated that instructors' social learning through discussion and collaboration provided them opportunities to learn new learning tasks, homework assignments, technology, and assessment methods relevant to their context. Despite being an OPD program mostly asynchronous, participants found the opportunity to communicate through AFGDs and collaborative instructional design activities. As exemplified in the following extract, teachers' social interaction in this OPD program seemed to increase their agency in selecting and using pedagogical tools through collective reconstructions of their roles as educators.

I now feel the power. Maybe I already have that power. But now I feel it more. I see that I can do many different things and still teach the topic. I don't have to depend on the materials or anything. And especially in terms of tasks and assignments, we gained a perspective. Not only me but also my other two friends because we text each other about the courses and tasks and make meetings. [...] So, it has a great impact on our, not only the pedagogical tools but our using tasks, assignments, all these things. (Aylin, interview 2)

Improved TPACK

Most participants reported that they improved their knowledge of using digital tools and technology to promote student learning and engagement. The instructors' most common perceived PD need they reported in pre-intervention interviews was using technology effectively in teaching and learning. Furthermore, some participants seemed anxious about using technology in teaching and learning. It was evident in RTA that participants' beliefs and perceptions of the use of technology positively changed after participating in the OPD.

Thank you. I want to thank you for everything, especially for using technology in ELT. I used to be anxious about using technology before this program. Right now, I have no fear or anxiety. With a click, you face it, and you can do everything. (Aysel, interview 2)

Now, this process teaches me that using technology is not a bad thing. It is a good thing. There are lots of beneficial tools if you can use them. And technological tools help teachers to keep students engaged. They like technological tools. (Evrim, interview 2)

The program seemed to increase some participants' competence and confidence in using technology in EFL courses, leading to an enhanced agency in using pedagogical tools. For instance, Aysel stated that she became less dependent on the coursebook and syllabus after participating in the OPD program because she could use technology more effectively to save course time and find more time to implement engaging activities. She noted that she benefited from flipped learning by recording videos before class to save course time. She also highlighted that standardised exams force instructors to follow fixed pacing and limit their use of learning materials. Yaren and Zuhal echoed similar views that they had an intensive syllabus that sometimes forced them to teach superficially. Some participants reported that they learned the ways to deal with the density of the syllabus; adapt, change and supplement the contents of the course books to open more space for engaging activities, as exemplified in the following extract:

Before this program, catching up with pacing was the most important thing for me because of the standardised exams, but right now, it's also still a significant point, but not as much as in the past because I know what to do. If I do not catch up with it, I can record some lessons. And then my students can watch them. But during my classes, I can do more exercises by using technology. (Aysel, interview 2)

Seda and Esra stated that the program encouraged them to try new things and tools to increase student engagement in their courses. Seda said that she started to try new assignments to enhance student engagement. Esra also stated that after participating in the program, she was always searching for attractive and engaging learning activities and digital learning materials, as expounded in the following extracts.

As for the assignments, after your program, I started to think about different assignments. I started to think about video assignments and some other applications. Actually, I tried to enrich the techniques I used in the lesson. So, I'm now more aware of different techniques. I am engaged. I am motivated to use different techniques and methods to give different types of assignments. And we did it. I gave a video assignment, and they liked it a lot. And I liked it. I liked watching all the videos. They were quite interesting. I learned lots of things about them through the videos. So yes, the program was quite the same. It's like inspiration and different perspectives for me, I can say. (Seda, interview 2).

I chose a (computer) program according to the wishes and expectations of my classes. I saw how it could be a high-performance lesson. I realised that I had to be more creative for them. They like it. They will like it. For example, I tried to use some different YouTube videos before starting my classes or while I tried to finish my classes. They really liked it. I try to use different kinds of apps. They will like it. If you're trying to teach something to the new generation, you must be creative. (Esra, interview 2).

Assessment for Learning and Engagement

Changes in participants' perceptions and implementations concerning assessment were limited. After all, they did not have the opportunity to make any changes in testing and assessment procedures because they were not authorised to make changes in assessment as they used standardised tests. The assessment was based on standardised midterms (50%) and quizzes (30%) in the school where program participants worked. After the emergent transition to online education during COVID-19, they had to use formative assessment

approaches instead of standardised exams. Some participants noted that they had realised that formative and authentic alternate assessment methods could promote engagement and better learning:

> Before the pandemic in face-to-face education, we used to assess students' skills in many ways in terms of performance grades, but they had to take exams for their quizzes and midterm exam grades, as we all know. However, after the pandemic, we started assessing our students' language skills by means of video tasks where they can actively participate and use many skills and assess these videos for their quiz and midterm exam grades. Now we see that we can also assess our students in the same way in face-to-face education, too. Most students feel anxious about written exams, but they may feel more comfortable with different assessment techniques and express themselves easily, and as a result, they may perform better. (Aylin, module 3 AFGD)

Subtheme 4: Empowerment in Engagement-Based Instructional Design

"I often find myself thinking about how to make my lesson more engaging."

Effective instructional design can potentially increase students' engagement in foreign language courses. This study defines instructional design as the design of sufficiently challenging (McKeachie, 1994), meaningful (Svalberg, 2018), active, constructive and interactive (Chi & Wylie, 2014) learning events, materials and assessment tools. The RTA revealed that participants' perceptions about instructional design underwent a considerable change through the OPD program. The coursebooks mainly determined their instructional design before the program implementation. However, they became more agentic during and after the OPD program regarding instructional design and methodology. Most participants stated that the program increased their awareness of the critical role of student engagement and their potential to promote it. Thus, they started to seek new ways, tools and activities to enhance their student engagement with authentic language learning events. For instance, in module 4 reflective report, Zeynep stated, "I often find myself thinking about how to make my lesson more engaging. In my daughter's room, I look at (stare) the wooden toy house, thinking about how to use it in my class".

Changes in their beliefs concerning student engagement, reconstruction of their professional identities and the increased agency created a parallel change in some participants' perceived roles as instructional designers rather than teachers simply delivering instruction, as shown in the following extracts:

The other question about pedagogical tools, for tools, etc., is that my instructional design changed a lot. And I guess this is one of the most useful ways of the program for me. I questioned myself again because I was just following the coursebook. (Defne, interview 2)

Yes, before this program, I can say that I just focused on how to make our students active in the class. I was just focusing on this. I thought that being active was the most significant point in this part, but with this program, I have seen that learners become more engaged from passive to active, from active to constructive and from constructive to interactive. (Aysel, interview 2)

Classroom Implementations

Teacher PD intends to change teachers' beliefs and perceptions and their implementations positively (Guskey, 2002). Changes in participants' professional identities, positioning and agency created a parallel shift in teachers' implementations, such as reduced teacher talk time, giving students feedback starting from positive things and using new digital tools. Participants implemented most of the things they had learned in AFGDs, program videos, and collaborative instructional design practice during and after the OPD program. All ten instructors made instructional shifts focusing more on student engagement through active, constructive and interactive learning activities. Additionally, the instructional shift seemed to have long-term impacts, as evidenced by the following dialogue focus group interview data collected nine months after the OPD program:

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Zeynep: Maybe with the help of this program, I tried to use different ways of engaging the learner in class. For example, you sent us videos every week, and we talked about videos, wrote our comments, and used it. I used it in my classes, sometimes online or face-to-face. We sent videos, and so this way, I tried to use the lesson time, especially online lesson time, because it is just 20 minutes, and I tried to use this time more effectively.

Yaren: I can also add to Zeynep. I also utilized one of the examples that you shared. You were giving your students discussion channels in (Microsoft) teams.

Zeynep: Yep.

Yaren: I also did it for both my main course and skills class, and it was actually very effective to engage students who didn't show up to class at all in online classes, but most of the students who didn't show up to class to the class they were actively engaged in discussion, in in the written discussion.

Some participants did not only implement what they had learnt from the OPD program but also transferred the design features of the OPD program into their instructional design. For instance, as shown in the above extract, Zeynep used AFGDs and asynchronous lesson videos in her classes as an interactive activity, the same way I used them in the OPD program.

The instructional design implementations were not limited to instruction and learning tasks. Instructors also implemented motivation strategies they learned in the OPD, as indicated in the following extract:

As I said last week, building a good rapport with students is what I find very effective in motivating students. I never immediately start the lesson. I make sure to spend 5-10 minutes just casually talking (often in Turkish) about students' weekends and answering any questions they have before the class (often not related to the lesson). This week I spent a lot of time just casually talking to students. It helped me get more information about them and know their interests. For students, it created a friendly

and relaxing atmosphere. This week, one of the students was even trying to joke by saying he is not going to come to my class anymore because I haven't watched the "Lord of the Ring", his all-time favourite book and series. We all had a good laugh about it, and it made me feel very good about my relationship with the students. Even though I see them only once a week for an hour, they feel comfortable and relaxed in my class. (Yaren, end-of-program reflective report 2)

In this program, participants were involved in collaborative instructional design implementations that focused on teaching behaviours and preferences proposed by the ARPIM framework. Instead of conventional written daily lesson plans, participants recorded a video in which they narrated their weekly instructional design process. They outlined their plans for verbal and nonverbal actions, responses to students, pedagogical tools they are going to use (learning materials, digital tools, assessment, tasks and assignments), instructional methodology and student motivation. They shared the videos with other participants on a Microsoft Teams channel and commented on each other's weekly plans, and I also wrote some recommendations to facilitate the discussion of new ideas. They implemented their weekly plan and wrote reflective reports using the ARPIM framework. Instructors' narratives in reflective reports indicated the instructional shifts as shown in the above extracts.

Subtheme 5: Empowerment in Motivation Style

In pre-intervention interviews, motivation was one of the professional strengths that participant instructors commonly reported. Most participants perceived themselves as competent and proficient in motivating students in foreign language learning. Therefore, some instructors remained consistent in their beliefs regarding student motivation. However, the program seemed to help some of them refresh and strengthen their ideas regarding the role of teachers in student motivation. The program module about teacher motivation style included a video presenting major motivation theories in learning. Then, participants were requested to discuss how they could relate these theories to their implementations. The discussion of theories seemed to impact their perceptions of student motivation. For instance,

in her post-intervention interview, Evrim stated the program strengthened her views about motivation's significance in promoting student engagement. On the other hand, some participants noted that learning the theoretical foundations of student motivation increased their awareness regarding their role in motivating students, as illustrated in the following extracts:

> Actually, to be honest, I didn't know their (motivation theories) names or the terminology. But with this program, I learned self-efficacy theory and self-determination theory. The determination theory includes autonomy, competence and relatedness. I learned them, but I also used them. I had used them before, but I didn't know their names. I couldn't say that this is for their self-efficacy or self-determination. But right now, actually, I'm not an expert, but I try it. (Aysel, interview 2)

> Actually, I didn't know this term growth mindset, or I was aware of some students who do not believe in themselves; I was doing some, maybe some methods or trying some things to do it. But now I'm more aware of the situation. And I know that with just my effort, it will not be very effective. But with all the teachers, and maybe with some peer work among students, I can make a difference. The program made this perspective, of course. I didn't know what growth mindset was before. (Aylin, interview 2)

Theme 2: Professional Identity Empowerment

This theme explores the OPD program's positive impact on participants' empowerment of their professional identity under five subthemes, as featured in table 12. One of the common characteristics of PD research is to understand the process of how teachers change their beliefs (Avalos, 2011) because changes in teachers' beliefs potentially result in a shift in their classroom implementations (Borg, 2011; Sansom, 2019). Analysis of multiple data sources (pre-program interviews, reflective reports, AFGDs, post-program interviews) revealed that all participant instructors gained new perspectives about student

engagement and their role in engaging students with learning leading to a parallel change in their perceptions and beliefs regarding their professional identities and positionings. RTA of research data revealed that participant instructors reconstructed their professional identities regarding an expanded understanding of student engagement, increased empathy with students, reconstruction of perceived professional strengths and needs, increased teacher motivation and empowered reflective teaching. Furthermore, the reconstruction of their professional identity seemed to impact their positionings and enhance their professional agency. Findings from the study accorded with those of Kayi-Aydar (2015) that teachers' identities, positioning, and agency were intertwined.

Table 13

Themes regarding participants' professional identity empowerment

Theme 2 *Theme definition is written in brackets.	Subthemes *Theme definitions are written in brackets.	Sample Codes	Sample Data Extract
Professional identity empowerment (This theme captures the OPD program's positive impact on participants' reconstruction and empowerment of their teacher identity, positioning and agency.)	Expanded understanding of student engagement (This theme captures the OPD programs' positive impact on participants' reconstruction of teacher identities regarding the understanding of student engagement.)	Perceived definition of an engaged student before the program Perceived definition of an engaged student during the program	In the class, actually, the teachers can understand this from the eyes of the students. It's a traditional cliche, but it's like that. (Aysel, interview 1)
	Increased empathy with students (This theme captures the OPD programs' positive impact on participants' reconstruction of teacher identities regarding increased empathy with students.)	Learning from students Reflecting on students' feelings	Yes, it impressed me that I should be a teacher who understands what the new generation wants. And in line with the requirement of the age, in order to progress in education, it's very important to understand how the student you're trying to train wants to learn, I think. (Esra, interview 2)
	Reconstruction of perceived professional strength and needs (This theme captures the OPD programs' positive impact on participants' understanding of their professional needs and strengths through involvement in CPD and reflective practice.)	Professional update Verbal and nonverbal teacher actions perceived weaknesses Use of pedagogical tools perceived strengths	I believe that a good teacher always needs constant self-improvement in every area because lifelong learning helps teachers become successful in their profession. That's why I would like to join in the professional development as much as I can. After module 1, I have learnt more about effective teacher talk, questions (deep questions, display and referential questions), instructions and nonverbal language during learning activities. I have made a reflection after studying this module, and I have realised that I have been talking too much in my online classes. (Aysel, module 1 reflective report)
	Increased teacher motivation (This theme captures the OPD programs' positive impact on participants' motivation to teach.)	Motivation to try new things Positive feedback from students Willingness to cope with challenges	I think the basic benefit of this program for us was self-motivation. We as teachers need to be motivated by new things, new techniques to give different tasks, and to ask various questions. We should be motivated first. So, for self-motivation, sharing our experience with our colleagues was quite useful. (Seda, interview, 2)

