

JYU DISSERTATIONS 147

Crystal Green

Professional Learning of English Language Teacher Educators in Finland and Japan



UNIVERSITY OF JYVÄSKYLÄ
FACULTY OF EDUCATION AND
PSYCHOLOGY

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Esitetään Jyväskylän yliopiston kasvatustieteiden ja psykologian tiedekunnan suostumuksella
julkisesti tarkastettavaksi yliopiston vanhassa juhlasalissa S212
marraskuun 15. päivänä 2019 kello 12.

Academic dissertation to be publicly discussed, by permission of
the Faculty of Education and Psychology of the University of Jyväskylä,
in building Seminarium, auditorium S212, on November 15, 2019 at 12 o'clock noon.



JYVÄSKYLÄN YLIOPISTO
UNIVERSITY OF JYVÄSKYLÄ

JYVÄSKYLÄ 2019

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Cover photos by Thomas Drouault and Michał Parzuchowski.

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Permanent link to this publication: <http://urn.fi/URN:ISBN:978-951-39-7909-6>

ISBN 978-951-39-7909-6 (PDF)

URN:ISBN:978-951-39-7909-6

ISSN 2489-9003

ABSTRACT

Green, Crystal

Professional Learning of English Language Teacher Educators in Finland and Japan
Jyväskylä: University of Jyväskylä, 2019, 185 p.

(JYU Dissertations

ISSN 2489-9003; 147)

ISBN 978-951-39-7909-6 (PDF)

This dissertation investigates the professional learning of English language teacher educators (ELTEs) in Finland and Japan, with a focus on teacher educators' professional agency within their collegial communities. The purpose is to contribute to our understanding of the particular resources and obstacles to professional learning through a study of how language teacher educators exercise professional agency in developing their work. The aim is to gain a better sense of how ELTEs develop as professionals to meet the current challenges of English language teacher education, both individually and with colleagues.

The study is founded on interviews with eight English language teacher educators at two universities in Finland and sixteen English language teacher educators at eleven universities in Japan. The data were analyzed using thematic analysis in relation to professional learning, its resources and constraints, and the enactment of professional agency at work. Further, a comparative thematic analysis was conducted to compare the findings between the two contexts.

Findings showed that in Finland, ELTEs' professional learning is understood as a social endeavor practiced at its best with shared inquiry, while in Japan ELTEs professional learning is understood as an individualized endeavor of personal effort accrued over time. In each context, resources and constraints to professional learning were related to the respective interpretations of the value of collegial interaction for professional learning. The findings show that ELTEs in Finland readily interpret their work as agentic, both at the individual and collective level. In Japan, ELTEs practiced individual agency in refraining from exerting influence on others' professional practice, and while collective agency was rare, the ELTE's own leadership was central to its development. Findings from the comparative analysis indicate variations in the role of public dialogue in professional learning, and distinctions in the teacher educators' framings of agency, temporality and structure. Mindful to refrain from reifying Finnish or Japanese education, this dissertation elaborates similarities and differences in the shared discourses of professional learning and professional agency in both contexts. The dissertation concludes with suggestions for further research and practical implications for the development of language teacher education.

Keywords: professional learning, professional agency, collective agency, thematic analysis, sociocultural approach, L2 teacher education, comparative international education

ABSTRAKTI

Green, Crystal

Englannin kielen opettajakouluttajien ammatillinen oppiminen Suomessa ja Japanissa
Jyväskylä: Jyväskylän yliopisto, 2019, 185 s.

(JYU Dissertations

ISSN 2489-9003; 147)

ISBN 978-951-39-7909-6 (PDF)

Väitöskirjassa tutkitaan englannin kielen opettajakouluttajien ammatillista oppimista Suomessa (F-ELTE) ja Japanissa (J-ELTE). Väitöskirjassa keskitytään opettajankouluttajien ammatilliseen toimijuuteen kollegiaalisissa yhteisöissä. Väitöskirjan tarkoituksena on edistää tietämystä resursseista ja ammatillisen oppimisen esteistä tutkimalla, miten kieltenopettajien kouluttajat harjoittavat ammatillista toimijuutta työnsä kehittämisessä. Näin väitöskirjassa pyritään saamaan parempi käsitys siitä, miten ELTEt (English language teacher educators) kehittyvät ammattilaisiksi vastaamaan englannin kielen opettajankoulutuksen nykyisiin haasteisiin.

Tutkimus perustuu kahdeksan englannin kielen opettajankouluttajan haastatteluun kahdessa yliopistossa Suomessa ja 16 englannin kielen opettajankouluttajan haastatteluun 11 yliopistossa Japanissa. Tiedot analysoitiin käyttäen temaattista analyysiä, joka kohdistui ammatillisen oppimisen, sen resurssien ja rajoitusten sekä ammatillisen toimijuuden harjoittamiseen työssä. Lisäksi tehtiin vertaileva temaattinen analyysi kahden kontekstin tulosten vertailemiseksi.

Tutkimuksen tulokset osoittivat, että ammatillisten yhteisöjen toimintaan vaikuttavat englannin kielen opettajankouluttajien tulkinnat ammatillisesta oppimisesta ja toimijuudesta. Opettajankouluttajien keskusteluissa oli samoja tunnistettavia temaattisia elementtejä eri instituutioissa, samassa kansallisessa kontekstissa. Suomen kontekstissa ammatillisen oppimisen kuvataan sisältävän merkittäviä sosiaalisia ja dialogisia näkökohtia, kun Japanin kontekstista ammatillista oppimista kuvataan ensisijaisesti yksilön pyrkimyksenä.

Molemmissa konteksteissa, ammatillinen oppimisen resurssit ja rajoitukset liittyivät vastaaviin tulkintoihin kollegiaalisen vuorovaikutuksen arvosta ammatillisessa oppimisessa. Havainnot osoittavat, että Suomessa ELTEt tulkitsevat oman työnsä helposti toimijuudeksi sekä yksilöllisellä että kollektiivisella tasolla. Japanissa ELTEt harjoittavat yksilöllistä toimijuutta pidättäytymällä vaikuttamasta muiden ammatillisiin käytäntöihin, ja vaikka kollektiivisen toimijuuden kehittäminen oli rajallista, sitä ilmeni, kun J-ELTEt olivat itse johtotehtävissä. Vertailevan analyysin havainnot osoittavat erot julkisen vuoropuhelun roolista ammatillisessa oppimisessä sekä erot englannin kielen opettajakouluttajien toimijuuden kehyksissä, ajallisuudessa sekä rakenteessa. Esineellistämättä suomalaista tai japanilaista koulutusta, tämä väitöskirja osoitti yhtäläisyyksiä ja eroja ammatillisen oppimisen ja ammatillisen toimijuuden yhteisissä diskursseissa molemmissa yhteyksissä. Väitöskirja sisältää myös ehdotuksia jatkotutkimuksen tarpeesta sekä käytännön johtopäätöksiä kieltenopettajien koulutuksen kehittämisestä.

Avainsanat: ammatillinen oppiminen, ammatillinen toimijuus, kollektiivinen toimijuus, temaattinen analyysi, sosiokulttuurinen lähestymistapa, L2 opettajankoulutus, vertaileva kansainvälinen koulutus

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

When I was fifteen years old - a lifetime ago now - my dream of earning at PhD was birthed in an independent study foreign language class. Working swiftly and autonomously through the assigned material, I imagined that life as a burgeoning academic would be similar: quiet, studious and straightforward. The reality of my doctoral studies - pursued during the pregnancies, infancies and toddlerdom of our four beloved children - has only been accomplished with the generous and sustained support of many people and communities over many years. First and foremost, I wish to express my deepest gratitude to the three women who have sustained me in this PhD project: Professor Anneli Eteläpelto, Professor Aini-Kristiina Jäppinen, and Professor Elina Lehtomäki. It is unique in this world to have three female supervisors, all of whom are Professors, all mothers, all brilliant. It has been profoundly important to me to have these women as a continual inspiration, both personally and professionally, each having raised children and also attained the professoriate through their substantial scientific contributions. The years of my doctoral studies have been long, and these three women have encouraged and inspired me to persevere to the end.

I wish to express my deep appreciation for the support of the Faculty of Education, especially to Dean Anna-Maija Poikkeus, Head of Department Dr. Leena Halttunen, and research coordinator Dr. Satu Perälä-Littunen. As an international student, the welcoming professional environment was key to my sense of integration into the university, and that warm collegial atmosphere was continually expressed to me by our faculty and departmental leadership. In addition, I wish to express my gratitude for the openness of the Professors of the Department of Teacher Education, including Professor Riikka Alanen, Professor Marja-Kristiina Lerkkanen, Professor Jouni Viiri and Dr. Matti Kuorrelahti, as well as Professor Tapio Puolimatka. I wish also to give my warm thanks to Dr. Anneli Sarja, head of my follow-up group, who met with me during data collection in Japan and provided generous and valuable feedback on the dissertation manuscript. Many thanks also to Professor Jussi Välimaa for his encouragement and insight in the beginning stages of my research and to Dr. David Hoffman for his guidance and friendship. I am also grateful for the insightful comments of pre-reviewers Dr. Leena Kuure and Professor Shinji Matsuzawa.

I have benefited greatly from conversations with many of the former doctoral students of my supervisors, Dr. Päivi Hökkä, Dr. Katja Vähäsantanen, Dr. Sotiria Pappa and Dr. Mari-Anne Okkolin for their suggestions and excellent examples. I am also grateful to Dr. Josephine Moate and Dr. Kreeta Niemi for arranging the doctoral student group. I have been lucky to have wonderful officemates, whose presence and conversation was a light: Dr. Eija Sevón, Cheng-Yu Pan, Panu Forsman, Jukka Utriainen, Timo Salminen and Marjatta Pakkanen. I am thankful to have had an excellent doctoral seminar group from whom I learned much, Akie Yada, Takumi Yada, Aila Pikkarainen, Hoda Noroozi, Tuija

Ukskoski, Terttu Kovalainen, Anna-Maija Hakuni-Luoma, Jerker Polso, Jukka Virta and Dr. Tian Meng. I would also like to thank the teachers at the Language Center, especially Lisa Lahtela, Dr. Johanna Saario, Tuija Lehtonen, Dr. Heidi Vaarala, Henna Puhakka, Liliana Ledesma and Pauliina Takala. Many thanks are due also to Elisa Heimovaara and Dr. Kaija Collin and those who arranged the many administrative aspects of my work including former department secretary Mira Strömmer, Dr. Anja-Riitta Lehtinen, Paula Hassinen, Tiina Volanen, Arja Pääkkönen, Helena Koivunen-Klemmt, Dr. Virpi Bursiewicz and Salla Määttä. Thank you to the many professional colleagues Jyväskylä who have shared their engaging work with me, including David Marsh, Emilia Ahvenjärvi, Katja Vuori and Kati Poikonen of EduCluster, and Melissa Plath, Osku Haapasaari and Johanna Turunen at UniPID.

This research would not have been possible without the participants and I am immensely grateful to each interviewee for taking the time to share candid conversations with me about their work. My deep thanks to Dr. Marlen Elliot Harrison, whose encouragement and assistance was crucial in initiating the research and making contacts in Japan. I also wish to thank Tadashi Nigawara, who arranged travel and accommodation in Japan. I am deeply grateful for the generous funding of the Department of Education, the Faculty of Education and the Ellen and Artturi Nyysönen Foundation. I wish to also recognize the teachers and mentors whose strong support was instrumental in my academic journey: Dr. Katherine Utley, Martha Layton, Debbie Amigo, Professor Edmund Santurri, Professor Jeane DeLaney, Professor Tom Sauer, and Professor Fernando Reimers. I am very grateful to have as mentors my good friends, including Professor Vilma Luoma-Aho who encouraged me to drive my own car, and Professor Swanne Gordon, Dr. Leasa Weimer, Dr. Andres Lopez-Sepulcre, Dr. Charles Mathies, and Dr. Katarzyna Kärkkäinen, who convinced me that I had something to contribute. My gratitude especially to Professor Richard Desjardins who supported me as a Visiting Graduate Researcher at UCLA in the final months of submitting the dissertation, and to Loyola Marymount University, where I was able to find a quiet workspace close to home. I am forever grateful for the many dear friends and vibrant communities in Jyväskylä who have shared our lives and lighted our burdens.

I am most thankful to my parents for their love and devotion; to my mother Dr. Lisa Baer for teaching me the spirit of inquiry; to my father Thomas Baer for his unwavering belief in my potential; to my sister Betsy Baer for her example of true determination. My deepest thanks to my in-laws John Green and Beth Green whose love and sacrifice has sustained our growing family. I am profoundly grateful to those who cared for our children and home so I could write, especially Heini Laine, Lauren Hand, Jazmine Williams, Emilia Häkkinen, Haja Sesay and Gina Flowers, as well as the Nunnala, Myllytupa and Puistokatu daycare staff.

Finally, I have been blessed by the fervent and unending support of my husband, Weldon, whose love and encouragement sustained me through the long years of this PhD work. I dedicate this dissertation to our four children:

Sebastian Thomas, Alexandra Elizabeth, Leonidas John, and Rasmus Christopher.
You each are a joy and a light to the world. May you always follow your dreams,
even those dreamed in childhood. Thanks be to God.

Los Angeles, California 23.7.2019
Crystal Green

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1 INTRODUCTION

Globalization has intensified the need for communication between speakers of different languages throughout the world. English language proficiency has been promoted by industry as a necessary capacity for people entering the global workforce. Since the turn of the new millennium, there have been extensive reforms in English language education policy worldwide. Ministries of Education are placing greater emphasis on foreign language teaching, particularly English language teaching, at the primary and secondary school levels. These reforms have put greater pressure on English language teacher educators to prepare English language teachers. However, teacher-training institutions in most countries struggle to prepare teachers to meet growing demands (Madalińska-Michalak, Niemi, & Chong, 2012), with slow and contested responses to the language teacher for reform (Luke, 2004). Despite efforts and progress toward improving language teaching and language teacher training, globalization and multicultural interactions place additional demands on teachers to prepare students for an increasingly challenging and networked future. English language teacher educators play a key role in preparing teachers, and as such their own professional learning is vital to success in navigating the changing waters of current educational demands (Darling-Hammond, 2010).

However, little research has considered how English language teacher educators understand their own professional learning. Since the sociocultural turn in language teacher education (K. E. Johnson, 2006, 2009), a collaborative orientation has been proposed as benefiting professional learning. Johnson (2006) urges reframing language teacher professional learning to encompass both informal and formal social networks of professional life. When learning is understood as social, collaborative and cooperative teacher communities can be designed to foster professional growth in recognition of the importance of teacher participation and context.

While much research has investigated the nature of teacher learning communities in order to understand the interactional dynamics or the micro-political interactions that foster or impede teacher learning (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012; B. Johnson, 2003; Lipponen & Kumpulainen, 2011), less has been studied

about how discourse or cultures of social interaction influence how teacher educators interpret the development of their work. The success or failure of professional communities has been attributed in part to the psychological or personality traits of the particular individuals who may be present in the learning community (Parker, Patton, & Tannehill, 2012; Thessin, 2010; Vangrieken, Meredith, Packer, & Kyndt, 2017; Webb, Vulliamy, Sarja, Hämäläinen, & Poikonen, 2009). Yet beyond a consideration of individual psychological or adopted cultural traits as impacting learning, it may be that that teacher educators within a particular national context adopt and reproduce ways of talking about professional learning, which in turn may affect how teacher educators understand the possibilities for collegial interaction and peer learning within their professional communities (Gutiérrez & Rogoff, 2003). That is, the particular situated discursive repertoires available to teacher educators may vary by context.

The globalization of mass education has generated international interest in comparative education research as a means to explore various modalities of meeting the needs of diverse student populations. Among the nations whose educational practices have engendered international fascination are Finland and Japan. These two national contexts have been chosen for this study of English language teacher educators because empirical research has demonstrated educational practices that promote both autonomy and collegial interaction as forums for professional learning among teachers (Arani, Fukaya, & Lassegard, 2010; Webb et al., 2009). Further, teacher educators are chosen because it would seem that teacher educators would be even more attuned to and knowledgeable about demonstrated learning benefits of shared practice because they are educators. Moreover, English language teacher educators are potentially particularly well positioned to engage in communicative interactions, since the core of their discipline is interaction through language.