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Empowered reflective teaching (This theme captures the OPD programs' positive impact on participants' beliefs, perceptions and implementations of reflective teaching.)	Reflecting on verbal and nonverbal actions Reflecting on pedagogical tools	"Program helps me that you can criticise yourself, you can look at yourself, you can try to always observe yourself, then ask your students." (Esra, interview 2)
Increased teacher agency (This theme captures the OPD programs' positive impact on participants' teaching agency regarding learning tasks, materials, and assessment.)	Being less book dependent Learning goes beyond the classroom Teachers' role in engaging students	But we realised that the important thing is not finishing the book, not covering all the things in the book. The important thing is to see that our learners, our students, are learning effectively. So interactive, active and constructive activities are more important than finishing all the activities in a book, so with this program, I mean, we made some adjustments to our books, and we focused more on our students' engagements and our students' learning results. (Zuhal, interview 2)

Subtheme 1: Expanded Understanding of Student Engagement

Before the program, all participants were already willing to increase their students' engagement and were looking for ways to promote it. However, their understanding and perception of student engagement were limited to observable student behaviours such as attendance, asking questions, and raising hands during learning events. After participating in the program, most instructors reported becoming more aware of different dimensions of student engagement and their role in promoting students' cognitive, behavioural, affective, and agentic engagement with learning, which motivated them to search for new ways to increase all kinds of engagement in their classes. While instructors' pre-intervention perceptions of student engagement mainly focused on behavioural aspects, AFGDs included references to affective aspects of engagement, showing the perception change and extended understanding concerning student engagement:

In a classroom context, engagement refers to willingness and involvement. An engaged learner is passionate about the learning process. An engaged learner is awake and alert even early in the morning (though it's hard to achieve in an EFL writing lesson at 9 am.) They are optimistic and curious about the learning process, and they care about what happens in the learning environment. They have not only a certain sense of relevance but also a willingness to actively participate in-class activities. (Seda, module 1 AFGD)

An engaged student is willing to acquire the information, so he/she has enough motivation and curiosity to do it, and he/she is ready to follow the instructions or/and try new activities. Meanwhile, these students willingly participate in classroom activities without any excuses, and they just aim to learn. (Defne, module 1 AFGD)

Subtheme 2: Increased Empathy with Students

Teachers' ability to develop a sense of empathy with students promotes better communication with students, empathic relationships and student motivation (Goroshit & Hen, 2016). As teachers develop emphatic competencies, they are more likely to understand students' needs and respond accordingly (Barr, 2010). Findings from the study suggest that teachers' engagement with this OPD program increased their empathy with students. Some instructors reported that participating in this program reminded them of how it felt like to be a student. They also self-reported that apart from the program contents, discussions, reflective reports, and instructional design plans, their participation in the program itself helped them develop a sense of empathy with their students because they had the experience of learning and becoming a student after a long time, as phrased in the following extracts:

First of all, this program reminds me of lifelong learning; learning never ends. And also, it reminds me that in some situations, we should put ourselves in our students' shoes. We should look at some problems or things from their side. (Aysel, interview 2)

It was an active, busy program for me, as I said, But it's okay. I liked being a part of this program. I felt like a student. Our students are sitting in front of the screen, trying to learn something in front of their screens. Of course, they are not doing the same things, but it was a kind of similar activity. So, as a student or as a teacher, I self-monitored myself. I reflected, I made a self-reflection of my students' thoughts and ideas (Zuhal, interview 2)

Subtheme 3: Reconstruction of Perceived Professional Strengths and Needs

Before the program implementation, some participants had misperceptions about their professional strengths and needs, as discussed in RQ1. Involvement in AFGDs and reflective practice in this program allowed some participants to critically evaluate their professional strengths and needs, leading to a change in their professional identities, as expounded in the following extract:

I used to feel strong about many things before I started this program, to be honest. But now, I think that I can improve anything and everything in my teaching. Such trainings have a great impact on me. I have become aware of my strengths but still feel that there is always more. Actually, I have been feeling stronger about using pedagogical tools since last week. (Aylin, module 3 reflective report)

Subtheme 4: Increased Teacher Motivation

Teachers' motivation to participate in PD was investigated in several studies (e.g., Appova & Arbaugh, 2017; Ng, 2018; Zhang et al., 2021). However, much of the PD research did not focus on the impact of PD on teacher motivation following their involvement in these events (Osman & Warner, 2020). Teacher PD should increase job satisfaction, motivation and self-worth (Bradley, 2011). Thus, teachers can be motivated to implement what they have learnt from PD activities (Osman & Warner, 2020). Findings from the study indicated that engagement-based instruction could increase teacher motivation since it promotes teacher agency and engagement with teaching. RTA of the data revealed that some participants' involvement in engagement-based instruction and reflective teaching increased their motivation to teach and engage their students.

Another factor influencing teachers' motivation was getting positive feedback about their teaching from students after getting involved in the OPD program. One of the reflective teaching tasks in the OPD was conducting a classroom survey in which participants attempted to get feedback from learners about their teaching. Most participants received

positive feedback from students, which seemed to increase their motivation and well-being. As students' motivation and engagement increased after implementing engagement-based instruction strategies, there was a parallel increase in instructors' motivation. The following extracts illustrate how the program influenced the participants' motivation:

> After this program, I feel more motivated to help my students. Although it is not easy to engage students in online education, now I think there are still things worth trying. After this module, I try to convince my students to turn on their cameras. It's going well. (Defne, module 1 reflective report)

> In addition to the new ideas I got in this module, I feel more motivated and believe that I can do many things for my students' engagement thanks to the program. Of course, I'm not a superhero, but still, there are students in my classes who make me feel that way. I mean, because of their energy and motivation, I feel that I can do many things. (Aylin, module 1 reflective report)

> When I read my students' comments (students' responses to survey items), I really felt good, and now I am working on what I can do more for them. In fact, while I am trying to increase their motivation towards my lesson, they increase my motivation with their comments. (Aysel, module 5 reflective report)

Subtheme 5: Empowered Reflective Teaching

The program seemed to change participants' beliefs and perceptions of reflective teaching. Involvement in systematic reflective practice, collaborative instructional design and writing reflective reports allowed them to critically evaluate their professional identity, positioning and classroom implementations. While they reported that they were doing some kinds of reflective teaching activities before the program, findings suggest they constructed a new perception of reflective practice after the program. Apart from reflective teaching tasks, interacting with other colleagues allowed them to reflect on their professional

identities and positionings by making comparisons with other participants. It is evident in the following extracts that their perceptions of reflective teaching underwent a significant change:

> I looked at myself more critically as a teacher, I mean, I forgot to constantly renew myself, and it reminded me of this age where everything gets old very quickly. As a teacher, you should not be a thing of the past, I think. You always need refreshment. I think this is really important for us as teachers. (Esra, interview 2)

> I also started doing more self-reflection. After class, it's like I would think about what I did in the class, my talk time, the activities that I designed, and the way I conducted the activities. And not every day, of course, but once a week, I would go back to my practices and think about what could be done better or different. So self-reflection is what I took from our program. (Yaren, focus group interview)

> It (watching the video recording of an online lesson) was quite beneficial. First of all, it was quite nice. I liked it very much. And I regret why I didn't do that before. All right, seeing it was just like seeing yourself in the mirror. And you can see what you did wrong. And it, I mean, it benefits, it promotes your improvement. It was really good. I liked it very much. Although we are not forced or encouraged to do, I watch my lesson videos on the stream. It was quite beneficial to our teaching process on our teaching approach. (Evrim, interview 2)

Subtheme 6: Increased Teacher Agency

RTA indicates that participants' professional identities and teaching practices are misaligned because their perceptions of student engagement were limited to behavioural engagement, and most participants were too dependent on coursebooks and syllabus. The findings revealed that they reconstructed their professional identity during and after the program and repositioned themselves as agents of student engagement in EFL courses rather

than implementers of top-down syllabus and course contents. AFGDs, reflective reports and end-of-program interviews demonstrated that they expanded and reconstructed their understanding and perception of student engagement. The OPD program seemed to influence most participants' positional teacher identities and agency regarding their role in enhancing student engagement in EFL courses, shown in the following extracts:

> To be honest, before this program, I have never thought about student engagements. I've never considered whether there's a term like "student engagement", but yes, it (the program) has changed my viewpoints. How can we keep students engaged? This is important. (Evrim, interview 2)

> I think after we started this program, I just questioned myself, and it formed a kind of awareness about our job and what we are doing in the class or before the class. It doesn't matter, online or face-to-face classes. Maybe I started to become more aware of the effect of engagement on learners and how to make them active students, active learners. (Zeynep, focus group interview)

> I can say that it increased my awareness in terms of personal development. It increased my awareness in terms of class (face-to-face) education and online education. It made me think about how my students could be more eager. Before I attended your program, I didn't think too much about it. Now, before I start my classes, I tell myself, "Please find different things. Please find something different. It doesn't work. This is not engaging." I started to think like that after your program (Esra, interview 2)

Some participants' beliefs about their agentic roles in teaching and learning changed after participating in the OPD program. In one-to-one and focus group interviews, most participants echoed the view that they became less dependent on coursebooks and syllabus and focused more on learning and engagement, as illustrated in the following extracts:

Before this program, I was trying to teach every detail, especially in grammar parts, but I stopped doing this with this program (Aysel, focus group interview).

First of all, I would like to point out that with this program last year, I realised that keeping up with the pace of the schedule is not the most important thing. As you know, we are teaching prep classes, and we have a busy schedule. We have to cover some topics. And I understand that teaching, engaging, and motivating our students are more important than keeping up with the pace of our busy schedule. (Zuhal, focus group interview)

And I think extra material, adding extra things, which may encourage students and raise their motivation. So now I see that we can design and implement anything according to our learners' interests and needs. And even in the lesson, I mean, we can make some sudden decisions, instant decisions and make some changes, according to students, maybe sometimes, you know, they get bored, or they do not want to do what we are doing at the time. (Aylin, interview 2)

Likewise, when asked whether the program challenged some of her previous ideas about teaching and learning, Seda said: "We can change the content of the coursebook. We can change our schedule. We can change the syllabus in the way that we want. It's up to us, designers or the teacher. We can adapt and adjust" (interview 2). Similarly, Yaren stated that she became less dominant in learning events by giving students more control over their learning: "What I noticed about myself this year is that in online classes, I gave students more control of what they do. I try to limit my teacher talk time" (Focus group interview). It was salient in participants' accounts that they became less dependent on coursebooks, curriculum and syllabus by taking an active role in the instructional design process as agents of enhancing student engagement in EFL classes. The awareness and implementation of engagement-based instruction in their courses promoted their engagement with the teaching and learning process. Findings from the study reveal that engagement-based instruction not only actively involves learners with learning but also engages teachers with teaching and learning by allowing them to see their potential to generate and maintain an engaging

learning environment despite all restrictions, such as course materials and curriculum or syllabus. RTA reveals that PD on engagement-based instruction can impact teachers' agency by changing how teachers position themselves and construct professional identities.

Teacher agency is not only about teachers' previous or current perceptions of their roles in teaching and learning but also about taking new directions for PD and future professional orientations (Ruohotie-Lyhty & Moate, 2016; Vähäsantanen et al., 2016). The program's impact on teachers' identity, positioning and agency seemed to create a parallel influence on their future professional goal orientations, as illustrated in the following extracts.

In the future, I may also have some other professional development courses. And I may also combine what I learned here and what I'm going to learn. […] Actually, when I think about my future teaching, I can say that my students will be so lucky that time. Because there is a teacher who is going to understand them, who is going to try to do her best for them, you know, try to teach them with a different teaching approach and who is becoming an expert of technology. Once upon a time, before this program, actually, I defined myself like: I was disabled in technology, but I am not saying it anymore. OK, I'm not an expert, but maybe one day will come. (Aysel, interview 2)

Before the program, participants' perceptions of their professional strengths and needs were limited to their overall feelings about themselves as teachers because they were not involved in reflective practice except for some informal talks with colleagues and students. Furthermore, they perceived teacher PD as training sessions and certificate programs. After the OPD program, they became more aware of different types of PD, their professional identity, strengths and needs as teachers.

4.5. Findings of RQ5

What are the participants' perceptions of the OPD program's design features and characteristics?

Participants' perceptions of the program's effective characteristics and design features accorded, confirmed and expanded the previous research that suggests reflection, collaboration, practicality, flexibility, and clarity are OPD program design features desired and valued by teachers (Dille & Røkenes, 2021; Powell & Bodur, 2019).

Table 14

Themes regarding participants' perceptions of the OPD program's design features and characteristics

Themes *Theme definitions are written in brackets.	Sample Codes	Sample Data Extract
Reflective practice (This theme captures participants' positive experiences and perceptions regarding reflection and reflective practice as an effective design and implementation feature of this OPD program.)	Awareness New perspectives Becoming more critical	I think reflection is the keyword in this program. (Zeynep, focus group interview)
Collaboration (This theme captures participants' positive experiences and perceptions regarding collaboration as an effective design and implementation feature of this OPD program.)	Collaborative instructional design Perceptions about the other participants Learning from other participants	I found most of the things useful in this module. The videos that I watched, and the comments made by my colleagues were really fruitful for me. I am aware of different opinions and different perspectives now. (Zuhal, module 2 reflective report)
Practicality (This theme captures participants' positive experiences and perceptions regarding practicality as an effective design and implementation feature of this OPD program.)	Video lesson plans Use of technological tools Hands-on experience	I found the ideas on extracurricular activities and out-of-classroom tasks and the online tools shared by my peers really useful. (Aylin, module 3 reflective report)
Flexibility (This theme captures participants' positive experiences and perceptions regarding flexibility as an effective design and implementation feature of this OPD program.)	Democratic learning environment Accessibility Length	The strengths I think the time, time in the beginning. I didn't have any difficulties doing these tasks or watching videos, or writing comments to them. We, I did it whenever I wanted. It was the best thing because you didn't force us to do today or do it tomorrow. We had a week, and we did it in a very relaxed way. (Zeynep, interview 2)
Facilitation and organisation (This theme captures participants' positive experiences and perceptions regarding facilitation and organisation as an effective design and implementation feature of this OPD program.)	Formative assessment Short and to-the-point videos Sufficiently challenging	It was great, actually. Thank you. I joined another one. It was an American Association, American English teaching. So, it was a big organization, but when I compare it with this one, there wasn't a lot of difference between the two. And Yaren will also tell you that. She did CELTA and says she learned more and spent more time in this one. So it was a really precious one, actually. (Aylin, interview 2)

Theme 1: Reflective Practice

Teachers' beliefs and implementations can change when they critically evaluate what works and does not work in their classrooms (Guskey, 2002). In the OPD program, participant instructors engaged in different kinds of reflective practice, such as watching video recordings of their lessons, AFGDs with colleagues, getting feedback from students, collaborative instructional design practice and filling in reflective reports, which provided them with the chance to step back and look at their teacher identity and positioning from a critical perspective. As discussed in previous sections, participants' understanding and involvement in reflective practice were limited before the OPD program. However, right from the start, they showed an improved understanding of reflective thinking and teaching. Apart from the teacher behaviours and preferences they had never considered before, they gained a new perspective on their professional identity and positioning by reflecting upon the input from the self-reflections, student surveys and discussions with colleagues throughout the program. The following extracts illustrate participants' perceptions of the effectiveness of the program regarding reflective practice:

> How we use our verbal and nonverbal behaviours in online education: we started to think about it. We started to reflect upon our behaviours. So, yes, it was quite helpful. More like a refreshment. (Seda, interview 2)

> It was quite promotive and beneficial. It was just like seeing yourself in the mirror, as I said before. It was quite reflective. I liked it very much. You have a chance to criticise yourself. You see your weaknesses and strengths. It was a good opportunity to improve yourself as a teacher. And I benefit from the comments of my colleagues. And we collaborated and coordinated in a very coherent way. It was good. I benefited a lot from your comments too. (Evrim, interview 2)

> I would define it (the OPD program) as self-reflective because it always makes you go back to your teaching and think about what you've done and if what you're doing is right or wrong. (Yaren, focus group interview)

In contemporary classrooms, teachers are not only responsible for delivering content or transferring knowledge but designing optimum conditions for better learning and engagement. The study suggests that building an engaging learning environment requires an instructional design that creates the necessary conditions through relevant teacher behaviours, including using effective pedagogical tools, approaches, and assessment processes. Participants of this study designed engagement-based courses and reflected upon their teaching behaviours and preferences based on the ARPIM framework. Participants reflective reports indicated the utility of the ARPIM and ICAP frameworks (Chi & Wylie, 2014) as reflective guidelines for creating engagement-based instructional design plans, as stated in the following extract:

> Mostly constructive and interactive learning prevailed in my lessons last week. Students had to rely on the knowledge they already had to come up with ideas and create sentences (like giving examples of their previous sicknesses and ways to deal with them). Besides, students had to work in pairs, create dialogues, come up with questions for each other and answer the questions of their peers. This created an interactive environment for learning. To give way for interactive learning, I designed pair-work activities, asked students to address each other with questions in the main room, put students into breakout rooms and had them check correct answers to various activities in pairs without my involvement. Students actively participated, which made me think that they were happy about such activities. (Yaren, end-of-program reflective report 1)

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Theme 2: Collaboration

PD events, which create opportunities for teachers to interact and collaborate with colleagues about classroom experiences and implementations, foster meaningful shifts in practice (Butler & Schnellert, 2012; Guskey, 2000). As discussed in RQ1, one of the drivers of participation for some participants was the availability of chances to discuss different topics with colleagues from the same school through AFGDs. Most instructors defined collaboration as one of the effective characteristics of the OPD program, as exemplified in the following extracts:

It wasn't just me getting information from one person or from you. I could learn from my colleagues because, usually, in webinars or professional developments, it's a trainer standing in front of you just giving you information. You do some practice, and then you're finished. You get the theoretical and maybe a little bit of practice during the program, but it was the collaboration with my colleagues in this professional development. And I think it was more of collaboration and working together with colleagues than just getting theoretical information. So, I think that was one of the best things about this program. (Yaren, interview 2)

My favourite part of this program is interacting with my friends and colleagues. (Seda, Focus Group interview)

Their accounts indicated that despite working together for many years, they were not involved in collaborative and critical teaching practices except informal talks. The program provided participants to share and discuss ideas critically and systematically, as stated by Seda and Aylin:

I know them (program participants) personally. Actually, I have known most of them for ten years, at least. Some of them are close friends of mine, but we never had the

chance to see their approaches, their applications in the classroom, their lesson plans, and how they conduct a lesson. That was a great chance, I think. (Seda, interview 2)

I probably talked about it in my reflective report. You know, we used to do such teacher talk, I mean, such talking in break times, with our peers. I mean, what we did as an extra activity or the ways to share the games, but because of this pandemic (COVID-19), we weren't able to share many things. We just shared some online activities. But by talking with them, planning a lesson with them, and sharing each other's ideas, I changed my mind about some of the activities because I liked their ideas. And maybe they did the same thing. Actually, it's the part of teaching. It's the part of teaching in a school. So, it's really important because we are not private teachers. I enjoy sharing everything with them. Rather than planning a lesson alone, I prefer planning lessons with peers because they may have totally different ideas from you, and you may learn from them. So, it was really good, great. (Aylin, interview 2)

RTA indicates that the OPD program promoted social presence by allowing them to present and establish themselves as individuals that contribute to the construction, re-construction and co-construction of new knowledge (Garrison et al., 1999). During and following their participation in the OPD program, instructors' perceived empowerment in different aspects of teacher behaviours varied depending on their perceived needs and strengths. Nevertheless, all participants willingly engaged in discussions about different teacher behaviours influencing student engagement because they had the opportunity to exchange ideas with colleagues. RTA revealed that they actively participated in some discussions and activities just to contribute to the other participants regarding the teacher behaviours they perceived as strong. On the other hand, they attempted to learn from other colleagues about the teaching behaviours that they perceived they needed to improve. Their engagement with reflective practice and collaborative learning activities such as AFGDs, collaborative instructional design, and instructional design video presentations seemed to contribute to their professional growth, identity reconstruction and agency concerning teacher behaviours influencing student engagement.

RTA revealed that they benefited greatly from AFGDs and collaborative instructional design as collaborative learning activities. Since this program was designed based on a social-constructivist approach, the program designers' interference was limited to designing and facilitating discussions and interactions among participants. On the other hand, participants had a positive attitude toward each other, and this seemed to impact their perceptions, beliefs, learning, their professional identities and positioning, as shown in the following extracts:

One of the effective characteristics of this module is collaborative work. I really like the fact that we not only share our thoughts but we also read and comment on each other's ideas. Each of us has a different teaching style established over the years. We use techniques and ideas that we think to work well for us. However, learning something new from other teacher-friends/colleagues always adds a great deal to our professional development. (Yaren, module 1 reflective report)

As I said before, your program is a kind of simulation for us, a chance to reflect upon our own practices. However, I think we learn through our experiences and teaching experiences. And how to give feedback, types of feedback, how to praise the student, give negative or positive feedback, and respond to misbehaviours are learned through experience. So, I think, in your program, I had a chance to read about my colleagues' experiences. They shared their own experiences, and it was valuable and beneficial to me because we can learn from our experiences, from our friends' experiences. We can learn together. We can learn from each other's experiences. So, my colleagues' comments were very useful for me. (Seda, interview 2)

It was very helpful. I had a long break from prep classes, so I didn't have enough ideas or activities to implement in prep classes, and it is harder to do these in online education, but the brainstorming and opinions contributed a lot. (Defne, end-of-program reflective report 1)

Findings from the study suggest that apart from being a driver of participation, collaboration was one of the perceived effective characteristics of the program, which impacted some participants' future PD orientations. For instance, Ceren stated that she wanted to continue doing similar collaborative PD activities with colleagues even after the OPD program: "I really liked hearing the ideas of my colleagues. I prefer continuing this even after we finish this professional development. (End-of-program reflective report 1)

The study revealed that participant instructors had developed several strategies to deal with undesired student behaviours and classroom problems over time through the experience before the OPD program. They shared and discussed classroom problems they had already experienced and potential solutions to these problems (Butler et al., 2004), as shown in the following extract:

After this program, we realised that we encountered the same problems. We have the same experiences. We have similar types of students in our classes. And we have similar ways of overcoming misbehaviours in our classes. So, in this way, our friends' comments, especially their comments are very beneficial, I think. (Seda, interview 2)

Among several knowledge and competency requirements, building an effective instructional design that promotes learning and engagement should be regarded as a vital teacher competency. Even in centralized education systems, teachers can adapt and implement several changes in learning and teaching. In this OPD program, participants were involved in collaborative instructional design practice in which they created instructional design plans, materials, tasks, and assessment procedures collaboratively through synchronous discussion on Microsoft Teams. They expressed the usefulness of collaborative instructional design activity in promoting engagement in their courses.

It was extremely good to make a joint decision to prepare the instructional design for our other teachers to use in the learning process. It was really good, extremely good to share our ideas; feeling about each other's ideas has created a brand-new lesson plan, I think. (Esra, interview 2)

Planning the lesson with my peers contributed more than my own planning. We discussed our ideas, and I changed some parts after that. I experienced a past activity in a professional way. We used to talk about our lessons when we were together at school. This time, we planned it together in a more professional way with new knowledge and perspective. (Aylin, end-of-program reflective report 1)

I really liked hearing the ideas of my colleagues. I prefer continuing this even after we've finished this professional development. (Ceren, end-of-program reflective report 1)

Theme 3: Usefulness and Practicality

"I noticed that students were more engaged this week."

Through reflective and collaborative tasks, the OPD program supported participants' cognitive presence (Garrison et al., 1999). Collaborative learning activities in which participants shared instructional implementations and experiences offered hands-on ideas transferable to classroom practice. The following excerpts illustrate the participants' perceptions of the OPD program's usefulness and practicality regarding effective OPD program design features:

Well, this one touched upon an important topic and teachers' life, I think, how to engage students. It's kind of combined, different theories. It was not only theoretical. It was also hands-on. It was practical. So, it wasn't like we were just bombarded with information. And then we were like tested on it. But we had to listen. We had to read. We had to digest. It was also hands-on in terms of thinking about our past practices,

current practices, what we can do to change, and what needs to be changed or improved. I would say it was very effective. (Yaren, interview 2)

All in all, I have found everything useful in this module and in previous modules too. With this study, I feel that I can keep track of innovative teaching techniques. And I also remember what I've forgotten. I find it very beneficial. It wouldn't be more effective. I am happy to participate in this study. Thank you. (Evrim, module 3 AFGD)

While this study did not aim to show a link between instructors' professional growth and student outcomes, some participants reported increased student engagement in their courses after implementing the pedagogical tools, instructional strategies, teaching behaviours, and preferences they learned in the OPD program. The program's practicality allowed participants to implement new knowledge and perspectives they gained during the OPD program. When they saw the positive impact of the practical implementations on students' learning and engagement, their motivation increased, leading to increased satisfaction with the program, as expounded in the following extracts:

This week, I observed more engagement with both in-class and out-of-class activities (homework and assignments). For their Reading lesson, I asked them to search and learn more about Renaissance Artists. It was research homework. Although I didn't assign it officially, the regularly attending students did it and shared what they had found out. This means I could trigger their curiosity, which made me very happy. (Evrim, end-of-program reflective report 2)

I noticed that students were more engaged this week, and at the end of the lessons, in some groups, students shared their positive comments about the session. I got a lot of comments like, "Today was fun. It was a very entertaining lesson. I learned a lot today. Looks like giving directions is not that hard." There are a few reasons behind the increased engagement (at least, what I think). The same number of students attend

classes these days, and those who attend got used to each other and they don't feel uncomfortable anymore. Students are used to my way of giving instructions. They feel comfortable with my responses to their errors and my feedback. Thus, they are more willing to speak and participate in activities. At the beginning of the lesson, we spent a lot of time chitchatting, and I think that made students open up and participate more. (Yaren, end-of-program reflective report 2)

Students' engagement increased because the activities attracted their attention. All of a sudden, they were in discussion rooms, then they came back to class, and they were asked to write answers in the chatbox. Maybe 5 minutes later, they realised that there was no teacher in the class, and they had to discuss the questions on the screen with each other as a whole class activity. Then, they started to watch videos related to the topic, and they began to discuss the things mentioned in the videos. I learned that sitting in front of a screen can be seen as a passive action, but we can turn it into an active one by designing activities that our students are interested in. (Aysel, end-of-program reflective report 1)

Theme 4: Flexibility

The most salient barriers to involvement in PD that participants reported in pre-intervention interviews were heavy workload and lack of time. They worked in an intense English preparation program where they had to develop and assess exams every two weeks and provide feedback on learning tasks and projects. Being mostly asynchronous, the OPD program allowed them to progress in their pacing within the flexible time limits (usually two weeks for each module). Some participants stated that it is an enriching opportunity to read, research, implement, and reflect upon different teaching behaviours and preferences and share these new perspectives and knowledge with colleagues teaching in the same school without time constraints, as exemplified in the following extracts:

So, as it, as a student or as a teacher, I self-monitored myself. I reflected. I made a self-reflection of my students' thoughts and ideas. It feels really nice to be in this program and in online education in nowadays conditions. It was nice. It was comfortable to be at home at the same time. And to join this program was nice. (Zuhal, interview 2)

It did bring a lot of new ideas for me. It was, it was comfortable. As I said, I could do it when when I wanted to. (Yaren, interview 2)

The program lasted 11 weeks and required an average of 45 hours of work. When asked about the program's length and workload, most participants stated that the program provided them adequate time and space to learn, implement and reflect. Furthermore, they did not feel overwhelmed because the program offered them the flexibility to complete module tasks at their own pacing.

I think for the information that we got, and for the work that we had to do for the input that we had to put into like writing, reading, writing the surveys, I think that was the perfect time. If it was shorter, I think the workload would be more stressful for us. But I think having a week for each module was perfect timing. And then, of course, there was the practical side to it. I don't see why it shouldn't be longer. If you add more information, if you add more modules to it, and of course, but I think for, for the information that we had for the learning material that we had to process, I was fine with it. It was required with, I think. (Yaren, interview, 2)

It can be even longer. If you have course arranged the workload. It can be maybe longer until this term. But no, I don't have any problems with the ten-week program. (Zeynep, interview 2)

Theme 5: Facilitation and Organisation

RTA of the research data highlighted the significance of facilitation and organisation in promoting teaching presence in online learning environments (Garrison et al., 1999). An effective teacher OPD should be designed carefully by considering the needs and conditions of the participants. This may be the most distinctive characteristic of collaborative OPD with smaller groups compared to MOOCs (massive open online courses) and larger OPD programs. Despite having an initial plan and syllabus draft, all program components, program length, frequency of the delivery of modules, and program scope were adapted and changed based on the participant instructors' needs, conditions, interests and teaching context. I also provided guidance, facilitation and technical support by following AFGDs, collaborative instructional design activities and reflective reports, which allowed me to make changes and scaffold the professional growth of participants during the program implementation. Consistent with the CoI framework (Garrison et al., 1999, 2001, 2010a, 2010b), participants' accounts emphasised the crucial role of facilitation and organisation in the OPD:

> I can say one of the strengths of the program was that it was well prepared. It was a detailed one. And it was carefully planned (Defne, interview 2)

> The modules being divided into sessions according to a topic makes the aims and outcomes of the modules clear and easy to grasp and comprehend. (Yaren, module 1 reflective report)

> Everything has been designed very well, so we know what we are going to do. You know I told you that when the students know what they are going to do, what they are going to achieve after the lesson and if the instructions are clear for them, their engagement will increase. And the same thing is for me too, because it's designed very well. That's why I did not have any problems. If I do not understand anything,

I can ask you. I also did. Thank you very much for being clear, for your good instructional design and for everything. (Aysel, interview 2)

Theme 6: Participants' Suggestions and Criticisms

This theme captures participants' criticisms and suggestions regarding the design and implementation features of this OPD program. Results of the study indicate that the OPD program positively impacted participants' beliefs, perceptions, implementations and future goal orientations. However, it did not remain distant from criticism. Interviews and end-of-module reflective reports posed participants questions concerning their criticisms and suggestions to the OPD program. While most participants remained positive about their participation and did not pose any criticism when asked about the strengths and weaknesses of the OPD program and modules, I tried to receive their feedback and criticism by adding probes such as: "What would you change if you were the designer of this OPD program? What things would you add or remove?". Some participants gave suggestions concerning the program design features and the platform in module reflective reports, end-of-program interviews, and focus group interviews.

The program was implemented using two platforms: Google Blogger web page and Microsoft Teams. The program videos and AFGDs were implemented on Google Blogger, and synchronous meetings, collaborative instructional design practice and instructional design video recording activities were implemented on Microsoft Teams. Instructors were already using Microsoft Teams in their school for online classes, and they were familiar with the platform. On the other hand, I preferred Google Blogger because it was free, user-friendly, and simple. It allows embedding Google Calendar, Google Forms, Youtube video links and other web tools on the blog page. It is a mobile-friendly platform that everyone can access through a web browser without downloading any application. I wanted to keep program participation as simple as possible regarding the use of technology. If I used another platform, it would be confusing for some participants because, in pre-intervention interviews, I realised that most participants had a kind of anxiety about using technology. The blog page was a simple web page with session videos and discussion questions. Just

clicking or touching on the link I shared with them through emails and WhatsApp messages, they could watch the video and write their comments or replies. Participants reported no issues using the platform and quickly adapted to use it. Another reason for using Blogger was to protect the confidentiality and anonymity of the research data because I used participants' posts in AFGDs as research data. I used a closed Blogger web page and deleted all data from Google right after the program implementation. In module one reflective report, Zeynep asked whether using emojis or like-dislike buttons was possible. The platform does not offer that feature, but users can leave emojis in comments and replies. I shared a screencast showing them how they leave emojis in replies.

In this program, participants were requested to post at least one comment and reply to at least one of the comments their colleagues left. Although they had 1 or 2 weeks for each module, some participants posted on the last days of the modules. Therefore, others had to wait to see new comments till the last day. Some participants suggested giving different due dates for the first posts and replies would be better because they would be able to see all comments before getting involved in discussions. One of the benefits of the reflective reports was that I could immediately learn participants' ideas during the program implementation. Hence, I could make changes according to their needs and suggestions. After participants requested different due dates, I shared the idea with all participants, and they agreed to post their first comments on the discussion boards until Friday and reply until Sunday.

At the end of each module, I mailed participants a summary of the discussions and highlights from the module. Seda suggested that instead of written summaries or outlines, sharing infographics or visual maps summarising the module discussions would be better. Upon her suggestion, I sent them visual summaries. They also prepared conceptual maps that outlined teacher behaviours influencing student engagement.

4.6. Summary of Chapter Four

This chapter describes the findings from the study in discussion with the previous research on related topics. The instrumental qualitative case study approach allowed me to collect a large and rich data source that presents significant findings for teacher educators, OPD program designers and foreign language teachers. The results suggest that participants' pre-intervention perceptions of student engagement focused more on behavioural aspects such as participation and attendance. Nevertheless, their perceptions, beliefs and implementations have undergone substantial changes during and after the OPD program, resulting in an expanded understanding of student engagement, empowered teaching behaviours and increased teacher agency. Findings show that participant instructors reconstructed their teaching identities by adopting an engagement-based approach to teaching and reconsidering their roles in student engagement. The results also show that reflexive practice, collaboration, usefulness and practicality, flexibility, facilitation and organisation are the perceived effective design features of the program.

CHAPTER FIVE
CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This instrumental case study set out to explore how the notion of student engagement was perceived, experienced and implemented by a group of EFL instructors working at a state university in Türkiye. Data for the study was gathered through the design and implementation of an OPD program on student engagement. As there were no theories or models focusing on foreign language teachers' role in student engagement, I proposed a conceptual framework that categorised and defined teaching behaviours and preferences influencing student engagement in EFL courses. I conceptualised the framework based on my experience as an ELT teacher and supported my assumptions through relevant literature and theories on foreign language teaching and student engagement. The framework guided the OPD program design and analysis of the research data. The study also investigated the OPD program's contribution to participants' PD and their perceptions of the design features of the OPD program. Results of the study offer significant implications for teacher education and PD, distance education and student engagement research in ELT. Another significant contribution of this study pertains to research methodology regarding the use of the "fully qualitative" approach, digital data sources and the RTA approach (Braun & Clarke, 2021) in teacher PD research. The following sections present important conclusions and implications of the study.

5.1. Implications for Foreign Language Teaching and Research

The study offers several implications for foreign language teachers and researchers concerning student engagement in foreign language classrooms. This study is the first attempt to explore EFL instructors' perceptions of teaching behaviours and preferences influencing student engagement. Findings from the study confirm the previous research that interactive and collaborative learning events promote engagement with the target language. However, participants shared experiences and ideas indicate that this condition depends largely on the students' level of foreign language development. Findings suggest that some

teaching strategies which are overlooked, such as using L1, close-ended questions, or passive learning activities, can help language learners to overcome their anxiety, initiate engagement, increase self-efficacy and reduce cognitive load at the initial stages of foreign language development. As students progress in the target language, they can be exposed to more target language use, active, constructive, and interactive learning. Further studies may investigate the relative effectiveness of differentiated learning activities suggested by Chi and Wylie (2014) (i.e., passive, active, constructive, interactive) at different stages of foreign language development.

5.2. Implications for Student Engagement Research

This study proposes a conceptual framework that defines and differentiates teaching behaviours and preferences influencing student engagement. While instructors/teachers play a significant role in enhancing engagement and overcoming disengagement (Allen et al., 2013; Pianta et al., 2012; Quin, 2016; Reeve & Cheon, 2016; Shernoff et al., 2016; Skinner & Belmont, 1993), the theoretical foundation of teacher behaviours influencing student engagement is still underexamined. Existing student engagement models and theories focus on mechanisms responsible for student engagement and how to promote it. Such knowledge of the construct is invaluable to researchers, educators and teachers. The research on motivation and student engagement presents a variety of teaching behaviours and preferences that might enhance or inhibit student engagement. However, the current literature does not provide a solid framework, model or theory defining and differentiating major categories of teacher behaviours that might enhance or inhibit student engagement.

The ARPIM framework intends to contribute to the literature by providing a conceptual proposition for the major teacher behaviours that might impact student engagement. While I conceptualised the framework based on my experiences as a teacher of English, I evidenced my assumptions through relevant theories and literature on student engagement and foreign language teaching. The framework guided the program design and analysis of data. The framework allowed me to co-constructively explore participants' perceptions, beliefs, experiences and implementations concerning student engagement. I

revised and edited the initial conceptual framework according to the findings from the study. Figure 13 presents the final version of the conceptual framework that I reconstructed according to findings from the study.
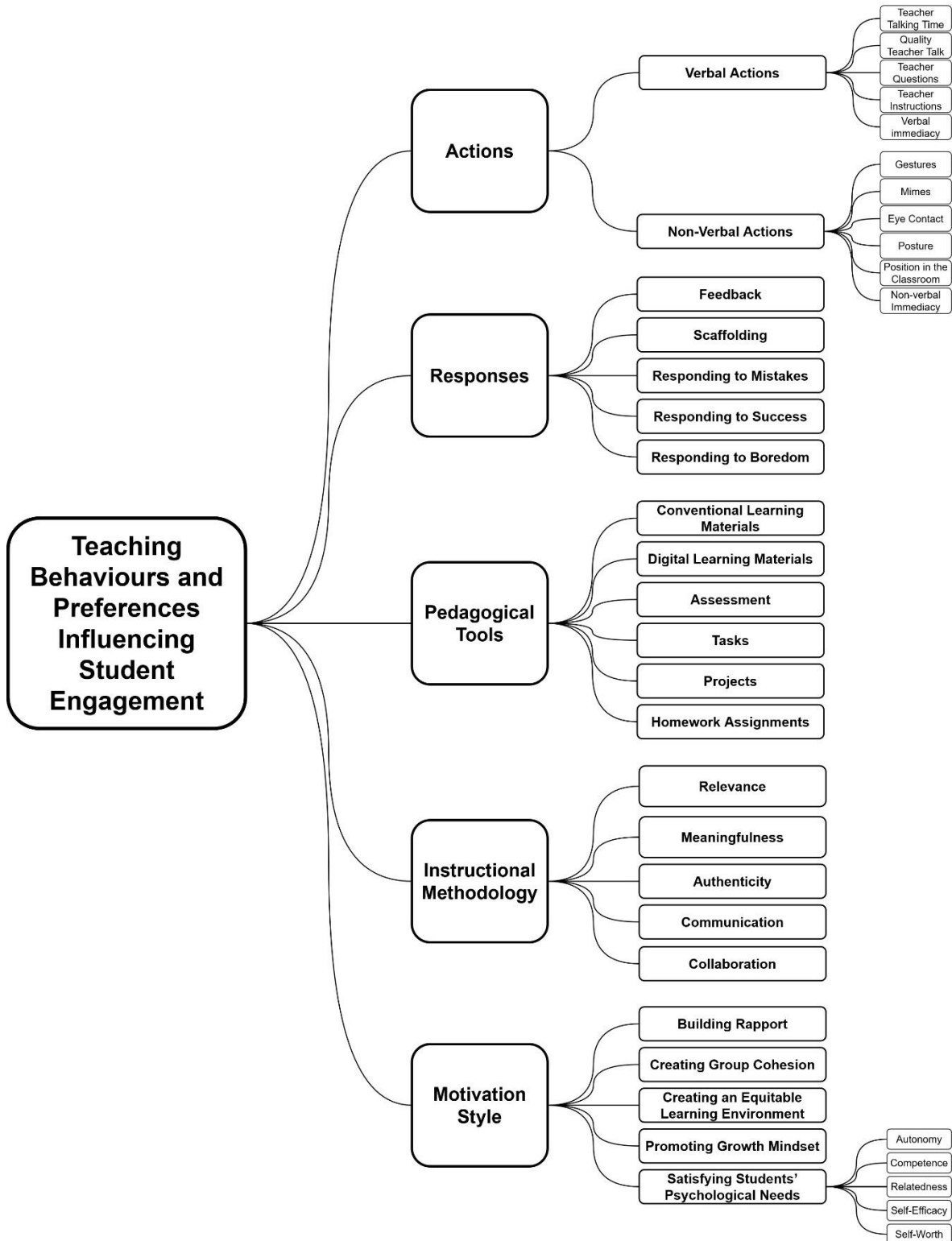
Figure 13. The final version of the ARPIM conceptual framework

While the framework focuses on the significance of teacher behaviours and preferences, it does not necessarily support learning environments dominated by teachers. Instead, it highlights the pivotal role of these teaching behaviours and preferences in promoting or inhibiting learner-centred instruction. Learner-centredness does not mean ignoring the role of teachers in the learning process. Teachers are the ones who will promote or inhibit learner-centredness. Without having the knowledge and skills required to promote learner-centred approaches, teachers might fail to generate and maintain student engagement. Learner-centeredness requires a "parallel change in the teacher's role" (Tudor, 1993, p. 22).

The ARPIM framework does not offer teachers a new method, set of rules, list of best practices, or contents that teachers should use. The framework does not limit the learning events and activities to existing approaches or methods. It directs teachers, researchers, and educators to elaborate on these five broad categories and the sub-categories of teaching behaviours and preferences likely to influence student engagement. Future studies can relate the framework to existing approaches, methodologies, models and frameworks such as the communicative language teaching approach, 21st-century skills and Bloom's digital taxonomy.

The framework also provides a research agenda for researchers interested in student engagement. The present study does not make any claims about the relationship between the major categories of these teaching behaviours and preferences or the superiority of one over another. The relationship among these components and the usefulness and validity of the framework can be investigated or tested with further research to understand how or whether these major categories of teaching behaviours are linked to student engagement. Further studies with a positivist orientation may also develop models and scales to measure student engagement through teaching behaviours and preferences defined and differentiated by the ARPIM framework. Another approach to test the assumptions of the framework could be a quasi or true experimental design intervention of teacher PD research using the framework.

While the current literature shows the link between student engagement and most of the teaching behaviours and preferences defined and differentiated in the framework, the relationship between some of the teaching behaviours and student engagement has not been adequately addressed. Future studies are needed to fully understand to what extent and how the following teaching behaviours and preferences influence student engagement in foreign language learning:

- verbal teacher actions
  - verbal immediacy
  - teacher questions
  - classroom discourse
- nonverbal teacher actions
  - nonverbal immediacy
- responding to student misbehaviour
- responding to student boredom
- assessment

The study presents findings regarding EFL instructors' perceptions of these teaching behaviours and preferences, such as using verbal and nonverbal communication, dealing with student misbehaviours and boredom, responding to student disengagement and motivation strategies in foreign language classrooms. Understanding teachers' perceptions, experiences and implementations regarding these notions offer practical and theoretical knowledge for ELT researchers, teacher educators, material developers, and program designers. The framework is not conclusive. New components can be added to the framework by investigating the link between other teaching behaviours and student engagement.

While this study focused on student engagement in foreign language teaching, the framework could be adapted to other fields of education. The utility and adaptability of the framework in different domains can also be investigated in future research.

5.3. Implications for Teacher Education and PD

Consistent with previous research (de Groot-Reuvekamp et al., 2018; Dede et al., 2009; Howard, 2021; Powell & Bodur, 2019), results from the study indicate that relevance, flexibility, collaboration, usefulness and facilitation are drivers of participation and perceived effective characteristics of this OPD program. Moreover, the study reveals that teachers are more likely to reconsider and reconstruct their identities and positionings when they are satisfied with their participation in OPD. Findings from the study confirm the assumptions of the CoI (Garrison et al., 1999) framework by providing evidence on the crucial role of cognitive, social and teaching presence in online learning environments. These findings might help clarify how to motivate and encourage participation and increase satisfaction with similar programs.