The aim of the present study is to gain a better understanding of how ELTEs develop as professionals - both individually and with colleagues - to meet the current challenges of English language education. The present research is founded on interviews with eight teacher educators at two universities in Finland and sixteen teacher educators at eleven universities in Japan. The present study has been conducted through a thematic analysis and comparative thematic analysis of the transcribed interviews of the teacher educators in each context. Using a sociocultural approach, the research explores how English language teacher educators in Finland and Japan interpret their communities in relation to their own professional learning. As such, I assume a dynamic interaction between a particular national educational culture, policy and institutional system, and the talk or discourses about language teaching and teacher professional learning of the teacher educators within that nation. In turn, discourses about collegial interaction and professional learning influence understandings and expressions of agency in the professional learning of teacher educators.

In bringing the concept of agency to bear upon this research, I understand that professional learning is not a passive event that happens to the teacher, but

rather than for professional learning to happen the teacher herself must take an active role. From these notions emerge the two core lines of inquiry of this dissertation. First, I seek to understand how English language teacher educators perceive of their professional communities as resources for or constraints to professional learning. Second, I examine how teacher educators manifest professional agency in relation to their social environments. Finally, I make a comparative analysis of the themes identified in each context.

1.1 A comparative orientation

This dissertation takes a comparative orientation toward the study of English language teacher educators' professional learning. A comparative methodology was chosen for the study to emphasize and illuminate the role of the sociocultural context in interpreting talk about professional learning. This is meant to enrich our understandings of professional learning and agency in context. I adopt the orientation towards comparative international education (CIE) provided by Thomas: "In its most inclusive sense, comparative education refers to inspecting two or more educational entities or events in order to discover how and why they are alike and different" (R. M. Thomas, 1998, p. 1). When comparativists juxtapose different settings, the aim is to be surprised (Teichler, 1996; Välimaa, 2008). CIE is often implicitly interested in educational change, of identifying differences between contexts, and in elaborating contextual rationales for educational difference (Crossley & Watson, 2003). Thus, research in CIE often explores themes of difference, commensurability (sameness) and change (D. Clarke, 2013; Stengers, 2011). These concepts cannot be employed without an ethical and empathetic consideration of the implications of comparison across national contexts.

The present study adopts a small-scale and qualitative approach to CIE research. Over the past decades, globalization has led to the funding and privileging of large-scale systematic educational reviews - and the quantitative methodologies and paradigms that go along with such research - over the type of small-scale qualitative studies which may be more relevant and closer to, or understandable by, educators (Crossley, 2010; Crossley & Watson, 2003, 2009). In fact, a great deal of international research about Finnish and Japanese education has emerged in relation to functionalist and structuralist approaches to educational research, such as PISA and TIMSS. Functionalism and structuralism, as the paradigmatic orientation of these large-scale international education studies, frame educational institutions as an arm of the state with the potential to mold society. In the studies following such theoretical orientations, educational practices and outcomes are quantified in order to identify trends in educational attainment across nations. These studies offer generalizable explanations of educational phenomena, and promote the transfer of educational theories, practices and policies from one national context to another to offer what are termed 'global solutions to global problems' (Crossley, 2010).

Although the field of comparative international education research remains to some degree dominated by the positivist theoretical underpinnings which have strongly influenced international educational policy (Crossley & Watson, 2003), research in the field has also followed the development of the sociocultural tradition in comparative education (Crossley, 2010; Crossley, Broadfoot, & Schweisfurth, 2007). Welch (2013) recommends a rejection of functionalism in CIE research, in favor of a drive toward the individual. Shifting toward the individual, he argues, allows for considerations of human agency in relation to the social context (Welch, 2013). Further, there is a need in the field of CIE to contribute to rigorous elaboration of contextualized terminologies, (e.g. professional learning, professional agency and collective agency), which may vary according to the context (Lee, Napier, & Manzon, 2014). The present dissertation follows Welch's urgings toward the individual in comparative research from both a theoretical and methodological stance, taking a comparative look at agency in the professional learning of language teacher educators.

In this way, the present research does not attempt to encounter a universalized understanding of language learning and teaching. Rather, informed by a sociocultural approach, the study takes an idiographic perspective (Fairbrother, 2014) which is open to difference in order to elaborate that which cannot be generalized from one location to another (Welch, 2013). Such an orientation to comparative research thus provides a more holistic and naturalistic approach to understanding education (Mark Bray, Adamson, & Mason, 2014). A comparative methodological orientation seeks an interpretive, empathetic understanding of education in context (Mark Bray et al., 2014; Hellowell, 2006). Such research is meant to be exploratory and expository, as well as analytical; looking at attitudes, experience and meaning with increased contextual sensitivity (Crossley & Watson, 2003).

The comparative orientation of the present research gives primacy to the interrelation between the micro and the macro; that is between the individual actor and the social context. However, this distinction is not meant to be interpreted in a dualistic sense between one individual and a unitary context, but rather as a fluid and dynamic multidimensional interrelation. The present study is premised upon the assertion that context is relevant to interpreting teacher educators' talk about their professional learning. Over the past two decades, researchers and practitioners the field of foreign language education have called for a greater focus on context in language education (Bax, 1997, 2002, 2003; Halbach, 2002; Holliday, 1994; K. E. Johnson, 2006; Liyanage & Bartlett, 2008; Wendt, 2002). The focus on context should aim to generate research that is pluralist and situated (Badger & MacDonald, 2007), as there is a need for language teacher educators to better understand how changes in educational cultures may affect the contexts within which they work (Badger & MacDonald, 2007). Further, there is a need to understand the professional lives of teacher educators, how they interpret their work, and how they enact agency for their own professional learning in context.

In order to clarify this work, I here delimit what is meant by the term *context*. I consider the contexts of language teacher education to be bounded by relational interactions (R. Edwards, 2006; Niewolny & Wilson, 2009). Context is understood within the framework of sociocultural theory to be relational, and language as its primary mediational tool. Context is constructed through the dialogic construal of material, ecological, temporal and bodily worlds. Mediational tools are given meaning through social interactions and interpreted in discourse over time and space. Thus, context is not understood as a container or frame for learning, but rather as participation in related practices. Context is performed as a recursive interplay between individuals and the social structure (Giddens, 1979; Niewolny & Wilson, 2009). Language teacher educators are situated within national systems of education, which are themselves dynamic spaces situated in relation to other social discourses. Thus, the contextualization of professional learning goes beyond the contexts of educational policies and regional geopolitical bounds to include the philosophies and discourses of learning and teaching and (Hayhoe & Li, 2008).

Because of its explanatory functions, historical background is of primary importance in CIE research (Phillips, 2006). I therefore present here an abridged background of English language teacher education in both Finland and Japan.

1.2 English language teacher education in Finland

Much international interest about Finnish education has followed Finland's continued success on the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA). High quality teacher education has been indicated as a key to Finland's educational success (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Sahlberg, 2010; Simola, 2005). Teacher education in Finland is recognized for its research-based approach to teacher training (Jyrhämä et al., 2008; Tryggvason, 2009; Westbury, Hansén, Kansanen, & Björkvist, 2005) and for the comprehensive selection process by which highly qualified candidates are recruited for teacher training (Lanas & Kelchtermans, 2015; McKinsey, 2007). Finnish teachers have been shown to take a research orientation to teaching, which is reflected in the teachers' understanding of their everyday practice (Jyrhämä & Maaranen, 2016). Finnish educational culture is noted for informality, trust, teacher autonomy, and strong teachers' unions (Hannele Niemi, 2012). Yet critical literature from within Finland paints a dynamic picture of striving for continuous and incremental improvement, dealing with issues of curriculum development (Hökkä, Eteläpelto, & Rasku-Puttonen, 2010), student-teachers' experience and agency (Eteläpelto & Lahti, 2008; Jyrhämä et al., 2008), the development of bilingual education (Pappa, 2018) and the increasing emphasis on testing and accountability (Sahlberg, 2010).

Teacher education in Finland is recognized for its research-based approach to teacher training (Westbury et al., 2005) and teacher educators in Finland have been shown to align their beliefs about teaching and learning with the

university's commitment to a research-based approach (Jyrhämä et al., 2008; Krokfors et al., 2011). Research has been shown to play a significant role in teacher educators' professional learning in Finland (Maaranen, Kynäslähti, Byman, Sintonen, & Jyrhämä, 2018).

In Finland, discourses of English are heavily influenced by European frameworks and theories, such as English as lingua franca. English is a language of business, media, entertainment, and communications. With a population 5.5 million, Finnish is a minority language in Europe. Finland is also by law a bilingual country, with mother-tongue education rights afforded for all citizens. For most Finns, Swedish is a second language and English a third language. For this reason, English is may not be considered second language learning in Finland, but rather an additional language. English is not compulsory, but it is widely chosen by Finnish students, with increasingly less students and teachers for previously popular languages such as German and French. Finns are generally good at English and for young Finns English is used to gain access to the wider world (Education First, 2011; Leppänen, 2007). In the 1980s, Finland began a gradual shift toward communicative language education. Foreign language pedagogy in Finland in particular has drawn international interest for its focus on communicative language teaching (CLT) and intercultural communicative competence (ICC).

Teacher training for English language teachers in Finland is university-based. Eight universities provide certification of teachers for what is known as comprehensive school (grades 1-9). Finnish universities maintain rigorous selection criteria for admission to teacher training programs: about ten percent of applicants will be accepted to class teacher programs (primary school level) and about sixteen percent of applicants will be accepted to subject teacher programs (secondary level) (McKinsey, 2007).

University students who wish to become English subject teachers at the secondary school level must complete a master's degree in English, with additional pedagogical coursework and training. Teachers at the compulsory level must complete a Master's in Education; lower and upper secondary school teachers of English complete a Master's in English with additional pedagogical training. Universities have a fair degree of autonomy, therefore there is no standardized curriculum for teacher training (Hannele Niemi, 2012). Following the completion of university-based teacher training, the degree itself qualifies teachers to teach at any school nationwide. No certification examination is administered at the municipal or national level.

Teacher educators are those university lectures and professors who teach courses preparing university students to become teachers. University teachers of all subjects in Finland are encouraged, but not required, to complete pedagogical training (Postareff, Lindblom-Ylänne, & Nevgi, 2007). Teacher educators should have a background in school teaching, as well as an advanced degree in their area of expertise. Teacher education in Finland has a strong academic orientation and is arranged at universities so that generally each discipline has a professor, with docents, junior and senior lectures and university teachers within the same

discipline. Such positions generally require a PhD and a high level of pedagogical knowledge (Hökkä & Eteläpelto, 2014).

1.3 English language teacher education in Japan

Japanese education has been the subject of international interest since at least the 1980s, when Japan's economic success was attributed to the efficiency of its educational system (Stevenson & Stigler, 1994). The exceptional performance of Japanese students on the PISA and TIMSS examinations have increased this international interest. Teacher learning in Japan is well regarded for the practice of lesson study, which is a widely instituted collaborative practice of teacher professional development. Lesson study, the practice of observing and discussing one another's classes, is most widely used by elementary, junior high and high schools (Saito & Sato, 2012). However, although Japanese education remains internationally well-regarded in comparative research, respect for the teaching profession within Japan has been in decline (Takayanagi, 2007), concurrent with changing gender roles and changing relationships towards traditional authority (N Shimahara, 1997). These trends highlight domestic currents of educational change. Within Japan, education has traditionally been understood as a national project, and education itself as a fundamentally political issue (N Shimahara, 1995).

The culture of teachers' professional practice in Japan has been described as *teaching as craft*; a process of apprenticeship, wherein neophytes learn from masters in a one-way transmission (Howe, 2005; N Shimahara, 1997). Teacher learning is understood as occupational socialization, which occurs without systematic and explicit instruction. Collegial interaction and mentorship are both key to teachers' professional development (Howe, 2005; N Shimahara, 1997). Teachers have been shown to take an ontological orientation towards teaching wherein teaching is understood as an empathetic, emotional commitment of creating attachment bonds and close interpersonal relationships through cooperative management (N Shimahara, 1997).

Teacher education is one of the least regulated parts of education in Japan (Iwata, 2004). Institutional openness and diversity have been key elements of Japanese teacher education (Hayhoe & Li, 2008) and over 1,000 institutions offer teacher training (Howe, 2008). In addition to the large number of teacher training institutions, there is also a wide range of public and private provision of teacher education, for example at national universities, graduate schools of education, professional schools, junior colleges and at specialized training colleges (Yamasaki, 2016). However despite, or perhaps because of, openness in institutional provision, pre-service teacher training has been criticized as inadequate (Hu & McKay, 2012; Steele & Zhang, 2016). Teacher education in Japan seems to be in crisis, caught between the institutions who provide teacher training and the prefectural governments, who are in charge of the screening examinations (Iwata, 2004). At the urging of the Ministry of Education,

universities implemented faculty evaluations and faculty development programs aimed at improving university teaching (Fukudome, 2015; Kano, 2015). Yet there is little consensus among universities in Japan about the development of teacher education (Iwata, 2004). Tensions remain for faculty members between teaching and research, which compete for time, and administrative duties (Fukudome, 2015). Further, there are tensions between academicians and educationalists, that is between those who emphasize theoretical academic knowledge, and those who focus on practical teaching skills (Iwata, 2004). In addition, professional development at the university levels is limited (N Shimahara, 1998). There has been call for reform in teacher education (M. Arimoto, 2004; Takayanagi, 2007), for example to address the poor coordination and the need to improve the student-teachers' practicum training (Howe, 2005, 2008).

Both teacher education and English language education have come under sustained criticism as the subjects of continual reform since before the turn of the 21st century (Iwata, 2004), standing in contrast to the wide praise for the exceptional outcomes of the Japanese educational system overall in international comparisons (O.E.C.D., 2016). The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) has been methodic in its implementations of reforms in language education, which have addressed teaching English in English, teaching communicative and changing testing to have an oral component. A series of reforms of English education were promulgated by MEXT in 2004, 2011 and 2013. The Action Plan to Cultivate Japanese with English Abilities was launched in 2003, the implementation of Foreign Language Activities was added to elementary schools in 2011, and the Global 30 Project was initiated in higher education to promote English-medium learning in 2009. While these reforms have stressed the use of communicative English, tensions remain regarding English-medium instruction in schools. At the time of the collection of data for this research, the teacher educators were preparing for the implementation of the Ministry of Education's new policy of junior high and high school teachers would be expected to use English as the medium of instruction in English classes. However, there has been a gap between the policy and its implementation, as teachers were not sufficiently prepared for the shift to teaching in English (Glasgow, 2014; Glasgow & Paller, 2016).

English language education remains a highly controversial issue in Japan (Hashimoto, 2013; Mcveigh, 2004; Rubdy & Tan, 2008). These controversies have swirled around the purpose of English, the methods of teaching English, and also of the preparedness of English language teachers (Hosoki, 2011). English is compulsory in upper secondary schools and a core test subject on high school entrance exams as well as the National Center Test for University Admissions. National policy from MEXT emphasizes English as a vehicle for national and international development. Yet despite the Ministry's continual promotion of English related education policies, English language proficiency in Japan has remained low (Takanashi, 2004). These tensions remain evident in the ambivalent attitude Japanese have toward learning English (Hu & McKay, 2012), and the

sense that English may be seen a threat to Japaneseness at the university (C. H. C. Ng, 2016).

Teacher training in Japan is based on a three-tier credentialing system. Advanced, first-class and second-class credentials are offered for Masters', four-year bachelors and two-year associates degrees, respectively. Admission criteria for entering teacher training programs vary by university. English language teacher training programs are housed in a variety of departments; at some institutions in the teacher training department, in others in the foreign language department. Standards for language teacher education have been established at a national level by the MEXT (Newby, Weko, Breneman, Johanneson, & Maassen, 2009). The courses for language teacher training must include pedagogy, educational policy and theory, and pedagogical content knowledge (N Shimahara, 2002). Although the curriculum is suggested by the ministry of education, teacher educators have freedom with the actual content and methods. Following teacher training, teacher candidates are required to sit for the prefectural teacher certification exam, which determines employment eligibility.

The major streams of research published in English about language education in Japan concern language policy, team-teaching, testing and placement, bilingualism, world Englishes, interlanguage pragmatics, motivation, writing and gender (Cornwell, Simon-Maeda, & Churchill, 2007). Absent from this list is a critical consideration of teacher educators and teacher education, or of foreign language teacher learning. Further, there remains little research on English university teachers in Japan, and perhaps no research looking specifically at English language teacher educators.

1.4 Choosing contexts for comparative research

International discourse about the educational systems in Finland and Japan has painted a generally positive picture of both nations in broad strokes; both have done well on the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA), teaching is a relatively well-respected career, and students have generally good academic outcomes. This international interest has also manifest in research between Finland and Japan. There is a small but vibrant body of research in Japanese about Finnish education, and likewise in Finnish about Japanese education, which is the result of on-going research partnerships between Japanese and Finnish educators and scholars and point to a space of mutual interest (e.g. Ito, 2010, 2013; Lassila, 2017; Oyanagi, 2007; Sarja & Ito, 2012; Sarja, Nyman, Ito, & Jaatinen, 2016; Takayama, 2010). Finland in particular makes an interesting study for Japanese scholars of English language education, as Finland can be framed outside the BANA (Britain, Australia, North America) discourse which has dominated research about language learning and teaching in Japan.

A further point of interest is the distinct lines of inquiry about the cultures of teacher professionalism and professional learning in Finland and Japan. In a very broad and generalized way, differences have been indicated between a

culture of professional autonomy among Finnish teachers and a culture of collaborative practice among Japanese teachers. In Finland, teacher professionalism has been associated with teacher autonomy (Linnakylä, 2004; Webb, 2004; Webb et al., 2009). The success of Finnish teacher education has been attributed in part to the government's commitment to the aim of teacher autonomy and the aim of teacher education is to create autonomous, professional teachers (Hannele Niemi, 2012; Tirri, 2014). In language education, scholarship from Finland has connected teacher and learner autonomy in language education to the collegial environment, understanding teacher learning as cultural socialization (Kohonen, 2003, 2010).

Japan's academic success has been attributed in part to the collaborative professional development practice known as lesson study (Lewis, 2000). The cultural practice of lesson study, which is already a part of pre-service teacher education (Winsløw, 2011) is collaborative teacher research meant to develop professional competence (Arani et al., 2010; T. Watanabe, 2002). The collaborative practice of lesson study has a long and rich tradition within schools and as part of teacher training and is part of developing a shared orientation towards educational improvement (Arani et al., 2010). Peer collaboration characterizes Japanese teachers' professional development at the lower school levels (N Shimahara, 1998), and while teachers have little autonomy (N Shimahara, 1995, 1998), collegial relationships have been found to be a significant part of teacher acculturation in Japan (Howe, 2005, 2006, 2008; Howe & Xu, 2013). These distinct orientations towards teachers' professional learning follow the cultural generalizations that have been made about Finland and Japan; that Finns value intellectual autonomy (Mäkilouko, 2004), while Japanese oriented themselves in relation to the collective (Markus & Kitayama, 2003).

The concept of culture has been employed by various authors to explain educational outcomes in Finland and Japan. David Clarke (2013) prefaces the volume *Interaction in Educational Domains*, a work which was born out of the 2012 Finnish Educational Research Association (FERA) conference, with the following summary of the cultural differences between Finland and Japan, as indicated by Hofstede (1980, 1991):

On Hofstede's dimensions, the Japanese are described as Moderately Hierarchical, Moderately Collectivist, Very Masculine, Extremely Uncertainty Avoiding, Extremely Long-term Oriented, and Quite Restrictive. It is a national portrait largely composed of extremes. By contrast, Finnish culture is characterized as Moderately Hierarchical, Moderately Individualistic, Very Feminine, Moderately Uncertainty Avoiding, Moderately Short-term Oriented, and Moderately Indulgent/Restrictive. This is a portrait of moderation. Yet if we compare the performance of these two countries as measured by international tests of student achievement, their national levels of performance are remarkably similar (D. Clarke, 2013, p. 8)

The success of Finnish education has also been attributed to Finnish culture, indicating long-held values of literacy (Linnakylä, 2002; Mason, 2014b; Hannele Niemi, 2012; Välijärvi, 2002). These historical values in Finland are connected to the history of Protestant Christianity in Europe and the history of reading being required for marriage (Linnakylä, 2002). Simola (2005) has indicated that Finnish

culture maintains authoritarian, obedient and collectivist elements and suggests that, "At least heuristically, there is nothing strange in finding Finland together with nations such as Korea and Japan in some international comparisons (cf. e.g., Lakaniemi, Rotkirch, & Stenius, 1995; Siikala, 2002)." (Simola, 2005, p. 457). At the same time, Finnish culture has been associated with social democratic and agrarian values of equality (Varjo, Simola, & Rinne, 2013). In a similar way, principals from Confucianism have been rendered as having explanatory value in understanding Japanese educational culture (O'Dwyer, 2017; Turner, 2011). However, these generalizations are broad and often contradictory. Thus, rather than justifying the choice of these two contexts based on essential or fixed attributes, I understand that culture is multiple, relational, and discursively construed (Kubota, 2004). Rather than relying on broad descriptions of cultural difference or similarity as explanatory, this dissertation as a work of comparative research seeks to articulate a nuanced understanding of the relation between context and professional learning.

In applying a comparative approach, I here address here some of Takayama's (2011) concerns regarding the practice of comparative international education research. First, in contextualizing this research in Finland and Japan I do not wish to imply a hegemonic discourse of nation. The nation-state is implicated here, not as the primary unit of analysis, but rather one relevant context out of many possible contexts through which the researcher and primarily the participants themselves expressed and made sense of their experiences as teacher educators, within situated educational systems, frameworks, in relation to particular educational policies and practices and discourses in English language learning and teaching. I use nation as a context with the following understanding: 1) people living in a nation participate in shared localized discourses about education, 2) people in the same nation are subject to the same national policies of teacher education and, 3) those within the same nation participate in a shared national history of the development of education. This rendering of national context allows for the play and dynamic of educational reform and change, as well as the vibrant and competing voices that are at work within any system. It further recognizes the impact of global streams and movements, like global capitalism and mass education that affect people in various locales all over the world. Teacher educators were asked to describe their own work, and inevitably discussed their experiences "in Japan" and "in Finland" as a dynamic space within which they framed and reframed their professional roles and identities. These national contexts were not described as static but rather as dynamic spaces, full of history and interaction, power dynamics and a multiplicity of agendas, fluctuating over time.

Second, I hold in tension that although many discourses of English language education have become shared globally (e.g. the shift toward communicative language teaching), the beliefs and experiences of individual teacher educators are multifaceted, idiosyncratic, and complex such that they cannot be reduced without losing something in the simplification. The purpose of this dissertation, then, is to prove neither universal nor particular truths about

English language teacher education across contexts. It is rather to elaborate English language teacher educators' professional learning in order to shed light on teacher educators' professional lives and the contexts within which they work. Thus, I aim to transcend false dichotomies and reject the dualities that have underpinned much of functionalist or positivist comparative research (e.g. mind and body, East and West) (Howe, 2006; Welch, 2013).

2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This research adopts a sociocultural approach to the study of English language teacher educators' professional learning and agency. The theoretical and methodological orientations of the study are thus based upon on sociocultural theory. The key concepts are professional learning and professional agency. In the following sections, theoretical and empirical understandings of professional learning and professional agency are elaborated in detail.

2.1 A sociocultural approach

Sociocultural theory is derived from the work of Soviet psychologist Lev Vygotsky (b.1896 - d.1934), whose translated works gained prominence in Western research on education in the mid-20th century. Vygotsky maintained that learning occurs through the use of mediational tools in a dynamic interaction between individual cognition and the social environment. This mediation begins with the social environment, as humans are born into social realities which are constructed and modified by previous social actors. Into these pre-modified social worlds individuals enter. The social and the individual are understood to exist in a dialectical relationship, meaning that individuals are both shaped by and also shape the social environment (van Huizen, van Oers, & Wubbels, 2005).

Sociocultural theory draws into consideration the historical, cultural, institutional, and discursive worlds that pre-date particular interactions. In this way, the sociocultural approach moves away from a narrow focus on the impact of an individual teacher's practice on individual students toward a consideration of the wider contexts within and upon which individuals act. Thus, sociocultural theory allows for consideration of multidimensional aspects of learning (e.g. time, place, mediational tools, diverse social actors). It is within and upon these wider and preexisting social contexts that the student and teacher derive and modify the mediational tools at their disposal in order to make, remake, and contest shared worlds. Social context is therefore pivotal to augment an individual's biological development. Vygotsky's key insight, which has become the core

understanding of sociocultural theory, is that individual cognition and learning is first social, and second internally mediated.

One of Vygotsky's most widely adopted educational concepts is the Zone of Proximal Development (ZDP), which conceptualizes the degree to which learning is mediated by the social environment. Vygotsky's study of child development led him to understand "that human learning presupposes a specific social nature and a process by which children grow into the intellectual life of those around them" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 88). The ZDP accounts for the distinction between biological maturation in children and what children can learn from the social environment. The ZDP implies that individual consciousness proceeds from the social environment. Rather than society being analyzed as a collection of individual consciousnesses, the individual can only be interpreted from an understanding of the culture, history, and social interactions which predate and precondition individual consciousness. Learning is understood therefore as social participation, rather than a phenomenon of individual cognition (Herrenkohl & Wertsch, 1999; Vygotsky, 1978). The underlying question of the sociocultural approach thus becomes how the individual emerges from collective life (Vygotsky, 1981; Wertsch, 1985).

In addition to giving attention to context, sociocultural theory focuses on language as a shared tool of human learning (Wertsch, 1991). Language is understood as a mediational tool, used for making sense of the world. Thus, language is historically, environmentally, socially and temporally inflected. In this way, language is not simply a given artifact, but a tool which is modified in social interaction. Thus, learning is mediated in social interaction through language. Learning happens in dialectical, discursive and dialogical interaction. As such, learning is a semiotic process of meaning making which is negotiated through shared dialogic repertoires (Lave & Wenger, 1991). In these processes, the subject is continually de-centered and reinterpreted through language. Learning and practice are thus dialectically related (Clement & Vandenberghe, 2000; Mercer, 1995).

Further, the sociocultural approach understands that learning is situated (Borko, 2004; Lave & Wenger, 1991). The learning process is organic and existentially tied to the place and time from which both the learner and the context emerge (Salomon & Perkins, 1998). Situated learning implies a dynamic and dialectical relationship between the subject and the social environment. In addition, learning is here understood to be a phenomenon of both the individual and the group. Learning is a collective capacity which is negotiated at the level of the society, community and through individual identity negotiations (Berry, Clemans, & Kostogriz, 2007). The implication of this theoretical orientation is that groups and organizations can learn. Thus, learning is not simply an internal process of the individual mind but is a process and a property of the group (Sawyer, 2002).

Finally, a sociocultural approach to learning holds that knowledge is not separable from, but is intertwined with, the learner's identity. This is a particular epistemic stance on knowledge, distinct from the positivistic conceptualization

in which knowledge is understood as an empirical construct distinct from the learner. Traditionally, in the behaviorist-empiricist view knowledge resides in the environment waiting to be perceived by the individual. Similarly, in the cognitive-rationalist view knowledge resides in the minds of individuals after being constructed through rational processes (Hickey & Zuiker, 2005). Understood from either perspective, knowledge is a commodity (Hiraga, 2008) or an artifact (Hargadon & Fanelli, 2002; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995) separable from both teacher and learner. Learning is thus acquisition and retention of existing knowledge (Hargadon & Fanelli, 2002). The knower can be distinguished from the known. This view is relevant to the present study as the pedagogical orientation of English language teaching in Japan has been identified as a *pedagogy of transmission* (Sarja et al., 2016).

In language teacher education, the idea of possessing knowledge of a language as a construct has a long tradition in cognitive linguistics. Indeed, the name of the field is second language *acquisition*, as in acquiring a commodity. Language itself can be analytically separated from knowers of language and maintains its own structure governed by rules (Widdowson, 1978). Historically in the field of linguistics, it was understood that language has not only a form but, by extension, an ideal form. Understanding foreign language learning as an attempt to master an ideal form of language has taken on particular connotations in the Japanese context, relating to historical discourses about the connection between learning, knowledge and the ideal. Takeuchi (2006) has employed the concept of the ideal in describing the process of knowledge creation in Japan. According to Takeuchi, knowledge creation is about achieving the ideal, and the obligation of the individual is to search for and attempt to achieve the ideal through personal self-renewal (Takeuchi, 2006). In language education this individual search for continual improvement toward the ideal is realized through improving language proficiency and communicative competence (Barkhuizen & Borg, 2010; Fagan, 2012; Hymes, 1972; A. L. Thomas, 1987).

The sociocultural perspective, however, offers a conceptualization in which learning is embodied in dialogic negotiations. There is therefore no ideal form of knowledge, nor can there be a question of knowledge without a consideration of identity and social context. That is to say, there is no question of knowing without the question of being, which is related to particular socially construed contexts (Clement & Vandenberghe, 2000; Huberman, 1993). Further, from a sociocultural perspective, questions of knowing and being can only be fully understood in relation to questions of doing; that is, action. Learning is not only as situated social process, but a situated social practice by which the individual negotiates her own identity by appropriating and mastering patterns of participation in the activities of the group (Sawyer, 2002).

Learning as a situated practice implicates the agency of the learner. In teacher education, the connection between teacher identity and practice can be understood as part of praxis (action). This orientation is a movement away from knowledge itself as a construct of static knowing or mastery achievement, toward learning as a situationally mediated human interaction in time and space. The

particular artifacts at hand are implemented in the negotiation of learning and meaning making.

The sociocultural approach contrasts with views of learning as accumulation of information by the individual and teaching as transmitting knowledge to be 'banked' within students' minds (Freire, 2005). Illeris (2018) identifies two paradigms of understanding learning as 1) the internal psychological process of acquisition and elaboration, and 2) the external interaction process within the social, cultural and material environment. Similarly, Sfard (1998) differentiates two metaphors of learning, distinguishing between learning as acquisition and learning as participation. To this, Paavola and Hakkarainen (2005) add the metaphor of learning as knowledge creation, which they draw in part from the work of Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995). Paavola and Hakkarainen term acquisition as 'monological,' participation as 'dialogical,' and creation as 'triological' to denote a distinction between learning as a process of the individual (mono-), of the group (dia-) or as a process of collaborative development of shared objects of activity (tria-). Research in sociocultural theory, this work included, takes the perspective that learning is best understood as process of social participation (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Lehtinen (2012) cautions that there is no one theory of learning, and that theories of learning are also insufficient to capture the complexities of learning. It is therefore necessary to uncover the fundamental ontological differences between theories of learning, while at the same time refraining from being reductionist upwards and trying to explain micro processes by cultural or macro processes (Lehtinen, 2012). Table 1 below outlines the key distinctions between the cognitive and sociocultural approaches to learning.

TABLE 1 Cognitive and sociocultural approaches to learning

	Cognitive Approach	Sociocultural Approach
<i>What is learning?</i>	acquisition	participation
<i>Who can learn?</i>	individual	individuals, groups
<i>What is knowledge?</i>	existent as a commodity separable from learner, a form, an ideal form	negotiated, mediated, socially construed, inseparable from a social context and identity
<i>What is the context?</i>	static frame, observable	socially negotiated, dialogic

The adoption of sociocultural theory into second language teacher education and research is relatively recent. Current research on language teaching and learning draws on sociocultural research as well as on a synthesis between cognitive and sociocultural research (Borg, 2015; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009; K. E. Johnson & Golombek, 2011, 2016; K Masuda & Arnett, 2015; Ohta, 2017; Robinson & Ellis,

2008; Zhao & Brown, 2014). The *sociocultural turn* language teacher education, as Johnson (2006) has termed it, denotes a shift in the conceptualization of the component parts of second language teacher education. This shift is most dynamic in its re-positioning of second language learning as a socially mediated process, rather than an internal cognitive process in the mind of the learner. The turn to sociocultural theory considers more explicitly the contexts of language teacher education, and the dynamics between teacher and student, and between peers in learning (K. E. Johnson, 2006).