While the study did not attempt to offer generalizable findings, the program's design features professional learning tasks, and findings from the study can be transferred to similar contexts. Therefore, I thoroughly described the program design and implementation process. Thus, researchers and teacher educators can adapt the program features to their contexts and conditions. The following sections present implications and conclusions regarding the perceived effective characteristics of the program.

5.3.1. Relevance and Flexibility

Prior to pre-intervention interviews, participants were presented with the program contents, design features, and outcomes in an online meeting. Then, they were mailed a detailed written description of all these contents and OPD design features. One of the drivers for participating in the OPD program was that instructors had been experiencing varying degrees of student engagement problems in online and face-to-face learning environments. The pre-intervention interviews explored participants' perceived barriers to PD, time that they could devote to program participation, their preferences for the length and frequency of modules, their involvement in previous PD activities, and their perceptions of the student engagement in EFL courses which was the focus of the OPD program. The OPD program

offered a personalised learning experience for all participants considering the information they were provided before the program implementation. Program contents and design features were adapted or changed according to the needs assessment results.

Creating a personalised learning experience seemed to create a powerful impact on participants' satisfaction and learning. This highlights the need for personalised OPD programs, which might be difficult to implement with larger groups. Therefore, small-scale OPD events with smaller professional learning groups can be more effective than large-scale ones. This could be one of the problems of MOOCs, which might fail to generate a personalised learning experience and teaching presence. MOOC platforms or software offering teaching presence (Garrison et al., 1999) and opportunities for teachers to determine the length, frequency, time and scope of the learning experience might be more effective and preferable for teachers. In MOOCs offered to hundreds or thousands of participants, artificial intelligence supported software can be developed to create a sense of teaching presence and a personalised adult learning experience.

Informing participants about the program contents, components, and design features is an effective way of ensuring teachers' motivation to participate and satisfaction with the OPD program participation. Thus, they can make choices of participation, considering whether the program is relevant to their needs and conditions. The results imply that apart from being a driver of participation, the relevance of the OPD events influences teachers' satisfaction with the program outcomes, perceptions and beliefs, and subsequent instructional shifts. Willingness to participate in a relevant OPD and satisfaction with the program outcomes seemed to encourage participant instructors' reconstruction of their teacher identity and positioning.

5.3.2. Collaboration

Among drivers of participation in the OPD program and perceived effective characteristics, collaboration was the most salient one that all participants echoed in their

accounts. Collaborative practice greatly impacted their perceptions, beliefs and classroom implementations. When teachers are involved in PD activities given by experts or external trainers, they might be unwilling to change their identities, positionings and implementations. However, the results of the study indicate that the instructors are more willing to change their positionings, beliefs, perceptions and subsequently classroom implementations when the information, knowledge, or suggestion comes from practitioners who understand their experiences, share common conditions and face similar challenges. Otherwise, they tend to regard new knowledge or implementation as something generated in optimum conditions for learning, which may not be the case for their learning contexts. Therefore, constructivist and social-constructivist approaches have much to offer to adult learning and teacher PD by exploring unique experiences and knowledge teachers bring to the PD activities. When there is a theoretical perspective or new knowledge that teachers are expected to learn in PD events, these can be discussed and elaborated in relation to contextual factors among practitioners. Thus, teachers can collaboratively evaluate whether this new knowledge, technique, approach or implementation is applicable in their context or how they can transform this new knowledge to address their contextual conditions. Then, they can extend the knowledge and implementation of theories and new approaches. Therefore, PD case studies significantly contribute to the literature to bridge the gap between theory and practice.

Collaborative Professional Learning Activities

This study introduced novel implementations to constructive and co-constructive teacher PD. First, the OPD program included AFGDs stimulated by short videos. Using short videos to introduce the topic of discussion seemed to be effective in refreshing knowledge and stimulating and encouraging discussions. Second, instructors made weekly collaborative instructional design plans instead of conventional lesson plans. Collaborative instructional design practice in which teachers plan a week, a month or a unit can be an alternative to the models such as lesson study in which teachers plan lessons. Lesson planning, observations, or reflections of a few courses are limited in scope and seem to be more applicable to behaviourist approaches to teacher education and PD. In constructive learning environments, where teachers are facilitators of learning rather than transmitters of information, there is not

much to plan or observe concerning teaching behaviours and preferences in a few lesson hours. Instead, a careful investigation of how teachers manage and facilitate a prolonged learning process through teaching behaviours and preferences would be a better indicator of the quality of teaching. Judgements about the instructional shifts subsequent to teacher PD or how teachers perform in the classroom should not be made through observation of a few classes right after the intervention. Unlike learning outcomes or achievement, measuring student engagement might require a prolonged investigation of students' learning experiences. An approach that evaluates the overall teaching process over a period of time might offer a better understanding of to what extent a teacher promotes engagement. ARPIM framework can be a comprehensive basis for such an evaluation or research.

Another novel collaborative teacher PD activity proposed by this study was video-recorded weekly instructional design plans instead of conventional written lesson plans. Apart from collaborative synchronous instructional design practice, participants prepared individual instructional design plans and narrated their plans in a video recording using screencasting and presentation functions of the learning materials they use in their classrooms. Most participants stated that it was like teaching a real lesson and recording it. They also had the opportunity-self reflect on their plan. The other participant instructors watched these videos and wrote comments to give feedback to their colleagues. Future OPD studies using these collaborative professional learning activities may help better understand how these activities can be used to promote teachers' professional growth and empowerment.

5.3.3. Organisation and Facilitation

One of the effective characteristics of the program salient in teachers' accounts was the organisation and facilitation. The program had a facilitator that provided guidance, feedback and assistance. OPD programs with a facilitator who stimulates discussions, shares readings and resources and provides technical support might be useful in promoting OPD participation and satisfaction. Findings from the study support the previous literature indicating that teaching presence is a desired and necessary condition for effective online

learning environments (Garrison et al., 2010; Hung & Chou, 2015; Turk et al., 2021; Vaughan, 2004). Facilitators can interfere when participants request help, ask questions, need technical support or want to change OPD design features or contents during the program implementation. This OPD program had an evolving and organic design that allowed the program designer to make changes, adaptations, omissions or extensions depending on the participants' needs during the program implementation. Reflective reports that I collected at the end of each module provided insights into what program components and features program participants liked or did not like and how they felt about their participation. Accordingly, changes were made during the program implementation to satisfy the needs of the participants. Further studies focusing on evolving and organic OPD program design are suggested to explore how organic and evolving OPD program design contributes to the PD of teachers.

5.3.4. A Comprehensive Approach to Needs Assessment

The study revealed that participants' perceived PD needs do not always match gaps in their knowledge, competency and skill when they are not involved in reflective practice. Teachers may not realise their strengths and areas they need to improve when they do not critically evaluate their teaching behaviours and preferences. In this case, their self-reports of perceived PD needs might sometimes be more about their PD interests rather than needs. Moreover, the lack of reflective practice may impede them from seeing their professional strengths. For instance, in pre-intervention interviews, participants of this study stated that they needed PD on using technology in EFL classrooms. However, results from the RTA revealed that they used several kinds of different technologies in their classrooms. Therefore, needs assessment for teacher PD should not be limited to teachers' self-reports. A more comprehensive and prolonged needs assessment involving different data sources and stakeholders is required to understand teachers' PD needs. Another approach could be providing teachers chances to get involved in reflective practice before collecting data on their perceived PD needs through self-reports. Thus, they could provide more comprehensive and accurate data on their PD needs.

5.3.5. Engagement-based Instruction and Teacher Agency

The results of the RTA reveal that engagement-based instruction promotes teacher agency by directing them to take initiatives regarding instructional design, methodology and pedagogical tools. Whilst most participants were too much dependent on course syllabus and textbooks before the program implementation, their involvement in an OPD program concerning student engagement encouraged and motivated them to seek new ways, tools and approaches to increase student engagement in their classrooms. Thus, they took a more active role as agents of student engagement rather than practitioners of top-down implementations. Teachers should be active agents in the teaching and learning process, but this can only be achieved when they are provided flexibility and feel confident about their actions. Results of the study reveal that when teachers feel insecure or inefficient, they become more dependent on the syllabus and coursebooks because they perceive them as more manageable and safer. They do not want to take risks when they do not feel confident and competent in trying new things. When involved in CPD, they become more motivated to take risks and try new things. Some participants directly stated that engagement-based instruction also promoted their engagement with teaching. Further research can be undertaken to investigate how engagement-based instruction impacts teachers' professional identities and agency.

5.4. Implications for Distance Education and Learning

This study was conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic. Therefore, participants were teaching online and face-to-face courses. Thus, the study offered results and implications for face-to-face and distance learning environments. The results show that online teaching and learning restrict immediacy and social contact, which participant instructors perceive difficult to overcome. The results suggest that understanding and promoting learners' emotional, behavioural, and agentic engagement is far more challenging in online learning due to the lack of verbal and nonverbal immediacy. Accordingly, another challenge concerning online learning environments identified in RTA was creating group cohesion due to the lack of nonverbal communication and immediacy. Therefore, teachers need training and PD on promoting behavioural and affective engagement in online learning

environments. Furthermore, online learning environments and platforms should involve tools, gadgets, and applications that might create a better learning experience concerning verbal and nonverbal interactions. Future studies may investigate how to create an authentic learning experience that promotes immediacy and group cohesion in online foreign language learning environments.

Teachers initiate and orient learners' emotional, behavioural, cognitive, and agentic engagement (Reeve, 2012). The RTA of research data in this case study indicates that cognitive engagement can be as effective as face-to-face learning in online learning environments. Students can achieve cognitive outcomes with adequate support and guidance through effective instructional design that engages and involves learners through constructive and interactive distance learning activities proposed by Chi & Wylie's (2014) ICAP framework. However, the results of this study suggest that learners' emotional, behavioural, and agentic engagement is far more challenging in online learning due to the difficulty of conveying verbal and nonverbal teacher immediacy, creating group cohesion and building rapport as effective as in face-to-face learning. Therefore, teachers should be trained in promoting emotional and behavioural engagement in online education. Further studies may explore the use of digital tools, gadgets, and applications that might provide a better learning experience promoting behavioural, emotional and social engagement.

5.5. Implications for Policy Makers in Turkish Higher Education

PD of instructors teaching English is not a requirement or priority in Turkish HE. No policies or quality standards require instructors or SoFLs to get involved in PD. PD activities are initiated and implemented based on school leaders' attitudes and efforts. Some instructors are translation and literature department graduates, employed without teaching certificates and PD requirements. They learn to teach English just through experience without any training or education. Furthermore, there is no institutional or national policy for the PD of instructors. An instructor can work up to 30 years without getting involved in any PD. Those involved in PD activities with individual efforts do not gain any promotion, privilege or funding opportunities. Policy and decision-makers in Turkish HE should

determine the quality standards and requirements for the PD of instructors of English and provide more funding and opportunities for quality professional learning activities. Moreover, EFL instructors' credentials regarding PD should provide them with more employability opportunities and privileges in higher education. Thus, involvement in PD would be encouraged.

5.6. Implications for Policy Makers in Turkish National Education

The Ministry of National Education (MoNE) has recently implemented an online PD program for teachers working in stated schools. The program included 180 hours of video content on different aspects of teaching, and teachers' learning was tested through a multiple-choice exam after the program. While the program deserves appreciation for being the first large-scale attempt to promote the PD of teachers working at public schools, it faced a backlash from teachers because the program was implemented during summer vacation, and teachers' learning outcomes were evaluated through multiple-choice standardised exams. Findings from this study highlight the significance of reflection, collaboration, practicality and facilitation in teacher PD. OPD programs with smaller groups in which teachers have the opportunity to collaborate and interact with other teachers, implement what they have learnt, and reflect upon their implementations might create a more satisfactory professional learning experience for teachers.

One common criticism of the MoNE's online PD program was the use of multiple-choice standardized exams to test teachers' knowledge gains. As the self-worth theory suggests (Covington & Berry, 1976), individuals are too protective of their images and self-worth. When experienced teachers feel that their knowledge is tested, they could feel humiliated or even offended. In this study, I did not use any kind of formal assessment or standardized exams. Instead, I evaluated participants learning through task completion because completing professional learning tasks, implementing what is learned in the program and reflecting upon it was a strong indicator of the achievement of program outcomes. That was one of the most liked parts of the OPD program. Participants directly expressed that they did not feel judged, and it increased their motivation. MoNE can adopt a similar approach

by evaluating teachers learning of target outcomes through task completion and school-based, in-house professional learning activities. However, such evaluation requires staff that would follow, guide, and facilitate program participation. This could be done by employing part-time teacher educators or program facilitators from experienced teachers who completed this program or post-graduate program. They could work as facilitators and evaluators in such PD programs while working as full-time teachers. The teachers who work as facilitators can be encouraged through promotions, extra pay, and fewer course hours. This would also create a career opportunity for teachers that could reduce burnout.

Using asynchronous videos is a common strategy in online teacher PD programs. In this program, I used session videos that introduced different concepts of student engagement. However, the videos did not dictate rules or suggest the best practices. Instead, the videos provided knowledge and ideas about the target content and stimulated discussions. Teachers discussed how or whether they could relate the knowledge presented in the videos to their context, what strategies, activities, and implementations they used in their classrooms, and shared their suggestions. MoNE generated large and rich video content for the teachers, and these videos can be used more constructively to stimulate discussions and collaboration among teachers. Having teachers watch 180 hours of video content and testing them with standardized exams did not seem to create cognitive, social, and teaching presence. Policymakers in MoNE can consider findings from this study to make OPD programs more effective for teachers in state schools.

5.7. Methodological Implications

This study methodologically contributes to the qualitative research community in three ways. First, it shows an example of how deductive and inductive orientations are used as a spectrum rather than a dichotomy by using a conceptual framework. Second, it presents how contemporary digital data collection and analysis methods are utilised in qualitative research. Third, the study is an example of how "fully qualitative" research approach and the RTA method are used in teacher PD case study research. RTA has much to offer teacher PD and cognition research because it allows flexibility regarding the use of diverse theoretical orientations, deductive and inductive approaches, latent and semantic coding, and working

with different kinds of data sets, including focus groups, interviews and surveys. As exemplified by this study, the flexibility of RTA allows researchers to uncover the truth from a constructivist perspective and provide a diverse and rich understanding of the research problems which are not adequately addressed in the literature.

5.7.1. Deductive-Inductive Orientation to Qualitative Research

While several studies used the thematic analysis approach across different domains, the number of studies using theory-driven/deductive or conceptually located thematic analysis is limited. This study presents a worked example of how deductive and inductive approaches to RTA are used in a continuum. I collected and analysed qualitative data using deductive and inductive approaches convergently. The conceptual and theoretical framework of the study guided data collection and analysis regarding the EFL instructors' perceptions of teaching behaviours and preferences concerning student engagement.