Two aspects of sociocultural theory identified by Johnson are of particular relevance to this dissertation: 1) the question of professional development in second language teacher education and 2) the question of broader sociocultural context in second language teacher education (K. E. Johnson, 2006, 2009). Johnson (2009) argues that a sociocultural perspective on professional development may include not only traditionally organized professional development activities, but also the informal social networks, professional associations and daily teaching interactions. This broader orientation toward professional development underlies my choice of the term professional learning in the present research. Second, Johnson (2009) maintains that the sociocultural perspective “*changes the way we think about the broader social, cultural and historical macro-structures that are ever present and ever changing in the L2 teaching profession*” (K. E. Johnson, 2009, p. 5 emphasis in original). This dissertation provides empirical evidence of specific and particular ways that macro-contexts are implicated in the professional learning of English language teacher educators in Finland and Japan. Although there has been a shift toward sociocultural theory in second language teacher education, we have yet to sufficiently explore how second language teacher educators describe their own learning, or how they interpret the impact of colleagues on their learning in relation to their professional communities.

2.2 Professional learning

The study of professional learning, or workplace learning, implicates a consideration of the context of the workplace and the self as worker, and implicates the role of work in social life. In English language teacher education, research on teachers has emphasized the need for teacher professional development in response to rapid changes in the global economy. Many of the discourses emerging from discussion of English language education surface within discussions about the need to provide an education that prepares students to be competitive in a global, multilingual workforce. Teacher educators, as workers, are situated within wider macro structures of the university, labor, and capital.

A central issue in recent studies of workplace learning is that modern society is in a continual state of rapid change (Billett, 2008, 2011). Workers need to learn to be able to adapt to these rapid changes in order to maintain a competitive advantage in the workforce, both for themselves and also in order to

maintain a competitive advantage for the organizations within which they work. Professional learning is often understood in terms of the transformation or change in professional identities, capacities or competencies while simultaneously sustaining a continuous, coherent professional identity. Furthermore, professional learning is purposeful and agentic practice meant to achieve directed aims within a professional community. The professional learner is understood to exercise power in identity negotiations within professional spheres, and to continually transform professional competencies. Professional learning is characterized by critical reflection and transformation (Fletcher, 2015) and it is supposed that these exercises are directed toward the professional's benefit (Reeves, 2010).

The application of a sociocultural approach professional learning and workplace learning draws on the work of Lave and Wenger (1991). Their conceptualization of learning as situated participation within communities of practice underpins much recent research on how professional learning is accomplished within organizations. Professional learning implies a process of coming to know, coming to be and coming to act within a professional community. In professional learning, this implicates professional identity. Identity negotiation has been theorized as the central practice of professional learning (Pappa, 2018), which is negotiated as a continual process throughout one's career. Professional identity negotiations are the process by which a novice practitioner develops an identity as an expert practitioner; a process of socialization, affiliation and becoming throughout working life (Gherardi & Perrotta, 2014). Professional learning has been shown to be intertwined with professional agency and professional identity, and it has even been argued that professional learning is essentially an exercise in identity negotiation (Geijsel & Meijers, 2005).

Professional learning is particular to its own domain and is situated within contexts of professional practice. As a process of becoming, professional learning is an emotional process of striving for control, mastery and competence (Evans, 2017). The term *profession* can be understood as ideology (Evetts, 2014). Professional learning is a relational practice, as expertise comes through reputation and recognition of other professionals within the domain (H Gruber & Harteis, 2018; Reeves, 2010). Framing professional learning as relational emphasizes that professional learning is complex and contingent. At the same time, workplace learning is an agentic process of positioning oneself at the locus of one's own professional life (R. Smith, 2017).

Taking a sociocultural approach, professional learning is understood to implicate both an internal mental and mediated social process (Borko, 2004; Lave & Wenger, 1991). Lave and Wenger (1991) understand learning as an interaction among three factors, namely practice, resources and identities. The relationship between these three factors, within the context of the professional community, is represented in Toohey's (2007) diagrammatic representation, presented in Figure 1. At the center of professional learning is teachers' professional practice within the context of the workplace. The professional learning is understood as a career-

long and life-wide processes, organic and existentially tied to the place and time from which both the individual learner and the context emerge. Professional learning is entwined with professional practice (van Huizen et al., 2005). For teacher educators at universities, workplace learning centers in the work of teachers' learning, learning to learn, and articulating knowledge for the benefit of the student teachers' learning (Avalos, 2011; Loughran, 2014). Professional learning is also identifiable in its aims and purposes. Professional learning is "goal oriented and work related, i.e., engaging in activities for gain or improvement" (Fletcher, 2015, p. 42). Professional learning is the learning that happens at work and the learning that can be used for work, and can be understood as participation which results in lasting changes in how individuals act or think (Billett, 2004; H Gruber & Harteis, 2018). Thinking and acting are thus indistinguishable from learning.

Further, learning is not passive, but is an active and mediated process as individuals determine their own participation. While it is the case that context affords various degrees and kinds of participation based on, for example gender, position, affiliation, and language skills, it is the individuals determine how they participate and what they construe from participation (Billett, 2004). This means that ways of learning are resourced and constrained by the context and also how the individuals able to position themselves within the context based on personal histories and ontogenies.

A key aspect of professional learning is through the reflective practices teacher educators employ to turn experience into knowledge (Loughran, 2006, 2013; Schön, 1987). Loughran (2013) understands professional development as extending one's knowledge, growing in understanding with an active and open orientation. The professional learning of teachers as reflective practice is understood in terms of this episteme and phronesis, that is connecting theory and practice through a reflective process. In this way, practice may be understood as praxis - that is the enactment of theory in practice.

More recent studies of language teacher learning are derived from a sociocultural perspective drawing on Vygotskian notions of mediation and social interaction as the basis for teacher learning. The sociocultural stream comes to language teacher education from general teacher education research and focuses on, for example, the dynamic interplay between teachers and students using language, professional learning developing in time over the life-course of the language teacher's career, and language teacher identity and agency. In the same way that workplace practice follows on from an unbroken stream of previous actions, encounters and discourses, so teachers and students bring with them a construed past; interpretations of their previous experiences which are part of their identity (Bailey et al., 1996; Freire, 2005; Hatano & Miyake, 1991; Lortie, 1975).

Language teachers' understandings of their own learning often rely on their initial teaching practice and their own English language learning experiences as students (Sato & Kleinsasser, 2004). Learning of both the subject matter and pedagogical practice was largely seen as learned through individual observation

and experience at the beginning stages of one's teaching career (Sato & Kleinsasser, 2004). Further, teacher educators' institutional context strongly influences teacher educators' professional learning (Hwang, 2014). In South Korea, for example, Hwang (2014) found that teacher educators preferred to engage in professional learning through seminars, conferences and workshops. These formally organized events focused on developing teacher educators' research and gaining new knowledge, or expertise about the subject-matter content knowledge, rather than pedagogical concerns. The development of each teacher educators' professional learning over their career is to some extent idiosyncratic (Ritter, 2016), and can be understood as a gradual, holistic, and recursive process of expansion, with the teacher at the center, capable of exercising autonomy and agency in her own professional development (A. Watanabe, 2016).

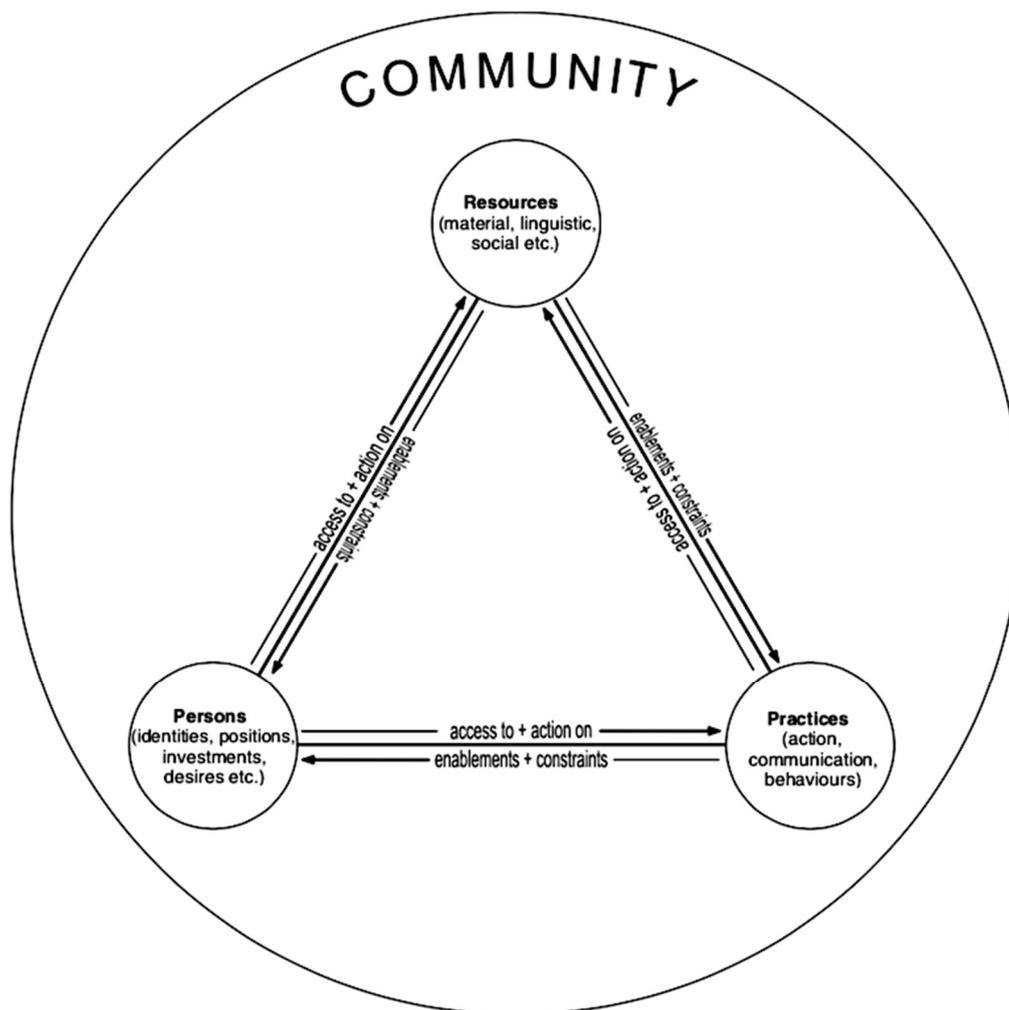


FIGURE 1 A sociocultural perspective on learning.

Reprinted from "Conclusion: Autonomy/ Agency through Socio-cultural Lenses." (p. 233) by K. Toohey, 2007, in A. Barfield & S. H. Brown (Eds.), *Reconstructing Autonomy in Language Education: Inquiry and Innovation*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan. Copyright 2007 by Springer Nature. Reprinted with permission.

2.3 Professional agency

The connection between professional learning and agency has been demonstrated in recent research, both at the level of individual agency as well as collective agency. Many theorists in the social sciences have taken up consideration of the concept of agency and the relationship between the individual and the social structure (see Archer, 2000, 2003; Durkheim, 2014; Giddens, 1979). On one hand, theories which privilege the social structure, such as structuralism and functionalism, focus on institutional factors and social forces that shape individuals' lives. Sociologist Emile Durkheim articulated clearly the functionalist perspective, holding that human agency is a function of the structure (Hays, 1994). In the functionalist perspective, agency is born of social control (Durkheim, 2014; Hays, 1994). In the field of comparative international education, there remains skepticism about individual agency and a tendency toward structuralist and functionalist interpretations. Takayama (2012, p. 519) is skeptical of "overstressing the transformative role of domestic actors" which can lead to what Ball (1993) calls naïve optimism about agency. On the other hand, studies stemming from psychology and philosophy, particularly the humanist tradition originating with Scottish enlightenment philosopher David Hume, have generally understood agency as an innate property of the individual (Wertsch, Tulviste, & Hagstrom, 1993). For example, Segal (1991) explores the concept of free will and the matter of intentionality on the part of the individual as an agentive actor. He draws into question the idea of causality, making a distinction between happening and agency which relies on the will and motivation of the individual. These framings explore how an individual acts and reacts to his context. The writings of British sociologist Anthony Giddens (1979) have become preminent in theoretical discussions of the relationship between agency as a property of the individual and structure. According to Giddens, agency and structure presuppose one another and are interdependent. Agency is a continuous flow of conduct and intentionality is a process. Agency is therefore a temporal concept, bound to context (Giddens, 1979). Giddens' structuration theory explores the interrelationship between agency and structure. Giddens work has been criticized by Margaret Archer (2000, 2003), who demands a clear analytical distinction between agency and structure and cautions against conflation of the two.

In language learning and teaching, the concept of agency has generally been drawn from the humanist tradition (Roberts, 2016), which presumes "that we know intuitively what is good for our own growth/development," that we can exercise choice to determine our own growth, and that we should be freed "to connect with and act on our true needs and feelings, rather than be pushed by others into behaving in ways that deny them" (Roberts, 2016, p. 19). These pre-conditions of self-knowledge, acting for one's own benefit and congruence between one's own intimate desires and the enactment of agency are key to the conceptualization of agency as drawn from the Western humanist tradition.

Given the extensive research on autonomy in the field of second language acquisition, it is worth exploring here the connection between the concepts of autonomy and agency. In language teacher education there has been a rich examination of how the dynamics between the learner and the teacher impact the learning process. Benson (2011) has traced the development of this field of research. In the 1970s, the question how people learn languages began a move toward consideration of the role of learners in directing their own learning processes. This investigation of student control over learning, or student-centered approaches, led to an interest in students' motivation to engage in autonomous behavior. In the 1980s the discussion on autonomy was linked to individualization. Holec's (1981) initial framing connects autonomy with the ideas of freedom and responsibility for one's own learning. However, in the 1990s there was some conceptual clarification through the work of language educator Pauli Kohonen of Finland, who connected autonomy with interaction, arguing that people are never isolated, but make choices to moderate their behavior within social environments (Benson, 2011; Kohonen, 1992).

The concept of autonomy can be traced through two disciplinary orientations, namely philosophy and psychology. The first may be understood as a product of the ontological 'myth of individualism' as developed in the West (Benson, 2011). This philosophical description of autonomy shares its roots with the Western humanist tradition of the conceptualization of agency, for example in the definition given by Deci (1996), that autonomy means to act freely with a sense of volition and choice, or with Huang and Benson (2013), who understand agency as conscious action for a purpose. Autonomy is understood as taking back the locus of control over one's action. Thus, learner autonomy is a separation from the teachers' control and the ability to take charge of one's own learning (D. Little, 2007). Autonomy is a step away; a boundary. As such, the core of autonomy is the concept of control over the learning process, which implicates the power dynamic between the individual and the social structure (Huang & Benson, 2013).

The second orientation comes from cognitive-behavioral understandings of human action and interaction. A psychological consideration of autonomy focuses on autonomy in thought and action. Learners are not simply banks into which teachers deposit information to be withdrawn at a later date, but are capable of critical thought, with histories and experiences independent of the teachers' instruction (Freire, 2005). Therefore, given the autonomous learner, the psychological motivation of the learner to engage with the teacher becomes a central concern. Independent thought is connected to autonomous action and self-directed learning. This view is expressed by Little (2002), who suggests that autonomy is fundamentally a psychological orientation of the learner to the learning process.

The relationship between the similar concepts of agency and autonomy has been explored by Huang and Benson (2013), who posit that agency may be a precursor to autonomy. Thus, they understand that agency can be used to gain autonomy. In the present research, agency is understood as distinct from

autonomy in reference to two conceptual frames, namely power and context. First, from a sociocultural perspective, power is understood as a dynamic and negotiated interrelation. That is to say, power is not always held by or vested in the teacher. Thus, the idea that the autonomous learner must wrest power back from an authority in order to direct his own learning frames power as existing on a spectrum between the teacher and student within inflexible power hierarchies; as a “shift in the balance of power towards learners” (Benson, 2011, p. 23). As such, the learner can take power back from the teacher to gain his own independence from the teacher’s control. This framing of autonomy may make the most sense in the context of schools, wherein the learners are generally children and the teachers are adults, and therefore manifest inherent inequalities of power. Agency, by contrast has been most robustly theorized in the arena of workplace learning, which focuses on learning as the daily practice of adults. As such, agency is not about being separate from a dominating power in order to preserve one’s own integrity by determining one’s own thought or action. Agency is about an enactment within a social dynamic, which implies not independence from, but discursive engagement with other actors in the learning environment. This is similar to the position that autonomy implies interdependence and is socially determined, as individuals make choices for their conduct within social settings (Kohonen, 1992; Raz, 1986). However, I make a slight conceptual distinction here that agency is an enactment, whereas autonomy can be an internal psychological sense of personal control and independence, similar to a sense of self-efficacy.

In addition, the idea of autonomy in language learning stems from a consideration of language learning within formal contexts (Little, 2007). Within these formal contexts, the teacher is in control, to a great extent, of the learning environment. Such spaces have been rationalized (Weber, 2013) and are created and sustained through predictable and routine learning with predetermined outcomes. Within this habitual dynamic, students can become disenfranchised and disengaged if they fail to follow along at the pace of the teacher or other students (Lamb, 2010). In language learning and teaching, the concept of autonomy stems from a need to liberate and humanize the language learner, and to address the falseness and contrived nature of school as a place for learning, detached from the everyday realities of practice, interaction and meaningful relationships within wider society (D. Little, 2007). When language classes have little relevance to students’ lives, students become unmotivated, creating a power struggle between the teacher who must attempt to evaluate students on knowledge they have no interest in acquiring, and the student, who experiences a process of confusion and alienation as he finds the class unintelligible.

The tension between the individual and a rigid social structure of power is thus the impetus for a consideration of how to activate individual students to learn a language within this formal learning setting, wherein the objectives, methods, and content are not organically emerging in the context of social practice. There has been a great deal of effort put into developing methods of language teaching to remedy this disconnect between schools and everyday

realities. Yet the school is meant to be an institution of routines which are comprehensible to the learner. Within such routines, which serve a normative and rationalizing function to control actions and behaviors of both teachers and students - and therefore perform a soothing function on the mind of the learner - the learner is asked also to maintain her sense of self-efficacy and dynamism, and sense of autonomy from the school system which is continually exerting a normative and pacifying force. In this context, autonomy is meant to humanize the learner, reconnecting her with the life outside of classroom procedure (D. Little, 2007), and also to humanize the teacher, allowing her to cede some power over learning to the student (Freire, 2005). Thus, Little argues that autonomy is the product of a process by which the individual invested with power (the teacher) gradually cedes control of the learning process to the learner (D. Little, 2007). The push for learner autonomy is therefore an effort to humanize students by empowering them to connect their own learning to things which are meaningful to them. In this way, the humanization of the learner serves also to humanize the teacher who has participated in the alienation of the student (Freire, 2005).

Autonomy is therefore understood as emerging as a concept central to structural-functionalist or post-structuralist interpretations of power and the roles of students and teachers in learning in formally organized schooling. Agency, by contrast, is more applicable to learning in the complex and ambiguous contexts of professional practice. In such contexts, the anticipated learning outcomes may be vague, ambivalent or undefined. This framing of agency emerges from streams of thought related to sociocultural understandings of human interactions as discursive and socially mediated, and has more in common with, for example, complexity theory, or ecological understandings of human interactions as contextually bound. A distinction can thus be made here between structure and context as it relates to the framing of autonomy and agency. Structure is here understood as a normative force (Foucault, 2012; Giddens, 1984; Lippuner, 2009), while context is understood as discursive interaction rendered in relational, bodily and material worlds (Niewolny & Wilson, 2009).

Professional agency is here understood from a subject-centered sociocultural approach. In the sociocultural understanding of agency, there is a dynamic interplay between the self and society. Professional agency is understood as an intentional, active and discursive process in which individuals and influence contribute to work practices in ways which are perceived of as significant (Hökkä, Vähäsantanen, & Mahlakaarto, 2017; Pappa, Moate, Ruohotie-Lyhty, & Eteläpelto, 2017). Professional agency can be recognized when professionals exert influence, make choices, and take stances in ways that affect their work and their professional identities (Eteläpelto, Vähäsantanen, Hökkä, & Paloniemi, 2013; Hökkä et al., 2017). Agency is understood here as context bound (Eteläpelto, Vähäsantanen, Hökkä, & Paloniemi, 2014; Evans, 2002, 2017; Kayi-Aydar, 2015a, 2015b; Pappa, 2018). Agency can only be understood in relation to its context and purposes, e.g. the particular circumstances, work

relations, physical artifacts, and discourses (Eteläpelto et al., 2013). Rainio (2008) identifies three ways of understanding the development of individual agency in social practices “(a) through transforming the object of activity and through self-change, (b) through responsible and intentional membership, and (c) through resistance and transformation of the dominant power relations” (Rainio, 2008, p. 117). Agency is thus a dynamic interplay of change and resistance, membership and alienation, responsibility and intentionality. These dynamics are always afforded and restrained by the context, wherein shared understandings are shaped by historical and social structures (Lasky, 2005; Wertsch, 1991; Wertsch et al., 1993). From the sociocultural perspective, agency is seen as a multilevel process that is contextual, historical, occasional and relational (Lipponen & Kumpulainen, 2011). At the same time the agent is active, and capable of influencing the social context (Ahearn, 2001; Hökkä, 2012). Thus, the sociocultural approach sees the self and society as analytically separate but mutually informing (Eteläpelto et al., 2013). Agency is thus enacted in the dialectic between (re)negotiating the self, and impacting the work environment (Hökkä, Eteläpelto, & Rasku-Puttonen, 2012).

Eteläpelto, Vähäsantanen, & Hökkä, (2015) identify seven aspects of agency using the subject-centered sociocultural approach. These seven aspects are (i) Professional agency is practiced (and manifested) when professional subjects and/or communities exert influence, make choices, and take stances in ways that affect their work and/or their professional identities. (ii) Professional agency is always exercised for certain purposes and within certain (historically formed) socio-cultural and material circumstances, and it is constrained and resourced by these circumstances. (iii) The practice of professional agency is closely intertwined with professional subjects’ work-related identities comprising their professional and ethical commitments, ideals, motivations, interests, and goals. (iv) Professional subjects’ unique (work) experiences, knowledge, and competencies function as individual developmental affordances and individual resources for the practice of professional agency at work. (v) In the investigation of professional agency, individuals and social entities are analytically separate but mutually constitutive of each other. (vi) Professional subjects have discursive, practical, and natural (embodied) relations to their work; these are temporally constructed within the conditions of the work. (vii) Professional agency is needed especially for developing one’s work and work communities, and for taking creative initiatives. It is also needed for professional learning and for the renegotiation of work-related identities in (changing) work practices.

The theorization of agency used in this dissertation presumes a connection between one’s agency and one’s authentic and innate capacity to perceive one’s own needs for growth. Further, agentic actions are understood to be derived from a desire for self-mastery, which emerges from the consistent, coherent self. These desires are, to some extent, always selfish, at least to the extent that they are calculated, intentional movements for the good of the self within society. Workers’ enactment of agency within the workplace or the labor market are understood to follow the demands for self-improvement of the individual ego.

Sen (1985) and Evans (2017), indicate that traditionally in economic and social theory, humans are seen as rational agents, who are motivated by a coherent self-interest. Likewise, studies of workplace learning have generally conceptualized of the professional as a rational agent engaging in work and contributing to society for his own benefit in a rational way (Hökkä et al., 2017). Personal agency is thus connected with personal welfare and the individual will choose the good that is personally beneficial. This is the fundamental premise of traditional economic theory. Understanding the theorization of the rational actor is important because research on workplace learning and professional learning both stem from an interest in understanding the worker as a rational force for transformative individual and organizational change within the workplace. This assumes an interplay between the rational, ego-driven self and the social structure. However, an approach which emphasizes rational individualism as the primary lever for change leaves little room for the consideration of social factors, resources, value propositions, and emotions. More recently, the idea of the worker as rational has been challenged by work which considers the role of emotion on professional learning and agency at work (e.g. Hökkä et al., 2017) and the relationship between positive emotions and wellbeing at work (Harwood & Froehlich, 2017).

Biesta and Tedder (2006) focus on the ecology of agency, emphasizing that agency happens by means of an environment and is resourced and constrained by the environment. At the macro level we can frame the historical, cultural, political discourses which are employed as mediational tools in the enactment of agency. It is understood that language teacher educators' agency is construed within various historical and social discourses and local practices (Hökkä et al., 2012; Wetherell, 2005). Agency is afforded by certain material and social environments and as such agency is a consideration of social relationships rather than interpersonal relationships (Ratner, 2000). Therefore, in order to identify agency, it is necessary to look at the contextually available discourses. Moreover, agency is resourced and constrained within social relations and wider structures of society, for example the structure of the university. Agency also manifests in changing the environment, and impacting one's immediate surroundings by reproducing and transforming structures (Emirbayer & Mische, 1998; Eteläpelto et al., 2015; Hökkä et al., 2012; Lasky, 2005). Professional agency, therefore, encompasses influencing one's work environment at the community and organizational levels (Hökkä et al., 2012; Imants, Wubbels, & Vermunt, 2013; März & Kelchtermans, 2013; Priestley, Biesta, & Robinson, 2012).

In the present research, agency is understood as an enactment (Gert Biesta, Priestley, & Robinson, 2015; Priestley et al., 2012). Agency exists in action and in the regulation of action (Kitayama & Uchida, 2005). Given that agency is by nature social and situated, manifestations of agency can range from the exercise of discretion over everyday practices to resistance and transformation with the expectations of change and new knowledge (Lipponen & Kumpulainen, 2011; Ollerhead, 2010; Riveros, Newton, & Burgess, 2012; Weick, 2003, 2009).

In recent research about teacher agency, Pappa et al. (2017) have proposed teacher agency as occurring in on the micro, midi and macro levels. She terms these pedagogical agency, relational agency and sociocultural agency (Pappa, 2018). Pedagogical agency refers to the agency that the teacher practices within her own classroom in the choices and determinations she makes in carrying out her own teaching. Relational agency (A Edwards, 2005, 2015) has to do with collegial relationships that promote the growth and development of expertise among teacher colleagues. Sociocultural agency manifests as teachers respond to or resist the policies or directives that exist in the wider sociocultural context. This includes interactions with administrators, parents and others beyond the teacher community.

Hökkä (2012) and Pappa (2018) have understood that professional agency is, at its core, a capacity to negotiate one's professional identity within one's work practices. Identity agency is what helps maintain individual consistency as the teacher navigates identity negotiation and enacts professional agency within the workplace at the level of the organization, interpersonal and intrapersonal identity negotiations. As the work context is seen as dynamic and changing, identity agency is understood as the reflexive project of (re)negotiating one's identity to be coherent (Pappa, 2018).

Edwards (2005, 2007, 2015) theorizes relational agency as the capacity to offer support and seek support from one's colleagues. Edwards further explains that in professional work, the recognition of one's own competencies, and concurrently the recognition of colleagues' competencies, opens up the possibility for individual and collective action within a frame of mutual responsibility. In this way, colleagues both seek and respond to each other in ongoing interactions in the social setting (Anne Edwards & D'arcy, 2004). Further, the exercise of relational agency is deeply tied to learning as it emphasizes the sharing of expertise and the capacity to work with others to negotiate meaning. Relational agency is based on the Vygotskian concept of the ZDP and the notion that learning occurs in everyday social interactions, rather than exclusively in formal learning or learning activities. The concept of conjoint agency (Markus & Kitayama, 2003) shares some similarities with Edwards' relational agency, in that both emphasize social relations and that agency is enacted alongside others with social ramifications. A distinction, however, made be made in that relational agency is conceptualized as a way for the individual to meet her goals by using the other as a resource or through the offering and accepting of support, whereas such support seeing, and offering is not theorized as an aspect of conjoint agency. Seen in this way, relational agency makes explicit the "implicit calculations of positive utilities that behavior might produce for the self" (Kitayama & Uchida, 2005, p. 158). Relational agency presumes the individual sees a positive utility in the other person for the self. For Kitayama and Uchida, seeing the positive utility in the other takes an independent perspective of agency, meaning that relational agency stems from an independent construction of the self. Relational agency maintains the distinction between the self and the other.

Pappa et al.'s (2017) study highlighted the importance of relational agency for teachers, noting that, "close collaboration with colleagues and their being an immediate source of help were major resources for teachers" (2017, p. 11). Drawing on Edwards (2007, 2015) and Thoonen et al. (2011) Pappa suggests a virtuous cycle between relational agency and the possibility for individual and collective agency to manifest in collective action leading to individual and organizational development. Similarly, Eteläpelto, Vähäsantanen and Hökkä's (2015) study of novice Finnish teachers' perceptions of professional agency found that novice teachers valued close collegial collaboration and support from school leaders in developing and exercising pedagogical agency. In sum, professional agency is understood to be a dynamic and situated enactment and thus the professional agency of teacher educators is a mediated phenomenon (Ruohotie-Lyhty & Moate, 2015).

The following table presents a visualization of the theories of agency which have informed the dissertation (Table 2).

TABLE 2 Comparative summary of different approaches to agency.

Approach		Ontology and manifestations	Relationships between the individual and the social context
Humanist philosophy	Hume	Agency as innate property of the individual, a capacity for free-will and rational choice, an intuitive motion towards self-benefit	Social and individual analytically separated
Social cognitive theory	Bandura	Agency as the connection between thought and action, predicated on internal psychological motivation and regulatory response, a precursor to autonomy	Social and individual analytically separated, primacy to the individual
Social Science	Giddens	Agency as individuals' intentional and rational actions, viewed as having social consequences Temporality and identities not addressed	Inseparability Analytical primacy from individual to social (micro to macro)
Post-structural	Archer	Natural, practical and social reality, and discursive, practical, and embodied relations with the world Agentive actions as intentional and goal-directed processes	Social and individual analytically separated
	Strong post-structural	Collective discourses: nothing outside texts	Inseparability: reducing individuals to discourses
	Intermediate post-structural	Agency as rewriting hegemonic power discourse Agency as people's lived experience of their social relations and their capacity for self-reflection and action Sense of self, human embodiments, and socially and culturally relational subjects Temporality not addressed, identity and subjectivity strongly addressed	Material, cultural, economic, and social forces analytically separated from individuals' self-experiences, identities, and subjectivities

(continues)

TABLE 3 Comparative summary of different approaches to agency (cont.)

Approach		Ontology and manifestations	Relationships between the individual and the social context
Socio-cultural	Object-oriented	Process-ontology; rejection of individual and collective agency, subjugated by objects and tools of work Temporality not addressed, identity and subjectivity rejected	Inseparability of individual and social: reduction of individual to social processes
	Developmental subject-oriented	Individuals as agentic actors in relation to the social world Temporally constructed engagements Intentionality and subjectivity manifested as participation, decisions as to what problems are worth solving Individual temporality (development) include life history and prior experiences	Analytically separated (inclusively); interdependence and mutually constitutive relations between individual and social Agency seen as closely bound up with subjects' professional identities

Note: Adapted from "What is Agency? Conceptualizing professional agency at work." By Eteläpelto, A., Vähäsantanen, K., Hökkä, P., & Paloniemi, S. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2013.05.001> Copyright 2013 by Elsevier Ltd. Reprinted with permission.

2.4 Collective agency

When teacher educators enact agency to impact their own work in relation to their professional communities, they navigate the social space of their workplace. Although agency is often enacted by the individual in relation to other individuals or groups, agency can also be developed and manifest by groups of individuals together. The agency of the group is collective agency. Individuals cannot be isolated, ontologically speaking, from the social dynamics of the workplace. Therefore, what distinguished collective agency, given that individual agency is also requires social interaction, is the particular dialogic process through which collective agency emerges.

The concept of collective agency used in the present research is drawn largely from the work of Albert Bandura (Eteläpelto et al., 2013). Bandura (2001, 2002, 2006) describes collective agency as when people act in concert to shape their future. According to Bandura (2002), collective agency is interdependent and socially coordinated effort. Bandura connects collective agency to the idea of collective efficacy, stating that that the perception of the capacity to affect change is key to the enactment of collective agency (2001). Thus, collective agency goes beyond a collection of shared ideals, motivations and aims by the individuals of the group. Collective agency is realized in the process and product of the interactive, coordinated, and synergistic social dynamics of social transactions (Bandura, 2001).