The notion of deductive analysis varies in qualitative research. Some approaches use deductive analysis to create codebooks or pre-determined themes and look for evidence in the data that support their claims. While conducting RTA, I did not use the conceptual framework to generate codes and themes prior to data analysis but to determine the focus of the analysis. For instance, the first component of the framework, "verbal and nonverbal teacher actions", was not a predetermined theme. I attempted to explore how participant instructors perceived and experienced this notion using the conceptual framework. However, I generated themes such as "Using the native language in an ESL classroom - does not hurt!" and "Open-ended vs Close-Ended Teacher Questions", relying on participants' accounts and reflexive engagement with the data. These themes were not predefined, emergent or self-evident patterns of meaning. I identified, named and defined the themes through reflexive engagement with the dataset recursively to best reflect and illuminate the participants' perceptions and experiences. This study shows how RTA is conducted deductively with a conceptual framework.

5.7.2. Using Digital Data Collection Tools in RTA

This study also contributes to the qualitative research methodology by providing implications for using digital data sources and tools in teacher PD research. For instance, AFGDs provided an in-depth and diverse understanding of the situated experiences and knowledge of the participants that they co-construct through 25 discussions without time and place constraints. It would not be possible to collect such extensive and fruitful data only with conventional qualitative data sources such as face-to-face focus groups and one-to-one interviews because it would be too difficult to gather these instructors in such a long series of meetings.

In AFGDs, the participants watched short discussion stimulation videos that defined and explained the concept they would discuss. However, these videos did not direct or dictate rules or a particular point of view. They just helped participants to better understand the concept they would discuss. Researchers using this data collection method should be cautious about influencing participants' perceptions when using videos and open-ended questions. Discussion stimulating videos should not direct or dictate ideas or influence participants' responses. They should introduce the topic to ensure all participants talk or write about the same thing by expressing their situated experiences and views. For instance, teachers might understand different things from the notion of feedback. A video that explains how the researcher or study conceptualizes feedback determines the boundaries of the discussion and keeps participants on track. Then, participants can discuss topics such as ways of giving feedback, students' preferences for feedback, and the impact of a certain type of feedback on their students. Thus, researchers can explore participants' experiences, perceptions and implementations regarding feedback.

Digital interviews, on the other hand, created a relaxed atmosphere in which participants felt safe and comfortable. Participating in interviews from their home or office rather than staying with somebody in a closed room positively impacted participants' disclosure and participation. Digital data collection also provided convenience in terms of recording and transcription. Using digital tools to gather research data promoted

participation, disclosure and integrity, which generated a rich and extensive data source for the study.

I also conducted an online focus group interview with participants ten months after the program to understand the program's long-term impact on participants' perceptions. The online focus group method allowed me to manage the discussion easily by using functions on Microsoft Teams, such as raising hands, spotlighting participants, managing microphone permissions etc. It also provided convenience in terms of recording because conventional face-to-face focus group interviews require multiple recorders when interviewing large groups of up to 12 participants.

Researchers who use digital data collection tools should pilot the interviews to familiarise themselves with the platform and online interviewing. While it provides flexibility and efficiency, it requires some technical knowledge. Ethical issues should also be considered while using digital tools. Researchers should ensure recordings are not kept on the databases of the video-call platforms. Local recording settings that allow users to save the recording on their computers should be preferred. Data should not be kept on cloud systems that do not meet advanced security standards. Digital data should be kept and backed up in password-protected local drives and devices, and the security of these devices should be ensured using antivirus and anti-spyware software to protect the participants' rights and confidentiality of the dataset.

5.7.3. Fully Qualitative Research in Teacher PD Research

This study presents a worked example of fully qualitative research (Braun & Clarke, 2013, 2021) in teacher PD research. One common issue that Braun and Clarke (2017, 2019, 2021) criticised in published thematic analysis research papers is assuming thematic analysis as a unified or single approach and relying on positivist and post-positivist approaches and terms by citing their 2006 work (Braun & Clarke, 2006). There are different approaches to thematic analysis, and they require different kinds of engagement with data. One of the most

distinguishing characteristics of RTA is that it is a relativist approach that does not require and desire positivist and post-positivist validation strategies.

This study adopted the "Big Q" approach by relying on qualitative research values, terms and commitments, and it allowed me to have a broader, richer and in-depth understanding of the experiences, beliefs, cognition and implementations of the research participants. It would not be possible to understand these aspects of teachers' identities and positionings with positivist and post-positivist approaches as they present limitations due to objectivity concerns and the use of strategies such as coding reliability and coding negotiation approaches. Scientific papers must provide evidence for the claims they make; otherwise, they would be conspiracy theories. However, positivist strategies or qualitative data are not the only ways to provide scientific evidence, especially in social science.

Instead of using positivist approaches, I ensured rigour by following a systematic research process, engaging with the research data reflexively and recursively, contextualizing the interpretations, and using illustrative and analytical data extracts. Another strategy I used to ensure rigour was explicitness. I explicitly and thoroughly defined and described all stages of the research process, including the conceptualisation of the notions and concepts. I provided a rationale for the selection of the particular research methods, data collection tools, and analytical approach. I also clarified my background, positioning, roles and relationship with the participants in this study. Thus, readers can make judgements about the objectivity, truthfulness or trustworthiness of the research findings.

The purpose of the research projects and the nature of research problems largely determine the approaches and research methodologies. Adopting positivist and post-positivist approaches without thinking critically or overlooking qualitative approaches due to objectivity concerns may limit researchers in reaching a novel and diverse understanding of the research problems. There are several ways to make qualitative research rigorous, and positivist or postpositivist approaches are not always the best way to explore the nature of truth in social sciences. Researchers should overcome the dichotomy of qualitative and quantitative approaches and determine the best approach according to the research problems

they address. The fully qualitative research approach and RTA has much to offer to teacher cognition and PD research. Future studies adopting fully qualitative commitments may contribute to a better understanding of teachers' identities, cognition, PD needs, experiences, and implementations simply by talking to teachers and making interpretations about their accounts. Researchers with objectivity or validity concerns can test assumptions and findings from these studies with experiments or statistical models. In this respect, fully qualitative research provides novel research ideas and topics for researchers adopting positivist and post-positivist paradigmatic assumptions.

5.8. Summary of Chapter Five

This chapter presented the conclusions and implications of the study. This study was a multidimensional instrumental case study with implications for language teaching and research, teacher education, distance education, PD policies in Turkey and qualitative research methodology. The study attempted to present a rich and in-depth understanding of the construct of student engagement, teachers' role in it, and the PD of teachers to promote student engagement. Moreover, I proposed a conceptual framework that defines and differentiates major teaching behaviours and preferences influencing student engagement. I evidenced and supported my propositions and conceptualizations through relevant literature. After the data analysis, I updated the conceptual framework based on the study's findings that reflect the participant instructors' perceptions, experiences, beliefs and implementations in authentic learning environments. The framework has the potential to encourage and guide teachers', teacher educators and researchers to reconsider teachers' role, responsibility and potential to promote student engagement. The framework also provides a further agenda for researchers interested in student engagement in foreign language learning. The chapter also presented several implications for teacher education, PD and OPD program design and implementation. Finally, this chapter shares the experiences and implications regarding the qualitative data collection and analysis process.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

PROGRAM SYLLABUS

Engage Me
An Online Professional Development Program on
EFL Teacher Behaviours Influencing Student Engagement
15.02.2021-18.04.2021

Program Description

This online professional development (OPD) program has been designed for EFL (English as a Foreign Language) instructors who want to support and improve young adult learners' engagement in EFL courses. The program is delivered on a blog page which includes asynchronous modules introducing teacher behaviours influencing student engagement. It has been designed based on constructivist and social-constructivist theory. It does not intend to offer a set of rules, "best" practices or activities for teaching English because we believe that each learning context is unique. Therefore, this program encourages you to construct your own methodology to promote better engagement in your course.

Overall Objectives of the Program

We aim to encourage you to reflect upon your teaching and construct your own methodology to increase engagement in EFL courses. This program will present you with notions related to student engagement to help you construct your own engagement-based methodology within an interaction with other colleagues. Therefore, critical thinking and interaction are two key features of this program. At the end of the program, you will be able to:

- To define and classify notions and concepts influencing student engagement in EFL courses
- To reflect on teaching behaviours influencing student engagement in EFL courses
- To construct an engagement-based methodology that fits best to the current setting of teaching
- To design and implement engagement-based instruction in EFL courses

Participation and time commitment

The program aims at achieving intended learning outcomes with optimum effort and time. All discussions, course activities and tasks will be delivered asynchronously, which means you will have the opportunity to access the program, contents, and materials at any time until the due dates of modules. You must complete the tasks before the due dates for the modules. Each module will include video presentations (5-10 minutes) related to student engagement. For each video, you will write comments on the blog page answering the questions related to the notions that we will introduce. The questions will be open-ended, and the purpose is to let you discuss your perceptions and views with other participants. Therefore, you will be requested to respond to at least one of your peers' comments on the blog page.

This program will provide you with opportunities to interact with your colleagues systematically with a focus on particular topics. We believe you will bring unique perspectives, key information, and invaluable experience to share with your colleagues.

Program Length

The program is designated to be completed in 9 weeks. There are six modules in the program, and each module includes sessions that introduce notions concerning student engagement. Completing all modules requires 45 hours of work for nine weeks, including the virtual focus group discussions, tasks, course plans, and reflective practice. When all modules are completed, you will get involved in reflective practice in which

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you will implement what you have learned from the program and reflect upon your implementations for two weeks.

Materials
- Google Blogger Web Page
- Microsoft Teams
- Video Presentations
- Reflective Reports
- Individual and Collaborative Instructional Design Practices
- Suggested Readings

Assessment Criteria

The program is designed based on constructivist and social learning. Therefore, it utilises continuous assessment rather than formal exams or tests. At the end of the program, you will be evaluated based on the completion of the tasks. To get a program certificate, participants must satisfactorily complete the tasks below:
- Create discussions for the sessions
- Respond to discussions in sessions
- Complete module tasks
  - Self-Observation
  - Getting Feedback from Learners
  - Individual and Group Instructional Planning
  - Writing reflective reports
  - Drawing concept maps
- Complete end-of-module reflective reports
- Implementation and reflection practice

Blog discussions and tasks do not aim to measure your knowledge or competency. The program does not intend to evaluate the quality of your teaching, your self-efficacy, or your students' engagement level. The focus is on your perceptions, feelings and ideas. Therefore, the content or the quality of the tasks and your posts will not be evaluated.

Communication

The program is asynchronous, but you will have the opportunity to contact the program administrator at any time via the help desk form on the right bar, mail or phone. Your messages will be replied to in 24 hours. At the end of each module, you will get a wrap-up mail that summarises the major points in your discussions and offers you further suggestions concerning the topics covered in the module.

Extensions

The extent of the modules and time required to complete the tasks and contents are determined considering the need assessment interviews we conducted before the program. In order to get the optimum benefit from this program, you are expected to complete all tasks in time. However, if life emergencies arise, please notify me as soon as possible. We might figure out a plan for life emergencies.

Gökhan HINIZ

PACING, CONTENTS, OUTCOMES AND TASKS

Module 1: Introduction & Teacher Actions Influencing Student Engagement

Module	Contents	Outcomes	Tasks
Available 08.02.2021 - **Due** 21.02.2021 **Length** 2 Weeks 4-5 hours of involvement	**Session 1: Defining Student Engagement** **Session 2: ARPIM Framework** **Session 3: Teacher Actions Influencing Student Engagement & Verbal Actions: Teacher Talk** -Quality and Amount of Teacher Talk **Session 4: Teacher Questions** **Session 5: Teacher Instructions** Passive, Active, Constructive, Interactive Instructions **Session 6: Nonverbal Actions** -Kinetics: gestures, facial expressions, posture, and body language -Proxemics: the use of personal space **Optional Session:** An Example of poor use of teacher actions	-To define and classify verbal and nonverbal teaching behaviours influencing student engagement -To reflect on your strengths and areas to improve concerning the use and understanding of verbal and nonverbal behaviours in EFL courses -To construct an "action style" which fits best in different situations in your current setting	-Watch the module videos. Respond to reflective questions on teacher talk, body language, and voice control by posting a discussion in the comments section. -Read your peers' posts and share your opinions with them. -Watch the recording of one of the lessons you taught last semester and write reflections about it concerning your verbal and nonverbal actions as they are defined in this module. -Complete the end-of-module reflective report.

Module 2: Teacher Responses Influencing Student Engagement

Module	Contents	Outcomes	Tasks
Available 22.02.2021 - **Due** 28.02.2021 **Length** 1 Week 2-3 hours of involvement	**Session 1: Responses to Learners: Feedback** -Feedback -Praising **Session 2: Responding to misbehaviour** -Responding to misbehaviours and boredom **Optional Session:** The Power of Positive Feedback	-To define and classify teacher responses influencing student engagement -To reflect on your strengths and areas to improve concerning your responses to learners in EFL courses -To construct "response strategies" which fit best in different situations in your current teaching setting	-Watch the module videos. -Respond to reflective questions on feedback, responding to misbehaviour, responding to boredom, and praising by posting a discussion in the comments section. -Read your peers' posts and share your opinions with them. -Complete the end-of-module reflective report.

Module 3: Pedagogical Tools Influencing Student Engagement

Module	Contents	Outcomes	Tasks
Available 01.03.2021 - **Due** 14.03.2021 **Length** 2 Weeks 5-6 hours of involvement	**Pedagogical Tools Session 1: Course Materials** **Session 2: Homework Assignments** **Session 3: Projects and Tasks** **Session 4: Technology** **Session 5: Testing and Assessment** **Optional Session:** Should We Get Rid of Standardised Tests?	-To define and classify "pedagogical tools" influencing student engagement -To reflect on your strengths and areas to improve concerning pedagogical tools you use in EFL courses -To construct strategies for the effective use of "pedagogical tools" which fit best in different situations in your current setting	-Watch the module videos. -Create discussions. -Read your peers' posts and share your opinions with them. -Create an engaging assignment. -Learn the use of new technology from peers. -Complete the end-of-module reflective report.