In recent research on teacher educators' professional agency, a clear distinction between individual agency and collective agency has not been made. Teacher educators' collective agency occurs when "professional communities exert influence make choices and take stances in ways that affect their work and their professional identities" (Bandura, 2001). This same definition is used by Eteläpelto, Vähäsantanen and Hökkä (Hökkä et al., 2017, p. 38) to describe individual professional agency. Thus, the distinction between collective professional agency and individual professional agency is a distinction of scale and process, rather than an existential distinction. At the collective level, agency is enacted by the group for the group. Individual agency proceeds the from the individual either in reference to herself as a professional subject or in reference to the sociocultural conditions of the workplace.

Given that collective agency is derived from individual agency (2015), it is the process of the development of collective agency which distinguishes the former from the later. Through pursuing collective agency, an individual can move beyond her own perception of the good toward a perception and pursuit of the collective good. In this way, the individual can reconcile her own self-interest with the pursuit of common goals and aims (Pelenc, Bazile, & Ceruti, 2015). Collective agency thus begins with the individual's agentic capacity to pursue the good beyond himself, and proceeds through a dialogic process toward collective action. Dialogue plays a critical role in the development of collective agency (Ibrahim, 2006). Given that collective agency is initiated in a

dialogic process, it cannot be established from the outside, but emerges through a collective learning process of discussion (Emirbayer & Mische, 1998).

In operationalizing the concept of collective agency for analysis in the present research, I have adopted the work of Pelenc et al. (Pahl-Wostl, 2006; Pelenc et al., 2015), who indicate crucial steps in the process of the development of collective agency; public dialogue, convergence, and the choice of common goals to be pursued through collective action. This summarization of the critical steps in the development of collective agency, as noted by Pelenc and his co-authors (2015), indicates only the essential elements which have been identified in the literature, rather than a comprehensive model or framework of collective agency.

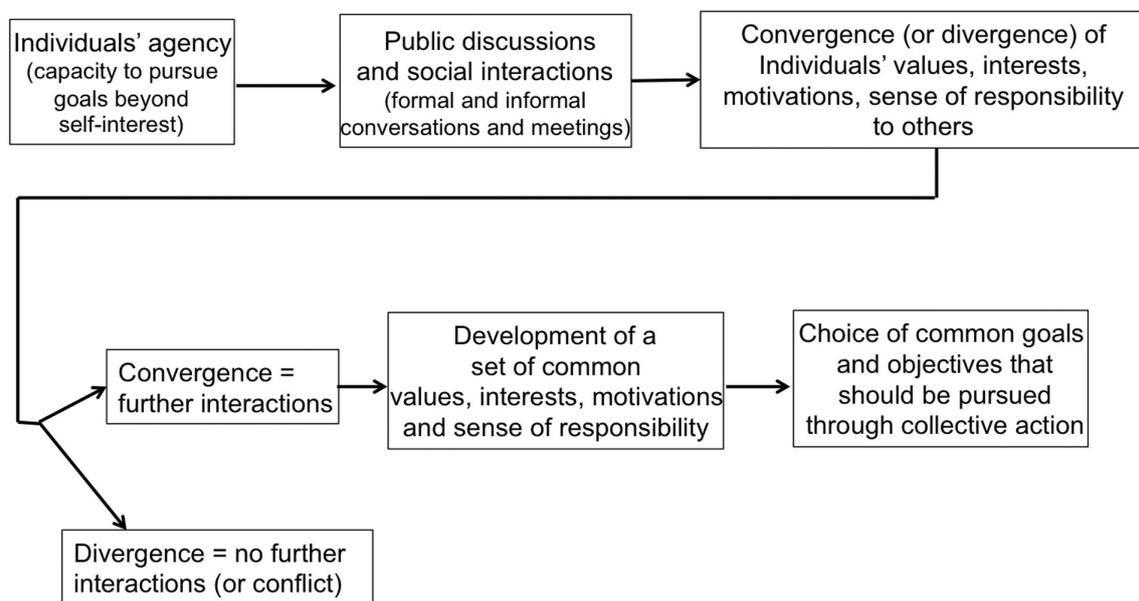


FIGURE 2 Crucial steps in constructing collective agency

Reprinted from "Collective capability and collective agency for sustainability: A case study" by J. Pelenc, D. Bazile, & C. Ceruti, 2015, *Ecological Economics*, 118, 229. Copyright 2015, by Elsevier Ltd. Reprinted with permission.

2.5 Summary of theoretical frames

This research takes an approach drawn from education and psychology, namely the sociocultural approach, and pairs it with a methodology drawn from comparative international education, which has emerged from the fields of anthropology and social policy research. By nesting a qualitative study of professional learning based on interviews within a comparative project, with its assumptions or orientations toward a comparative international perspective, the theoretical orientations of the present research present a frame of reference which allows for the global and the local, situated in different sites, to be framed simultaneously.

As illustrated in Figure 1, the theoretical framework of the present research situates professional learning and professional agency within the wider contexts of the sociocultural conditions, at the intersection of material conditions, global transactional structures, and discursive contexts. This is meant to indicate that professional learning is a function of professional agency. Professional agency, in turn, is an enactment which engages the individual and the group with the material, discursive and socially structured world. In a concrete way, the material conditions may resource or constrain the physical space or of her agency. As a mediated enactment, agency and thus learning can be resourced and constrained by the discursive contexts, that is to say, the ways that people talk about shared histories, relationships and sustained social institutions. At the same time, much wider transactional structures are reproduced by habituated, legalized or normative ways of regulating social transactions across contexts, for example of global capitalism, colonialism and imperialism, and systems of mass education. These transactional structures become salient for individuals and collectives to interpret their possibilities for agency in relation to broader social movements. A subject-centered sociocultural approach recognizes that material conditions, discursive frames and transactional structures affect the institutions of teacher education and the professional learning and agency of teacher educators. The present research takes a concentrated consideration of professional learning and agency as situated enactments.

The sociocultural approach emphasizes the relation between the individual and the social, and the comparative approach allows for more critical and explicit consideration of particular geographical contexts in education.

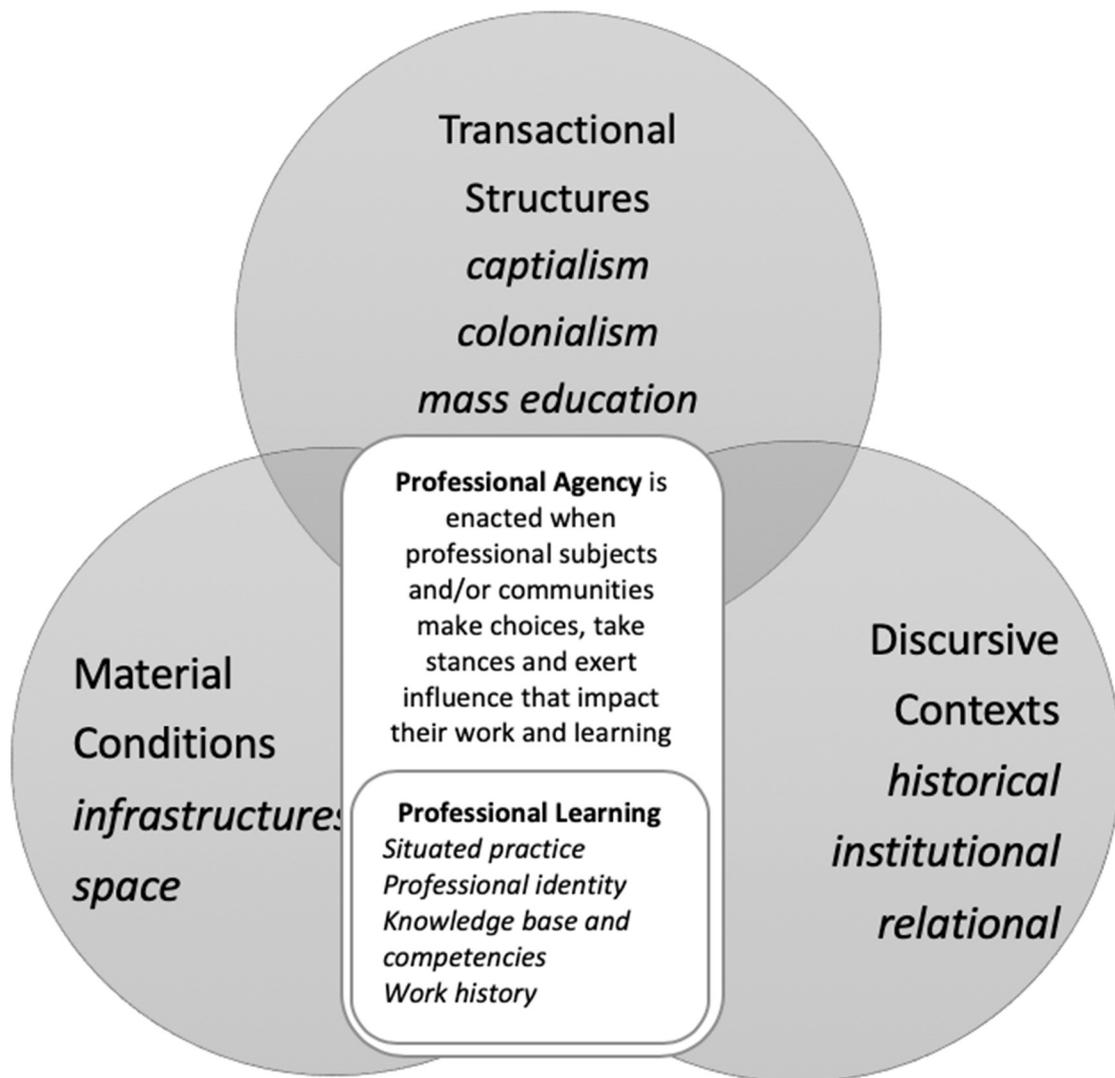


FIGURE 3 Overview of the theoretical framework

3 RESEARCH TASK AND QUESTIONS

The aim of this dissertation is to contribute to the discussion on the role of socio-cultural context in English-language teacher education. The research task is to investigate professional learning and its resources and constraints in English-language teacher education in Finland and Japan. Professional learning is understood as practice-based, taking place in professional communities. Practice-based professional learning in professional communities is mediated by enacting professional agency consisting of i) influencing at work, ii) contributing to work practices, and iii) the negotiation of professional identity.

This study answers the following research questions:

1. What kind of professional learning can be identified in English language teacher educators' communities in Finland and Japan?
2. What are the resources and constraints for English language teacher educators' professional learning in Finland and Japan?
3. How is practice-based learning in professional communities mediated by enacting professional agency?
4. Are some themes present in one context but not another? If a theme is present in both contexts, is the expression of that theme different between groups?

4 METHODS

I here present the methods used in the present study. In the first subsection introduces the methodological commitments of the study and includes the ontological and epistemological perspectives adopted in this research. The ontological and epistemological understanding employed in the research are described, as well as the ethical commitments of the study. I then describe the methodological practice of thematic analysis and comparative research. I then comment briefly on the reflexivity needed for qualitative research. Data collection procedures in Finland and Japan are described, and a detailed account of the data transcription and analysis is given. The analysis proceeded in four phases: Phase One (4.5.1) Phase Two (4.5.2) Phase Three (4.5.3) and the comparative analysis (4.6).

4.1 Methodological commitments

The ontological perspective adopted in this research is social constructivism, which holds that reality is constructed through social interactions, primarily language (Given, 2008). In the constructivist view, reality is not understood as a unitary external state. Rather, realities are iteratively constructed in talk. On the individual level, constructivism understands that reality is multiple, and is subjectively construed by individuals who make meanings in idiosyncratic ways (Given, 2008; Lincoln & Guba, 2013). On the collective level, constructivism holds that shared realities are negotiated and construed through language.

To better illustrate a distinction between the three major ontological and epistemological orientations which can be applied in social science research, I present here the metaphor of three baseball umpires used by Henshel and Silverman (Scotland, 2012). Each umpire has the responsibility of 'calling' the balls and strikes in the game of baseball. The first umpire says, "I call them as they are." This umpire is a realist with an *empiricist* stance, understanding that there exists a unitary and true reality that can be observed and recorded accurately by a contentious and impartial observer. Empiricism, and its cousin positivism, both posit that research in the social sciences can and should follow

the scientific methods applied in the natural sciences to achieve an accurate understanding of an objective reality which is governed by natural laws. The theoretical basis of structuralism and functionalism, both still widely used in comparative international education, have their heritage in this first ontological stance.

The second umpire says, "I call them as I see them." The second umpire also recognizes that reality exists but sees himself as an interpreter of that reality. Like the first umpire, the second umpire is a *realist*, understanding that the world exists independently of the human mind and society. Yet the second umpire's *interpretivist* stance understands the world as interpreted subjectively and idiosyncratically by human beings. The third umpire says, "They ain't nothing 'til I call 'em." This is the constructivist stance, which understands that reality itself is constructed through language as a social interaction. The constructivist stance can be either strong or weak. The strong constructivist view denies the existence of an external world apart from human interaction (Henshel & Silverman, 1975 cited in Pfhl & Henry, 1993) and holds that reality exists only in language as part of discourse (Given, 2008).

The ontological underpinning of this dissertation is the weak constructivist view, of which social constructionism is a part. Social constructionism takes a softer view in relation to the material world, holding that some things do exist within the environment apart from human interaction. Social constructionism recognizes that while material, ecological, and bodily world exists irrespective of human interaction, a social reality cannot exist independently of human interaction (Gergen, 1994; Schwandt, 2000). Further, nothing in the material world can be said to 'matter' without human definition of it. Unlike the first two umpires, who are realists, the foundational presumption of constructivism is *relativism* (Cromby & Nightingale, 1999; Schwandt, 2000). Reality is not fixed or universal but is created through a process of meaning-making (Lincoln & Guba, 2013). Social constructivism, influenced by the work of Vygotsky, is concerned with the social reproduction of the world (Burr, 2004; Gergen, 1985).

The epistemological stance which follows from social constructionism, and which is adopted in this dissertation, is that we can come to know this world by investigating meanings. Lincoln and Guba call this epistemological presumption *transactional subjectivism*, meaning that reality is highly specific to the people, context and time in which it was constructed (Given, 2008; Lincoln & Guba, 2013; Schwandt, 2000). Knowledge is understood as socially constructed and the aim of research is to interpret these construals (Lincoln & Guba, 2013).

The basic methodological choice of the constructivist orientation to research is the hermeneutic/dialectical approach (Burr, 2004; Nikander, 2008; Schwandt, 2000), which seeks an interpretive understanding (Lincoln & Guba, 2013). Hermeneutics is concerned with the interpretation of texts and understanding human interaction in context (Gadamer, 1975; Schwandt, 2000). Hermeneutics explores how people come to shared knowledge. The present research followed both the *hermeneutic circle* and the *hermeneutic cycle* (Allen, 2017; Willis, Jost, & Nilakanta, 2007). The *hermeneutic circle* is the process of interpretation by which

the understanding of the text as a whole is derived from the understanding of its parts, and the understandings of the parts of a text is derived from the understandings of its whole (Willis et al., 2007). The hermeneutic circle can be understood as part of reflexivity; of going back and forth between the text, the context and the researcher's own understanding (Willis et al., 2007). The hermeneutic circle is a dialectical operation, continuously moving between the whole and its parts, giving mind to particular words, iterations, themes, and moving between the text and its context. In addition, the present research was completed in a *hermeneutic cycle* (Willis et al., 2007) of going back to the text at multiple points in time to find new interpretations. One result of the extended time it took to complete this dissertation, from the completion of data collection in 2012 to the completion of writing in 2019, was an imposed hermeneutic cycle of returning to the text anew after each maternity leave, with novel interpretations each time.

Thematic analysis as an analytical approach follows from the hermeneutic tradition of interpreting construed worlds through the analysis of the texts rendered from the participants' talk. Thematic analysis focuses on sensemaking and interpretation in order to get close to large amounts of text, using coding as the basic analytical strategy (Willis et al., 2007). Mills, Durepos & Wiebe give the following robust definition:

Thematic analysis is a systematic approach to the analysis of qualitative data that involves identifying themes or patterns of cultural meaning; coding and classifying data, usually textual, according to themes; and interpreting the resulting thematic structures by seeking commonalities, relationships, overarching patterns, theoretical constructs, or explanatory principles. (2010, p. 926).