Module 4: Engagement-based Instructional Design

Module	Contents	Outcomes	Tasks
Available 15.03.2021 - **Due** 21.03.2021 **Length** 2 Weeks 4-5 hours of involvement	**Session 1: Engagement-based Instruction** **Session 2: ICAP framework of Student Engagement** -Active Learning -Interactive Learning -Constructive Learning -Passive Learning **Optional Session:** Cognitive Load Theory	-To define and classify different modes of cognitive engagement -To explore assumptions of the ICAP framework -To reflect on your strengths and areas to improve concerning the instructional design you use in EFL courses to get learners engaged with learning -To construct an engagement-based instructional design that fits best in different situations in your current setting	-Watch the module videos. -Respond to reflective questions on teacher prompts. -Read your peers' posts and share your opinions with them. -Find and share at least one resource (articles, web page, technology, video etc.) on instructional design to increase student engagement. -Prepare an engagement-course plan video, implement it and write your reflections. -Complete the end-of-module reflective report.

Module 5: Constructing A Motivation Style to Increase Student Engagement

Module	Contents	Outcomes	Tasks
Available 22.03.2021 - **Due** 28.03.2021 **Length** 1 Week 5-6 hours of involvement	**Session 1: Theories of Motivation** -Motivation Theories: Self-efficacy, Self-Worth, Attributions Theories **Session 2: Building Rapport** -Student-Teacher-Relationship **Session 3: Promoting Growth Mindset** -Promoting Growth Mindset - Power of Grit **Optional Session:** Social Learning	-To define and classify motivation theories and strategies influencing student engagement -To reflect on your strengths and areas to improve concerning motivation strategies you use in EFL courses to get learners engaged with learning -To construct a motivation strategy that fits best in different situations in your current setting	-Watch the module videos. -Respond to reflective questions on teacher prompts by posting a discussion in the comments section. -Read your peers' posts and share your opinions with them. -Conduct a classroom survey to investigate your learners' needs, interests, and perceptions of learning. -Complete the end-of-module reflective report.

Reflective Practice

Module	Contents	Outcomes	Tasks
Dates: **Preparation: 29 March-4 April** **Reflective Practice 1: 5-10 April 2021** **Reflective Practice 1: 12-18 April: 2021** **Length:** **2 Week** 10 hours of involvement	**Reflective Teaching Practice**	-To reflect on your strengths and areas to improve concerning student engagement in your courses -To construct an engagement-based methodology that fits best in different situations in your current setting	-Prepare an instructional design plan with colleagues -Keep weekly reflective reports

APPENDIX 2

SAMPLE COMMENTS ON INSTRUCTIONAL DESIGN PLANS

[21.03 12:06] The Researchers' feedback.

The plan includes constructive and interactive tasks, which I believe make your lessons engaging for learners.

Using real pictures of learners is excellent. Thus, they can relate the subject matter to their lives. We can benefit from pictures of learners in many different activities.

You changed the instruction and will have learners describe their dream school. It makes the activity constructive because learners create new knowledge or understanding using the target language. Then you get them to talk with peers; it makes the activity interactive.

Publishing writing creates a sense of authenticity, and this is actually the primary purpose of writing. When we write, we always write for an audience (except diaries). It makes writing more authentic, and learners will take the task more seriously.

You said you might add some other activities according to the flow of the lesson. Having a plan makes our lessons more organised. Still, there must be some room for improvisation, which makes the lesson more authentic for learners.

Thank you very much for the ideas you shared with us.

[20.03 18:16] Participant

That picture activity about happiness is a great idea; I will find a way to use it in my classes. (cool)


[21.03 16:31] Participant

I like the idea of giving the writing part as homework. I was also thinking the same, but I liked your idea: Think about our country and try to give some tips to survive when a foreigner is invited for dinner. I am going to use this idea this week. Thank you, hocam 😊

[21.03 16:57] Participant

Hocam, I really liked the activity about happiness (smile). Instead of any picture from the internet, presenting your own photos about your family and your personal life will be more interesting and motivating for your learners because they are generally curious about it. Also, you will be a model for them, and they will feel comfortable sharing their photos with you and their peers, and while presenting them, they will be engaged. As *** hocam has written in her comment, I will also try to use it in my classes in an appropriate context. 😊

APPENDIX 3
SAMPLE CONCEPT MAP

APPENDIX 4
SAMPLE AFGD

Write a post in the comments section to start a discussion by answering the following questions. There are no right or wrong answers to the questions. Reflect your thoughts, perceptions and experiences in your comments. Then, respond to at least one of the comments your colleagues have posted. Please make sure your comment includes answers to all the questions.

1. How do you respond to learners' errors (oral and written)?

2. What are some strategies you use to provide feedback to learners?

3. How can we benefit from feedback to increase student engagement?

26 February 2021 at 21:47

I'm not that much into instant correction. Actually, the way I correct student errors depends on many factors and variables. The 'severity' of the error, the context, the lesson and even the personality of the student should be taken into consideration while doing corrections.

Grammar and Writing, for instance, are based on accuracy, so I tend to correct more in these lessons. After each quiz or exam, I note down common errors and I write them on the board the following lesson and ask the whole class to identify the error and correct it. This is anonymous correction, and I try not to single out any student. During the writing process, for the first draft of a paragraph and an essay, I focus on linguistic and mechanic errors such clause structure, sentence structure, tense agreement, subject-verb agreement, punctuation, capitalization and spelling. For the following drafts, my main focus is on the organization and the content.
However, if we are conducting a fluency-based activity, I avoid interrupting the flow. I usually don't fix it if the mistake is not too serious or does not interfere with communication.
When I feel compelled to correct an error, I usually use repetitions, recasts and elicitations. I often observe that some of our students feel humiliated by recasts and it's mostly because of the reaction of the classmates. Sometimes, when a student makes a mistake, the class reacts in a negative way by laughing or making fun of it. In such a case, the first thing I do is to warn the class not to laugh and remind them that making mistakes is in the nature of learning.

28 February 2021 at 14:50

"Sometimes, when a student makes a mistake, the class reacts in a negative way by laughing or making fun of it. In such a case, the first thing I do is to warn the class not to laugh and remind them that making mistakes is in the nature of learning." That is a very common problem in most classes I think. Students just realize others' mistakes and make fun of them but do not recognize theirs just like everybody else. We usually need to remind them "making mistakes is in the nature of learning" 💛

DELETE

28 February 2021 at 16:49

I agree that error correction depends on " on many factors and variables." Sometimes students get too excited when speaking and they make mistakes they normally wouldn't. Sometimes it is not an error but a simple "slip", which students can easily correct themselves. I am also not a fan of an immediate correction. It is already hard to have our students talk, and if we keep interrupting and breaking their fluency to correct, it won't do anything good to their motivation to talk and use the language.

DELETE

REPLY   DELETE

. 26 February 2021 at 22:40

Effective feedback is positive feedback! When your attitude towards the students is mostly judgemental and overly critical, you cannot expect the students to benefit from the learning experience. If you are that 'toxic' teacher who is constantly ragging on students, pointing out their weaknesses and looking on what is wrong before what is right, the students will not even want to attend your classes. Therefore, my feedback motto is 'start from the good, slowly move towards the less good' 😊

APPENDIX 5

END-OF-MODULE REFLECTIVE REPORTS

Module 1.

Dear participant,
Please, answer the following questions in relation to your ideas and views about module 1.

1. What areas do you feel you are strong in and need improvement considering effective teacher talk, questions, instructions and nonverbal language during learning events?
2. What would be some classroom implementations that you can transfer from what you have learnt from this module?
3. What are the things you found useful in this module? What are the effective characteristics of the module?
4. What are the things you did not find useful?
5. How would it be more effective?

Module 2.
Dear participant,
Please, answer the following questions in relation to your ideas and views about module 2.

1. What areas do you feel you are strong in and need improvement considering your responses to learners during learning events?
2. What would be some classroom implementations you can transfer from what you have learnt from this module?
3. What are the things you found useful in this module? What are the effective characteristics of the module?
4. What are the things you did not find useful?
5. How would it be more effective?

Module 3

Dear participant,
Please, answer the following questions in relation to your ideas and views about module 3.

1. What areas do you feel you are strong in and need improvement considering your use of pedagogical tools?
2. What would be some classroom and curriculum implementations you can transfer from what you have learnt from this module?
3. What are the things you found useful in this module? What are the effective characteristics of the module?
4. What are the things you did not find useful?
5. How would it be more effective

Module 4

Dear participant,

Please, answer the following questions in relation to your ideas and views about module 4.

Module Questions:
1. What are the things you found useful in this module?
2. What are the things you did not find useful?
3. How would this module be more effective?

Video Instructional Design Plan Activity
1. How did you feel when you implemented your weekly plan?
2. How were your students' reactions?
3. Did it increase students' engagement?
    a. If yes, how? If no, why? Please explain your reasons.
4. Did you achieve the outcomes of the week? Did students learn what you intended to teach?
5. What would you change if you taught the same lessons again?
6. In what ways did the **video instructional design plan** activity contribute to your professional development?

Module 5

Dear participant,

Please, answer the following questions in relation to your ideas and views about module 5.

Module Questions:
1. What areas do you feel you are strong in and need improvement regarding your motivation style as an EFL teacher?
2. How can you relate what you have learnt from this module to your teaching?
3. What are the things you found useful in this module?
4. What are the things you did not find useful?
5. How would it be more effective?

Student Survey Results
Dear participant, please answer the following questions considering the student survey you conducted in this module.
1. What things did you learn about your teaching?
2. What things did you learn about your learners?
3. How can you relate what you have learnt from the survey to your teaching?

APPENDIX 6

END-OF-PROGRAM REFLECTIVE REPORT

(After collaborative instructional design implementation)

PART 1
Please complete the weekly reflective report of the instructional design plan you implemented, considering the following components.

Actions
Please write your reflections about the verbal and nonverbal actions you used this week (teacher talk, questions, instructions). How did you implement your plan? What were the students' reactions?

Responses
Please write your reflections about the responses you used this week (feedback, praising, responding to lack of participation and disengagement). How did you implement your plan? What were the students' reactions?

Pedagogical Tools
Please write your reflections about the pedagogical tools you used this week (course materials, homework assignments, projects and tasks, testing and assessment, technology). How did you implement your plan? What were the students' reactions?

Instructional Design
Please write your reflections about the instructional design you used this week (active, constructive, interactive learning activities, engagement based-instruction and so on). How did you implement your plan? What were the students' reactions?

Motivation
Please write your reflections about the motivation strategies you used this week (increasing self-efficacy, self-worth, autonomy, building rapport, and promoting growth mindset).

PART 2
Instructional Design
1. How did you feel when you implemented your weekly plan?
2. How were your students' reactions?
3. Did it increase students' engagement?
   a. If yes, how? If no, why? Please explain your reasons.
4. Did you achieve the outcomes of the week? Did students learn what you intended to teach?
5. What would you change if you taught the same lessons again?
6. In what ways did collaborative instructional design activity contribute to your professional development?

VIDEO-BASED SELF-REFLECTION REPORT

Module 1 Reflective Practice
Watch one of the online lessons you gave this semester and write reflections about the following areas.

PART 1. REFLECT UPON THE <u>QUESTIONS</u>.

a) Note the questions you used in the lesson. Categorise them as "display" (yes-no) and "referential" questions. You do not have to write all the questions. Write some examples and reflect upon what kind of questions you have used and the reasons for it.

Display (Close-Ended) Questions	Referential (Open-ended) Question

b) How did you get answers from learners? (i.e., one by one orally, written in the chatbox, etc.)
c) Did you give learners adequate time to get the answers from them? Did you wait patiently to get the answers?
d) Did you ask deep questions which require the construction of new knowledge?

PART 2. REFLECT UPON THE <u>INSTRUCTIONS</u>.

Categorise the instructions you used as passive, active, constructive, and interactive.

Passive	Active	Constructive	Interactive

Teacher Talk

a) Write your reflections about the quality and quantity of your "talk" during the lesson.

b) How often did you use echoing (repeat what students have said)? Did you use echoing for a purpose?

What are your overall reflections about the lesson in terms of your verbal and nonverbal actions (as defined in the ARPIM framework)? What would you change if you taught this lesson again?

APPENDIX 8

EXPERT REVIEWS OF INTERVIEWS

Semi-Structured Interview 1 – Need Assessment Interview

Online Face-to-Face Semi-Structured Instructor Interview 1

Part 1: Professional Development

1. Do you have any questions regarding the informed consent form and background information you have sent?

2. Why do you want to participate in this program?

3. What kind of professional development activities have you been involved so far?

> **Author**
> This question assumes that the participant has already been involved in PDs. Consider revision to avoid presupposition.

Do you do anything for your professional development (PD)?
   a. If yes, what do you do for PD?
   b. If no, why?

4. What are your strengths as a teacher?

5. Are there any areas that you think you need to improve?
   a. If yes, how do you think you can improve these areas?
   b. If no, how did you excel at teaching?

6. Have you ever done any reflection upon your teaching such as observing your own class, getting feedback from students, peer observation, keeping a reflective diary and so on?
   a. If yes, did you find it useful? Did it change anything in your teaching?
   b. If not, do you consider getting involved in reflective teaching? What would be your preference for reflection?

7. What are you plans for you PD?

Do you have any plans for your PD in the future?
   If yes, please give details about it?

> **Author**
> Same problem with the 3rd question. Avoid presupposition and leading questions.

8. Have you ever participated an online Professional development? Do you perceive online professional development (OPD) programs as effective ways of PD?
   a. If yes, what are the characteristics of an effective OPD? Why are they effective?
   b. If not, what are the characteristics that you find ineffective? Why are they ineffective? What would be done to make them effective?

Part 2: Student Engagement

1. How do you define an engaged learner?
   a. How do you understand he/she is engaged?
   b. What are the indicators of student engagement?

2. Are your students generally engaged during your lessons?
   a. If yes, what are the ways that you employ to make students engaged?
   b. If not, what are the underlying reasons for students' disengagement?
   c. What does "being engaged" mean to you?

> **Author**
> This is similar to question 1 in this section.

3. What are the major teacher skills and behaviours responsible for student engagement?

4. What practices can be used in order to promote student engagement at tertiary EFL courses?

5. What contents can be used in order to maximize student engagement at tertiary EFL courses?

6. What are the factors that cause student disengagement?

7. What kind of contents can would be included in an asynchronous in-service training module to promote student engagement in EFL courses?

8. Is there anything else that you would like to add concerning student engagement in EFL courses?

> **Author**
> Start the question with "in order to promote student engagement at tertiary EFL courses" so that the participant will focus on it. Instead of the model "can" prefer "would" to avoid biased answers. Consider the same revision for the 5th item.

Interview 2 – End-of-Program Interview

Semi-Structured Instructor Interview 2 (After Program Implementation)

1. In what ways did the program impact your perceptions and views concerning your verbal and non-verbal actions during the learning events? How do verbal and non-verbal teacher actions impact student engagement?

2. In what ways did the program impact your perceptions and views concerning your responses to learners, such as feedback, praising and responding to misbehaviours?