A theme is here understood as an implicit topic that can be used to organize a set of repeating ideas.

Thematic analysis considers both latent content and manifest content in data analysis. Themes have a common point of reference, but this common thread may be broad or granular, and themes may be subsumed within each other (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003; Guest, MacQueen, & Namey, 2012; Vaismoradi, Jones, Turunen, & Snelgrove, 2016). The aim of thematic analysis is to identify or examine the underlying ideas, assumptions, conceptualizations and ideologies that shape and inform the data (Guest et al., 2012). Further, while a high degree of generality may unify themes there may also be found threads of underlying meanings at the level of the interpretive subjective understandings of the participants. The purpose of the theme is to elicit the essence of the participants' conceptualizations in order to identify underlying meanings of the participants words (Braun & Clarke, 2006). When conducting thematic research, it is the role of the researcher to determine the themes. That is to say, the researcher does not discover themes which emerge by themselves. The researcher is active in selecting and reporting the findings of the study, and "meanings are made rather than found" (Mauthner & Doucet, 2003, p. 414). Using thematic analysis, I searched across the data set to find patterns in the data, as well as

alternative interpretations and disconfirming evidence (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Vaismoradi et al., 2016).

As a methodological choice, comparative international education affords the research a framework for applying a subject-centered sociocultural approach to the study of professional learning in two contexts. As described in the theoretical framework, the subject-centered sociocultural approach considers the contexts within which individuals and groups actively construct their worlds. Comparative research makes these contexts explicit. In addition, “Comparative studies usually proceed simultaneously on at least two levels: at the macro-level (national higher education systems) and at a within-system level (the micro-level and/or meso-level)” (Kosmützky, 2015, p. 356).

While most comparativists compare nations rather than practices, I here follow Alexander (Alexander, 2001; Crossley, 2009) in understanding that education is a discourse as well as a practice. Therefore, the methodological decision to investigate talk in a comparative study in two national contexts connects the available discourses of national macro-contexts to the local lived realities of the participants (Alexander, 2001). Welch (2013) cites Masemann in recommending that comparativists connect the macro with the micro. In this way, I do not simply rely on the participants’ interpretations but rather contextualize these interpretations within the macro-context. At the same time, by employing comparative international research at the level of individuals, it becomes possible to then consider the agency of the participants, which has been overlooked or denied in functionalist theorization of education (Masemann, 1982). Creating a dialectic between the macro-context and participants is thus part of the work of comparative international education research. The best comparative research compares similar issues across countries, using similar methodology and similar data collection procedures (Welch, 2013). All of these recommendations were followed in so far as was possible in the present study. Comparativists also encourage the methodological choice of collecting data from multiple sites in each country (Carnoy, 2006), as has been done in the present study, allowing typicality and variation in the data.

According to Kosmützky “rigorous international comparative education research requires methodological reflections and determinations at every step of the empirical research process” (2016, p. 199). Comparative studies must be planned more carefully than in non-comparative research because of the issues of adequacy and equivalence across contexts as well as questions of authenticity and typicality (Mason, 2014b; Tobin, Hsueh, & Karasawa, 2009). Comparative studies are unique in the analytical logic used and the consideration for *commensurability* (or sameness, that which can be compared) and difference (Mason, 2014b, 2014a). I do this research recognizing that comparability is an approximation at best (Kosmützky, 2016). Further, comparativists must grapple with multiple challenges, such as conceptual equivalence, problems of complexity, paradigmatic clashes, lack of contextual perspective and language difficulties (Mason, 2014a; Tobin, Wu, & Davidson, 1989).

The diverse research practices in comparative international education are shaped by diverse actors who conduct comparativist research (Rust, Soumaré, Pescador, & Shibuya, 1999). The research is influenced by their own habitus and disposition and the capital and resources available to them (Mason, 2014a; Välimaa, 2008). Comparativists tend to see the world as subjective and multiple, rather than objective and singular (Manzon, 2017). Välimaa cites Teichler (2008, p. 6) saying, "in a good comparative research the aim is to maximize the chance of getting surprised by completely unexpected findings which might call into questions the prior assumptions." This sentiment is echoed by Hoffmann (1996) who states, "Comparative research begins, in my view, with a destabilization of self- with a felt need for encounters with difference that invite one to imagine alternatives" (p. 488). I therefore take Hellowell's (2006) lead in framing the methodological challenge of comparative international education research as being one of empathy and alienation. Rather than framing inside/outside or emic/etic - which is more befitting research from a realist ontology - Hellowell suggests that the reflexive researcher blurs these lines as she moves between herself and the data (Hellowell, 2006).

4.2 Axiological and teleological considerations

Two final considerations proceed from the ontological, epistemological and methodological orientations presented above: the *axiological* and the *teleological*. The axiological is the question of value: *Of all the knowledge available to me, what is the most beautiful, the most life-enhancing, valuable, truthful?* (Hellowell, 2006). The constructivist sees that values are inherent in every human endeavor (Lincoln & Guba, 2013). In the present research, I seek to abide within a truth that honors multiple realities and avoids generalizations. In a continual process, I endeavor to make the research as succinct and comprehensible as possible, avoiding the black and white duality which strips the magnificence of color from the rich data.

The *teleological* is the question of purpose, and is a particular issue in comparative research: *Who is this research for and what is its aim?* (Lincoln & Guba, 2013). Because comparative education has come from an historical tradition of being for the benefit of social policy, there is inherent within the field the question purpose. Is the research for educational improvement within the nations under study or for the scholarly community? Comparative international education should maintain the principal of being mutualist and reciprocal, meaning that it serves not only those who fund the research, but also that it benefits the those within the nations understudy as well. I would maintain that comparative international research in education can serve not only to illuminate studies of systems of education or to better understand educational contexts (Welch, 2011), but as a venue for examining the theoretical concepts which have been adopted and developed to explain phenomena of learning and teaching. Comparative international education research affords the possibility if contextualizing the theories themselves (Crossley & Watson, 2003).

4.3 Ethical commitments

Throughout the research process, it is the task of the researcher to deliberate the moral and ethical choices and commitments of scientific inquiry (Lee et al., 2014). Ethical considerations have been given in this research to the treatment of participants and the contexts of research, as well as the use of data and preparation of the findings of research (R. Edwards & Mauthner, 2012). In the present study, maintaining the anonymity of the participants is of central concern, particularly in Finland where there are a limited number of people (perhaps less than fifty) who are employed as language teacher educators at universities nation-wide. Therefore, in order to ensure the anonymity of the participants, the analysis focuses on the shared talk of the participants, rather than analysis individual work histories, teaching responsibilities or dispositions of the participants. Further, biographical information of the participants in the participant table is provided in aggregate (e.g. women 3), so that it is not possible to for the reader to identify individual participants by demographic markers (gender, career stage, university affiliation, and nationality). Participants were informed of the nature of the research and asked to sign give informed consent (see Appendix 2) before the interviews.

Among the considerations of research is ontological authenticity, which is the capacity of the researcher to elicit a mental awakening from the participants; that is, to provide a venue for the participants to express beliefs or stances that they were unaware that they held (Lincoln, 2009). Participants in this study, particularly in the Japanese context, regularly commented at the end of the interview that they had not much previously thought about the development of their work as shared practice, but that once they began talking about it, they were surprised to discover their own retellings of professional development in collegial interactions. Ontological authenticity is the first step toward conscientization, and this awareness may bring about meaningful action (Lincoln, 2009).

Ethical practice is grounded in the project of reflexivity throughout the research process (Freire, 2005; Lincoln, 2009). Reflexivity means a decentering of the self; exercising critically disciplined subjectivity (Lincoln, 2009). Reflexivity demands a self-conscious engagement with the participants and with the data (Macbeth, 2001). In transcribing and interpreting the data, I have opted to adopt a feminist ethic of care, which emphasis that research as is a morally committed and therapeutic project which presumes a dialogic view of the self (Denzin, 1997). Research is a practice in which people become subjectivities are produced and performed for the researcher (Stephen J Ball, 1990; Macbeth, 2001). From these interactions, the researcher derives transcripts: artifacts that become representations of these performed subjectivities. The process of deriving and interpreting data is neither straight-forward nor politically neutral (Alldred & Gillies, 2012). Thus, the responsibility of the researcher becomes one of accountability to a transparency about the ontological and epistemological

orientations of the research methodology (Alldred & Gillies, 2012). Adopting a feminist ethic means recognizing, respecting and responding to the differences between the researcher and the participants (Doucet & Mauthner, 2012).

Finally, an ethical commitment to research requires providing as full and honest account of the research process as possible (Reay, 2012). Qualitative inquiry is a process of choices made by each researcher. These choices are informed by the researchers' understandings of the material, historical, social, and theoretical worlds. My position in navigating the contexts of the research guides the research process and outcomes. The choice to study Finland and Japan, in addition to being informed by the theoretical and conceptual considerations and previous literature related to teacher education language education presented in sections 1.2 and 1.3 was influenced by my experiences teaching English in Finland and Japan. From 2007-2009 I lived in Eastern Japan and taught English as an Assistant Language Teacher (ALT) on the Japan Exchange and Teaching Programme. During that time, I experienced many of the aspects of professional learning that my participants would later reference in their interviews; lesson study, long working hours for English teachers, conflict avoidance among colleagues. In 2010 I moved to Finland and began teaching business English at local companies. This combined with discussions with those at the teacher training department offered me an initial exposure to the discourses of English education present in Finland. However, I am not myself an English language teacher educator, nor had I worked with any of the participants.

Qualitative research demands reflexivity on the part of the researcher. Reflexivity is a continual process; a reflective conversation in which the researcher considers her motivations and aims. For my part, in many ways I trace the birth of this study to 2006 in Chile, when I was a Fulbright scholar teaching at a university language institute that specialized in English language teacher training and translation. One of the things that I often wondered about was lack of resource sharing or collaboration among the English language teacher educators at that institute. 'Why don't they share and help each other develop their classes and teaching?' I wondered. Questions about professional learning and its connection to organizational learning and student learning in English language teacher education followed me as I lived and worked in other contexts.

In both Finland and Japan, I experienced shared professional practice and collegiality. These experiences became sparks that led me to want to understand how professional learning is understood as mediated by professional agency within professional communities. Moreover, the international nature of my experiences as an English language teacher led me to consider how professional learning may be contextualized within regional or national discourses about education, which exist in relation to particular educational systems, histories, and powers. I therefore wanted to understand, not the micropolitical context of one organization, but how ways of talking about the potentials for professional learning within communities vary between national contexts. For this reason, I chose to interview teacher educators at multiple universities, to look for similarities and differences among their ways of describing professional learning,

the various resources and constraints, as well as the relationship between professional learning and professional agency. Further, I chose to take up the concept of professional agency because it highlights the liminal space, that is the interaction between the self and the structure. The self both encounters and defines the structure, choosing to avoid, transform, resist or reinforce, while also adjusting and adapting the self. I was curious how the participants descriptions of their enactment of agency would vary by context. Had the resources been available, I would have liked to have added the Chilean context to this study, particularly as Takayama (Reay, 2012) has cautioned against creating dualistic binaries in comparative international education research involving 'the West' and 'East Asia.'

In the following sections, I detail the process by which data was generated and analyzed for this research.

4.4 Data collection Finland

Data was collected in Finland between November 2011 and May 2012. Purposeful selection was employed, based on course listings from the previous five years (2007-2011). Participants were involved in supervising and teaching English language teacher training programs and language pedagogy courses. In addition to purposeful selection, an informal method of snowball sampling was used (Given, 2008), in which participants were asked to suggest other participants for the study. In the Finnish context, recommendations were based on the participant's' personal knowledge of the professional profiles of their current and former colleagues. The snowball method was useful for several reasons. First, I was an outsider to the participants' immediate work communities; second, there are very few people at each university who fit the profile of this research; third, the relevant participants were employed by various departments within the universities. Participation was solicited via email, either in an email from myself or with an introductory email from my supervisor (see Appendix 1).

A total of nine interviews were conducted; three at one university and six at a second university in Finland. One of the interviews was excluded because the teacher educator was from a discipline other than English education. The sample size chosen for the Finnish context was modeled on previous and similar qualitative studies of teacher educators and language teachers conducted in the Finnish context (e.g. Hökkä (2012) 8 participants; Kaikkonen (2012), 8 participants; Ruohotie-Lyhty & Kaikkonen (2004), 6 participants). Each interview was conducted individually and face-to-face by the researcher, and lasted between one and two and a half hours. The interviews were semi-structured according to three themes (1) professional background (2) professional work and development (3) collaboration with colleagues (see Appendix 3). In addition, the participants were asked to do an activity in which they drew their various professional communities (Hökkä, 2012), and described their collaborative work and professional development within these communities (see Appendix 5

Sample of Drawing Activity). Towards the end of each interview, conversations became more open-ended and included talk about, for example, the teacher educators' future directions and perceptions of language teaching. Interviews were voice recorded. As a method of triangulation, completed transcriptions were sent back to selected participants for member checking, and two follow-up interviews were conducted with one participant. Follow-up interviews were recorded but not transcribed and served to inform my analysis of the data corpus and to solicit additional information.

4.5 Data collection Japan

Customarily, initial contacts between people in Japan are made via a mutually known intermediary entity. Ideally, this contact is made via institutional affiliation, but it is also possible to be introduced by a mutually known contact, preferably a respected senior. As I did not myself have current or previous institutional affiliations at a Japanese University, various forms of participant solicitation were used to find suitable participants for this study. First, partnership agreements between the University of Jyväskylä and Japanese universities were used to contact potential participants based on previous interactions between faculty members of the University of Jyväskylä and other universities. Second, Dr. Marlen Elliot Harrison, acting in the capacity of informal research supervisor, established introductory contacts on my behalf with relevant individuals among his personal contacts based on his previous work as a university English teacher in Japan. Third, I conducted an online search for research being done in Japan about English language teacher education and for faculty profiles of university English language teacher educators, particularly at universities specializing in teacher education. When contact information was available online, I cold emailed individuals whose profiles matched the selection criteria to solicit their participation. Some of individuals initially contacted were not interviewed due to logistical considerations when organizing travel within Japan. Additional participants were added to the study using the snowball sampling method (Given, 2008) once I arrived in Japan and had met participants in person. This method was used due to my outsider status and the participants' knowledge of which few colleagues within their communities were involved in English language teacher education.

Data for the Japanese context was collected in April and May 2012, during a month-long trip to Japan which was funded by a grant for international doctoral students from the University of Jyväskylä Faculty of Education. Over a period of twenty-nine days, I traveled to six public universities and five private universities throughout mainland Japan. In keeping with the need for deep familiarization with the data (Bernard, Wutich, & Ryan, 2016), I conducted the interviews used in this study myself. Face-to-face interviews were conducted with twenty-three English language teachers. Twenty-one individual face-to-face interviews and three pair interviews were conducted; one interviewee

participated in both an individual and a pair interview. One pair interview and one individual interview were conducted in Japanese at the request of the participants. Three additional individual interviews were conducted using web-video conferencing; one interview at a public university and two interviews from two private universities. A continuation interview of an initial individual interview that due to time limitations was completed via web-video conferencing. In total, twenty-six university English language teachers were interviewed at fourteen universities.

Of these initial twenty-six participants interviewed in Japan, 16 were included in the study. By the end of the month of interviews in Japan, I was confident that I had reached saturation in the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Saturation is reached when no new data is being produced, and therefore no new themes will be rendered in the data analysis (Francis et al., 2010; Guest, Bunce, & Johnson, 2006). This judgement of data saturation was based on my ability to anticipate accurately the participants' responses to the interview questions. Due to the fact that the number of Japanese participants had not been decided in advance, and due to the nature of the social obligation associated with the snowball method of interviewing participants' colleagues, when assessing the need to continue soliciting participation I was in assessing the diminishing returns of continuing to add more participants to the study. Francis et al., (Fusch & Ness, 2015) suggest that a minimum of 10 interviews, plus an addition 3 interviews with no new information produced is sufficient to demonstrate saturation of the data. Both Francis's purposive sampling criteria (minimum 10 interviews) and stopping criteria (at least 3 interviews with no new information produced) were met in the collection of interview data for the Japanese context. I determined that additional interviews would not add anything substantially new to the overall framework of the thematic analysis.