3. In what ways did the program impact your perceptions and views of the use of pedagogical tools such as course materials, technology and assessment? How does teachers' use of pedagogical tools impact student engagement?

4. In what ways did the program impact your perceptions and views concerning the motivation strategies you use during the learning events? How do teachers' motivation styles impact student engagement?

5. In what ways did the program impact your perceptions and views concerning the instructional design you use during the learning events? How does teachers' instructional design impact student engagement?

6. In what ways did the program impact your perceptions and views of yourself as a teacher?

7. In what ways did the program impact your perceptions and views of teaching and learning and student engagement?

8. In what ways did the program impact your perceptions and views of professional development?

9. In what ways did the program contribute to your professional development (PD)?

    a. Did you make (if it is finished or not) / have you made (if something experienced) any changes in your approach to teaching? Explain your reasons.

    b. Did you apply what you have learnt from this program in your courses?

      -If yes, why and how did you apply what you have learned? How were your students' reactions?

      -If no, please explain your reasons?

10. How did the program impact your views and perceptions concerning online professional development?

11. What were the characteristics/strength or most liked parts of the program?

12. What were the weaknesses or least like parts of the program?

    a. What could be added to the program to make it more operative?

13. What are your perceptions and views about your peers who participated in this program? How do you define your group? How do you perceive your relationship with other participants?

13. Would you like to participate in similar OPDs in the future?

    If yes, please explain your reasons.

    If no, please explain your reasons.

14. Is there anything else you would like to add about the OPD program and student engagement that I have not addressed in my questions?

Author
The Word "impact" expresses a presupposition that their perceptions and views had been already impacted. Avoid presuppositions.

Consider revision of questions similar items: 1,2,3,4,5.

Author
Consider revision to avoid presupposition. For instance: How do you consider yourself as a teacher with respect to change about your perceptions and views after the implementation of this program?

Author
You can change the number of this question with question 6. It fits to the group of questions related to student engagement.

Author
Question 8 and 10 are similar. You can merge them.

Author

Author
Similar to question 8.

APPENDIX 9

PRE-INTERVENTION INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

(INTERVIEW 1)

Pre-Interview Survey Form

Hello Dear Colleague,

Thank you very much for accepting to participate in this study. In order to understand your views and perceptions about professional development and student engagement in EFL classrooms, we will conduct needs assessment interviews with you.

This online survey form aims to learn about your personal information before the face-to-face online interviews. We also aim to learn your ideas and views about the program syllabus draft. Thus, we will be able to design the online professional development program according to your interests and needs.

We do not intend to test your knowledge or teaching competencies. Our purpose is to understand your views and perceptions about professional development and student engagement in EFL classrooms. There are no right or wrong answers to the questions. Therefore, please reflect your ideas, views, perceptions, current and previous teaching experiences in your responses to survey questions.

In this form, we will also ask you to write the available date and hour for the online interviews that we will conduct on Microsoft Teams. The interview will take around 60 minutes.

1. Name:
2. Gender:
3. Date of birth:
4. High School (School Name, Graduation Year):
5. University (Department, Graduation Year):
6. Master's degree (completed or in progress) (Department, Graduation Year):
7. PhD Degree (completed or in progress) (Department, Graduation Year):
8. How long have you been teaching English?
9. How long have you been working in your current workplace?
10. How many hours do you teach a week?
11. What course levels are you currently teaching?
12. How many classes do you teach?
13. How many students do you teach?
14. Do you have any teaching certificates (For instance, TESOL, CELTA)? If yes, please write the name of the certificate and the date of it.
15. How much time can you share for the program participation and tasks you are required to fulfil weekly? _____ minutes for a week. Please explain your reasons.
16. What would be your preferred frequency of program modules? (For instance, twice a week, every week, every two weeks etc.) Please explain your reasons.
17. What would be your preferred due time for the delivery module tasks? (For instance, in the morning, in the afternoon, in the evening, at night, on Mondays, Sundays etc.) _____. Please explain your reasons.
18. Please check the attached course syllabus draft and answer the following questions based on the contents of the syllabus draft.
    a. Which contents address your current professional development needs concerning student engagement? Explain your reasons.
    b. Do you find any of the contents redundant? If yes, please explain your reasons.
    c. What are the contents you feel most confident and competent in? Please explain your reasons.
    d. What other contents would be included in this asynchronous OPD on student engagement in EFL courses?
    e. What kind of activities would be included in this asynchronous OPD?

Online Face-to-Face Semi-Structured Instructor Interview 1

1. Do you have any questions regarding the informed consent form and background information you have sent?

2. Why do you want to participate in this program?

3. Do you do anything for your professional development (PD)?

      a. If yes, what kind of PDs do you prefer to get involved in?

          Can you please tell me about your experience with previous PDs?

              1. What kind of PDs did you participate in? Will you please give details such as the content, length, and delivery of the PD?

              2. What kind of PDs did you find the most useful?

              3. Did you transfer anything from the PDs into your classroom practices?

      b. If no, will you please explain the reasons for not getting involved in PD?

3. Are there any constraints preventing you from getting involved in PDs?

4. What are your strengths as a teacher?

5. Are there any areas that you think you need to improve?

      a. If yes, how do you think you can improve these areas?

      b. If no, please explain how did you excel in teaching?

6. Have you ever done any reflection upon your teaching, such as observing your own class, getting feedback from students, peer observation, keeping a reflective diary and so on?

      a. If yes, did you find it useful? Did it change anything in your teaching?

      b. If not, do you consider getting involved in reflective teaching? What would be your preference for reflection?

7. Do you have any plans for your PD in the future?

    If yes, please give details about it?

8. Have you ever participated in online professional development? Do you perceive online professional development (OPD) programs as effective ways of PD?

      a. If yes, what are the characteristics of an effective OPD? Why are they effective?

      b. If not, what are the characteristics that you find ineffective? Why are they ineffective? What would be done to make them effective?

Student Engagement

1. How do you define an engaged learner?

    a. How do you understand he/she is engaged?

    b. What are the indicators of student engagement?

2. Are your students generally engaged during your lessons?

      a. If yes, what are the ways that you employ to make learners engaged?

      b. If not, what are the underlying reasons for students' disengagement?

3. What are the major teacher skills and behaviours responsible for student engagement?

4. In order to maximise student engagement at tertiary EFL courses, what practices would be used?

5. In order to maximise student engagement at tertiary EFL courses, what contents would be used?

6. What are the factors that cause student disengagement?

7. What contents would be included in an asynchronous online professional program to promote student engagement in EFL courses?

8. Is there anything else you would like to add concerning student engagement in EFL courses?

APPENDIX 10

END-OF-PROGRAM INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

(INTERVIEW 2)

Hello Dear Colleague,

We will conduct the end-of-program interview. The interview questions do not intend to test your knowledge or teaching skills. It aims to understand your perceptions and views about the research problems I address in my study. There are no right or wrong answers to the questions. Therefore, please reflect on your ideas, views, perceptions, and current and previous teaching experiences in your responses to interview questions.

The interview takes around 70-90 minutes, and it is going to be recorded. We can have a break if you feel tired during the interviews. Please let me know when you feel tired or need to have a break.

There are main questions and sub-questions in the interview under the main questions. Sub-questions will vary based on your answers to the main questions.

Do you have any questions before we start the interview?

1. How would you describe the influence of this program on your perceptions and views concerning teaching behaviours and preferences influencing student engagement?

Possible Probes:

a. Did the program impact your perceptions and views concerning your verbal and nonverbal actions during the learning events?
- If yes, in what ways did the program impact your perceptions and views concerning your verbal and nonverbal actions during the learning events?
- If no, please explain the reasons.

b. Did the program impact your perceptions and views concerning your responses to learners, such as feedback, praising and responding to misbehaviours?
- If yes, in what ways did the program impact your perceptions and views concerning your responses to learners, such as feedback, praising and responding to misbehaviours?
- If no, please explain the reasons.

c. Did the program impact your perceptions and views of the use of pedagogical tools such as course materials, tasks, assignments, technology and assessment?
- If yes, in what ways did the program impact your perceptions and views of the use of pedagogical tools such as course materials, technology, assignments, tasks and assessment?
- If no, please explain the reasons.

d. Did the program impact your perceptions and views concerning your motivation style as a teacher?
- If yes, in what ways did the program impact your perceptions and views concerning your motivation style as a teacher?
- If no, please explain the reasons.

e. Did the program impact your perceptions and views concerning the instructional design you use during the learning events?
- If yes, in what ways did the program impact your perceptions and views concerning the instructional design you use during the learning events?
- If no, please explain the reasons.

f. Did the program impact your perceptions and views of teaching, learning and student engagement?
- If yes, in what ways did the program impact your perceptions and views of teaching, learning and student engagement?
- If no, please explain the reasons.

g. Did the program impact your perceptions and views of yourself as a teacher?
- If yes, in what ways did the program impact your perceptions and views of yourself as a teacher?
- If no, how do you perceive yourself as a teacher?

2. How would you consider the effectiveness of this program in promoting your professional development?
    a. Did you make any changes in your approach to teaching? Explain your reasons.
    b. Did you apply what you have learnt from this program in your courses?
    -If yes, why and how did you apply what you have learned? How were your students' reactions?
    -If no, please explain your reasons?

3. How did the program impact your views and perceptions concerning online professional development?

4. What were the strengths **or** most-liked parts of the program?

5. What were the weaknesses **or** least-liked parts of the program?
    a. What could be added to the program to make it more effective?

6. What are your perceptions and views about your peers who participated in this program? How do you define your group? How do you perceive your relationship with other participants?

7. Would you like to participate in similar OPDs in the future?
    a. If yes, please explain your reasons.
    b. If no, please explain your reasons.

8. Is there anything else you would like to add about the OPD program and student engagement that I have not addressed in my questions?

APPENDIX 11
ETHICS COMMITTEE APPROVAL

T.C.
ÇANAKKALE ONSEKİZ MART ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Lisansüstü Eğitim Enstitüsü

Sayı : E-84026528-050.01.04-2100009121   21.01.2021
Konu : Başvuru İncelenmesi

Sayın Öğr. Gör. Gökhan HINIZ

Yürütücülüğünüzü yapmış olduğunuz 2020-YÖNP-0155 nolu projeniz ile ilgili olarak Bilimsel Araştırmalar Etik Kurulu'nun almış olduğu 19/01/2021 tarih ve 02/29 sayılı kararı aşağıdadır.

Bilgilerinize rica ederim.

KARAR:29- Öğr. Gör. Gökhan HINIZ'ın sorumlu yürütücülüğünü yaptığı "Design and Implementation of an Online Professional Development Program Concerning Teacher Behaviours Influencing Student Engagement in EFL Courses" başlıklı araştırmasının, Bilimsel Araştırmalar Etik Kurul ilkelerine **uygun olduğuna** oy birliği ile karar verilmiştir.

Prof. Dr. Salih Zeki GENÇ
Kurul Başkanı

APPENDIX 12

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Dear Participant

We invite you to participate in the doctoral dissertation research project titled "Design and Implementation of an Online Professional Development Program Concerning Teacher Behaviours Influencing Student Engagement in EFL Courses", conducted under the supervision of Prof. Dr Aysun Yavuz. This study involves designing, implementing, and evaluating an online professional development program for EFL teachers/instructors. You are invited to participate in this program, requiring you to allocate approximately 30 hours for ten weeks. An estimated nine people will participate in the study, apart from you.

What is the Purpose of the Study?

The purpose of this study is twofold. First, it aims to contribute to your professional development in promoting student engagement in your courses. Second, it intends to investigate your perceptions, views, beliefs and classroom implementations about student engagement and related variables such as teacher talk, feedback, methodology, motivation etc. To this end, we will design, implement and evaluate an online professional development program (OPD) for EFL (English as a Foreign Language) instructors who want to support and improve young adult learners' engagement in EFL courses.

How Do We Ask You to Help Us?

Before the program implementation, we will conduct semi-structured interviews with you to investigate your professional development needs and interests concerning student engagement in EFL courses. Thus, we will design the program's contents, scope, and length based on your needs, expectations, and interests.

The program will be delivered on a close blog page that includes asynchronous modules introducing concepts related to student engagement. It aims at achieving the intended learning outcomes with optimum effort and time. All discussions, course activities and tasks will be delivered asynchronously, which means you will have the opportunity to access the program, contents, and materials at any time until the due dates of modules. You must complete the tasks before the due dates for the modules. Each module will consist of sessions that include video presentations (3-6 minutes) related to student engagement. For each session, you will write comments on the blog page answering questions related to the notions we will introduce. The session questions will be open-ended, and the purpose is to let you discuss your perceptions and views with other participants. Therefore, you will be required to respond to at least one of your peers' comments on the blog page.

The program has been designed based on constructivist and social-constructivist theories. It does not intend to offer a set of rules, "best" practices or activities for teaching English because we believe that each learning context is unique. Therefore, this program encourages you to construct your own methodology to promote better engagement in your course.

At the end of the program, we will conduct semi-structured interviews and/or focus group interviews to evaluate the merit and worth of the program and understand your ideas, views and perceptions concerning different teaching behaviours influencing student engagement.

Interview and module discussion questions do not intend to test your knowledge or teaching skills. The purpose is to understand your perceptions and views about the research problems that this study addresses. There will be no right or wrong answers to the questions.

Your responses to interview questions, your posts on online discussions, reflective reports you have filled in, end-of-module surveys you completed, and concept maps you created will be used as data sources in this study.

What you need to know about your participation:

Participation in this study is entirely voluntary. You can refuse to participate in the study or withdraw at any time without any penalties. If there are questions that you do not want to answer during the research, you can leave them blank.

Data collected from research participants will be anonymous and kept strictly confidential. Your names will not be stored with data, and any information that can reveal the identity of the participants will be kept secret. Only researchers will be able to access the collected data. While analysing and reporting the data gathered from participants, pseudo names will be used. Semi-structured interviews will be conducted on Microsoft Teams and recorded in video and audio. The recordings will be saved on the researcher's computer and deleted from Microsoft Teams and Stream.

The results of this research will be used in scientific and professional publications or for educational purposes, but the identity of the participants will be kept confidential.

If you complete all the requirements of the professional development program, you will receive a certificate. Participants who do not complete more than 20% of the relevant training tasks will not receive the participation certificate.

If you need more information about the research, you can reach the researcher through the channels below.
Name, Surname:
Institution:
Tel:
Email:

I have read the above information fully and voluntarily agree to participate in this study.

Name, Surname   Date   Signature

---/----/----

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APPENDIX 13

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Jun 05, 2022

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APPENDIX 14

SAMPLE OF CANDIDATE THEMES TABLE