In addition, as I carried out the interviews, I began to consider that the original sampling criteria in Japan was not sufficiently narrow. Upon reviewing the profiles of the interviewees, I decided that only teacher educators who taught classes specifically designed to present English language pedagogy and those involved in pedagogical preservice and in-service English language teacher training would be included in the study. As such, individuals who were, for example, researching language teacher education but had not taught language pedagogy courses, or general English language teachers at universities of teacher education who were not responsible for participating in pre-service pedagogical training, were excluded from the study. Primarily, the remaining sixteen participants included in the study were teacher educators responsible for teaching the courses standardized in the national curriculum as English Teaching Methodology 1, 2, 3, and 4.

Five teacher educators from six public universities and eleven teacher educators from four private universities in Tohoku, Kanto, Kansai, Chugoku, Shikoku and Kyushu are included in this study. Twelve of were Japanese and four were international staff; thirteen men and three women (see Table 2 Participant Information). Interviews lasted from between twenty minutes and

two hours depending on time constraints. The average interview lasted one hour. Included in the study are nine individual interviews conducted in English, two pair, or 'paired depth' (Francis et al., 2010) interviews conducted in English, one individual interview conducted in Japanese, one interview conducted entirely via web-conferencing and one interview conducted partially in person and partially by web-conferencing. The two paired depth interviews formed natural pairs within their contexts, as those participants were well known to each other and worked together (Wilson, Onwuegbuzie, & Manning, 2016). In both cases, they were the two teacher educators at their universities in charge of the English Teaching Methods courses 1, 2, 3, and 4. Although the paired depth interviews were agreed upon by chance as a matter of convenience, the resulting interviews were substantially rich. The total number of interviews was fourteen; the total number of participants was sixteen (see Table 3 Participant Information).

As in the Finnish interviews, the Japanese interviews were semi-structured according to three themes 1) professional background 2) professional work and development 3) collaboration with colleagues. In addition, the participants were asked to draw the various professional communities of which they felt a part and describe collaboration and professional support within these communities and described their collaborative work and professional development within these communities. As many of the interviews were limited to an hour or less in length, the interview discussions centered around supports and obstacles to professional development and collegial interaction and collaboration within professional communities. All interviews were voice recorded. As a method of triangulation, completed transcriptions were sent back to selected participants for member checking. In some cases, clarifications on the transcripts and additional perspectives were received from the participants via email. Clarifying emails were added to the transcripts for analysis as part of the data corpus.

As a result of the interview schedule, in which twenty-three interviews were conducted in twenty-nine days at universities all over Japan, the logistical coordination of transportation and accommodation was demanding. Multiple interviews were conducted on most days, and many other days were spent traveling by train to new interview sites. In addition, I was seven months pregnant at the time. Due to the demanding pace of the trip, and in order to help me document and reflect the interviews, I kept a diary of field notes. These field notes were written in digital format while traveling by train between sites, or at the hotels after conducting interviews. Field notes written during the collection of data in Japan were not used in the data analysis, particularly because I did not keep such field notes for the Finnish data which was conducted over a period of months while based at my home university. However, writing field notes during the Japanese data collection assisted the process of data collection.

TABLE 4 Participant information

	Finland	Japan
Total Participants	8	16
University		
Public/National	8	11
Private	0	5
Gender		
Female	6	3
Male	2	13
Nationality		
Finnish	6	-
Japanese	-	12
BANA (Britain, Australia, North America)	2	4
Career Stage		
Early Career	1	1
Middle Career	4	11
Late Career	3	4

4.6 Transcription of Finnish and Japanese data

The data for this study was analyzed using thematic analysis. In line with the view that data transcription is an interpretive act (Braun & Clarke, 2006), I transcribed all of interviews that were selected for inclusion in the study and conducted in English from the audio recording (8 interviews in Finland; 13 interviews Japan). For the purposes of saving time and textual accuracy, the interview conducted in Japanese chosen for inclusion in the study was transcribed and translated by a Japanese colleague in Finland. The total number of transcribed pages for the Finnish context was 183; for the Japanese context 218 (Times New Roman 12pt, single spaced).

The Finnish interviews were transcribed first, verbatim, using the Jefferson transcription system as a guide (Bird, 2005; Braun & Clarke, 2006). This detailed transcription included notations of length of pauses, laughter, intonation, volume, as well as inclusion of verbal ticks and a strict adherence to the grammatical errors of the participants. However, in the process of reviewing the transcriptions, I determined that the detail captured by a Jeffersonian transcription is more suited to other types of qualitative analysis (e.g. conversation analysis), and unnecessary in thematic analysis. In addition,

perhaps because the majority of the participants spoke English as a foreign language, verbal tics, and to some extent grammatical errors, were highly prevalent throughout the text. At least one of the participants, upon receiving her transcript for participant member checking, commented deprecatingly on her frequent use of 'um'. Her reaction raised for me an ethical question regarding the transcription method, and points to an observation made by Oliver, Serovich, & Mason (2005, p. 1288), that naturalistic transcription in which spoken idiosyncrasies are preserved, "could be seen as disrespectful if the participant... perceived their grammar more accurately than portrayed in naturalized text," particularly when the texts are used for member checking.

Given the methodological choice of thematic analysis, the Finnish transcripts were later revised to remove grammatical errors and verbal tics, (uh, um, like, er) that were not necessary to obtain the meaning nor arrive at the themes of the data. This method of transcribing, in which grammar is corrected and idiosyncratic elements of speech (e.g. tics, stutters, pauses) are removed, has been termed *denaturalism* (Oliver et al., 2005). Denaturalized transcripts are consistent with the constructivist ontology adopted in the present study, wherein it is understood that the participants' speech does not depict an external reality, but rather that speech is imbued with meanings, which in turn construct reality (Oliver et al., 2005). An example of data denaturalization is presented in Appendix 6.

In transcribing the Japanese interviews, grammatical errors (verb agreement in person, number or tense) were corrected and verbal tics were omitted in the process of transcribing the data. These simple grammatical errors and tics are viewed as irrelevant to both the explicit and implicit meanings conveyed by the speaker. The text was edited only to aid the reader in being able to focus on the meaning conveyed by the participants. Throughout this process of transcription, I was careful to maintain rigorous attention to the meanings that the participants expressed so that the text remained true to the original nature of the oral interview (Cameron, 2001; Oliver et al., 2005).

4.7 Thematic analysis

The Finnish and Japanese texts were analyzed separately, according to the same methods of thematic analysis. These methods are described in detail in the following sections. Differences between the analyses of the two sets of data are elaborated. In essence, this dissertation contains two distinct and complete studies, one in the Finnish context and another in the Japanese context. The Comparative Analysis, which is discussed in detail in section 5.3, was initiated and completed after the findings from the Finnish and Japanese contexts had been finalized.

The Finnish data was coded and thematized first, in its entirety and separately from Japanese data set. Once the analysis for the Finnish data was complete, I outlined the findings section for the Finnish data. Before completing

the report of the Finnish findings, with the analysis procedure still fresh in my mind, I analyzed the Japanese data set completely according to the same methods. I then wrote the Japanese findings section in its entirety. After the Japanese findings were finalized, I completed writing the report of the Finnish findings. This process assisted in uniformity of analysis procedures across the data sets, as well as coordinating the organization of the Finnish and Japanese findings section for the benefit of the reader. In the following sections I describe the analysis for each national context, the findings of which are presented in Section 5.1 Findings of the Finnish Context and Section 5.2 Findings from the Japanese Context.

Once the data was transcribed, I began a first stage of analysis in which each data set was considered separately. During these readings of the data, a data set was considered in its entirety, meaning that I did not differentiate or distinguish between the participants within a data set. Rather than investigating each individual's experience, in the first stage I was interested in the words that were used and the ways of talking about professional learning that could be identified from the aggregate text. The primary focus of the first and second phases of data collection was a thematic analysis related to professional learning.

The data in this study was analyzed using descriptive and interpretive thematic analysis. Data analysis took part in three phases. Phase one was comprised of coding, segmenting and categorizing the data. In this phase, the text in each data set was considered as a unified whole. Phase two was comprised of summarizing and reconstructing the data. This second phase considered each participant's' interview individually, and the relationship between interviews, examining the themes identifiable among and between participants' talk. The third phase considered manifestations of individual and collective professional agency. This third phase used a theory-driven analysis of professional agency to consider the interrelationships between the themes of professional learning and the manifestations of professional agency in the text.

4.7.1 Coding, segmenting, and categorizing the data

As a first task in the first phase of analysis, the data set was read completely, looking for examples of professional learning. Examples were identified in accordance with the definition of professional learning described in the theoretical framework; practice-based learning in the workplace. The aim of the first reading was neither to derive nor to impose codes or themes on the data. Rather, it was to gain a deep familiarity with the experiences described in the text (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Achieving a deep familiarity with the depth and breadth of the content of the interviews is important to ensure quality in qualitative research using thematic analysis (Tuckett, 2005). During the first readings, to assist in familiarizing myself with the data and to stimulate my thinking, familiarization notes were kept in which I noted observations and insights related to the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

A second reading of the interviews used a variation of the KWIC (key-word-in-context) method (V. Clarke, Braun, & Hayfield, 2015) to identify the

vocabulary and phrasing that participants themselves used to describe their own learning. The data was searched using keywords (e.g. learn (/ed/ing/er), develop (ing/ment/ed/s), experience, teach, etc.). The keywords were chosen both inductively and deductively (Guest et al., 2012; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007); that is both in reference to the definition of professional learning developed in the theoretical framework (e.g. experience, development, work), as well as through the initial reading of the interviews (e.g. inspire(d), innovat(e/ive), idea(s), help, etc.). A set number of keywords was not determined beforehand. The keywords were loosely grouped by synonyms (e.g. require and obligation were grouped together) and these groupings were listed in order of frequency.

The keywords were then used to perform a third and more detailed reading of the interviews. Three things were accomplished in this third reading of the data. First, by looking at the interviewees' talk surrounding the keyword it was possible to identify how and in what ways the language teacher educators talked about learning in their professional communities (Kuckartz, 2014). Through identifying the ways teacher educators talked about learning, it was possible to begin to create the codes which would, in a later phase of the analysis, be compiled to create the themes. Second, it was possible to make an initial count of how many of the teacher educators spoke about learning in particular ways. This annotation of the most common ways of talking about kinds of learning formed an early estimation of the order in which the findings would be presented in relation to the importance of each kind of professional learning identified. Third, the keyword search made it possible to identify when multiple keywords occurred concurrently in the text. This allowed me to focus on key sections of interviews in which talk about professional learning in communities was described in detail.

In looking at the text surrounding the keywords, I began to consider longer and more detailed sections of the data. This process began the second task of the first phase, in which the data was coded. Because I bring an etic perspective to the study of both Finland and Japan, and because I was sensitive to the ways in which I had chosen to edit the language in the transcripts for readability, I was determined to apply sensitivity in the coding of the text by sticking as closely as possible to the words of the participants throughout the analysis. As such, I chose to use *in vivo* coding (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007) in which the codes are derived verbatim from the words of the participants themselves. This is done to remain as close to the authentic interview text as possible in the process of data analysis. *In vivo* coding is seen as compatible with the theoretical perspective that meaning is produced and reproduced in the participants' talk.

In the initial coding stages, care was taken not to abstract or infer meaning prematurely. The thematic analysis used in this study was both descriptive and interpretive (Given, 2008; Saldaña, 2015), meaning that the analysis sought to identify both explicit (descriptive) and implicit (interpretive) meaning making in the participants' talk. *In vivo* coding, which retains direct evidences of the participants talk by replicating the vocabulary used by participants as the codes,

was particularly useful in accomplishing the descriptive thematic analysis. In addition, because this research is comparative, it was useful to retain throughout the analysis evidences of the ways that the participants themselves talked about learning within their own contexts. Without taking a strict lexical interpretation of the data, using the vocabularies of the participants themselves in deriving the codes preserved and maintained an indication of the distinct discourses present in the Finnish and Japanese cultural higher education systems related to professional learning in English language teacher education.

Because each participant's text is coded according to his or her own evocative vocabulary, a challenge of using in vivo coding is the possibility of ending up with hundreds of unique codes, in what Saldaña (V. Clarke et al., 2015) calls code proliferation. In the present study I was able to limit code proliferation in the following ways. Similar codes were "lumped" together Saldaña (2015). In some cases, a particularly evocative in vivo code was applied to similar instances of the text. In addition, keyword synonym groupings were used to draw the text into comprehensible sets. Because thematic analysis is a process of data reduction (2015), in vivo coding was not used to further split or complicate the data, but rather was used to capture essential interpretations and meanings expressed by the participants. In vivo codes are also useful because the participants' idiosyncratic and unique expressions can serve as a mnemonic device, providing a simple way to scan through the data via the codes to remember what the participants were talking about.

In addition to the in vivo coding, where appropriate, process coding was used (Given, 2008). Like in vivo coding, process coding belongs to what Saldaña refers to as an elemental method. Elemental methods, like process coding and in vivo coding can be used to organize text at its most basic, or elemental, meanings. These codes then can be grouped together to represent more complex ideas (Saldaña, 2015). Process codes use action verbs (gerund; -ing verbs) and were applied to longer sections of text, and as part of the interpretive thematic analysis. Using multiple coding methods is what Saldaña calls simultaneous coding, which is used when the text is both descriptively and inferentially meaningful, and when the researcher is looking for explicit and implicit meanings in the data. Because both descriptive and interpretive methods were used in this study, simultaneous coding was purposefully implemented to conduct the analysis.

As the initial codes were developed, they were grouped in relation to one another in a process of organizing and categorizing the codes (Mitchell, 2014). Categorizing the data is a first movement toward theming the data. Categorized codes were then grouped together and renamed as themes. The themes were identified through the data rather than being pre-identified. Categorizing the codes and ordering them into themes was part of an iterative process of determining which were the main themes and which were subordinate themes, and how to order and name the themes.

In order to improve the rigor of the analysis in this study, the method of multiple coding (Barbour, 2001; Saldaña, 2015) was employed. Several unmarked sections of the data were given to my doctoral supervisor. While distinct from

the elemental coding methods (i.e. in vivo and process coding) employed in this study, my supervisors' readings of the data informed my analysis in the second phase. The resulting coding of these segments of the data used what Saldaña identifies as an *affective coding method*, which pays attention to emotion and values in the text.

The final task in the first phase was the creation of a concept map (Daley, 2004) to organize and order the codes, categories and themes generated during the first phase of the analysis. A branch of the concept map was dedicated to each research question, and codes were grouped and marked as interconnected. The aim of concept mapping is to create a visual overview of the data and the relationships between the codes, categories and themes. Concept mapping is seen as well suited to thematic analysis because it assists in reducing data and identifying the interconnections between concepts (Wheeldon & Ahlberg, 2012; Wheeldon & Faubert, 2009). The concept map was later compared to the individual participant concept maps created in the second phase of analysis as described below.

4.7.2 Summarizing and reconstructing the data

In the second phase of analysis aimed to “develop a coherent meta-synthesis of the data corpus” (Saldaña, 2015, p. 234). Whereas in the first phase considered the data corpus for each context as a whole, not distinguishing between participants' interviews, in the second phase, as a matter of triangulation across participants each interview was read and analyzed separately. The goal of the second phase was to summarize and compare each interview in order 1) to preserve the integrity of the individual participants' talk in the analysis and 2) to ensure that significant descriptions shared between participants were not overlooked in the lengthy compiled data set, nor were isolated (but lengthy) individual accounts afforded undue emphasis.

The second phase began with isolating and re-reading each individual interview. While re-reading the interview, the first task was to create an individual concept map to visually order the codes and themes previously identified in each teacher educators' talk. At this point in the analysis, additional codes and themes were not identified. One branch of the concept map was dedicated to each research question. The individual concept maps were then compared to the initial concept map created from of the entire data set. This was done in order to consider gaps in the initial concept map, and to re-consider the organization and prevalence of themes.

The second task of the second phase involved writing a memo in the form of a paragraph-long synopsis for each participant. Braun and Clarke (2006) have emphasized that writing is part of the analysis process and as such, the memos written in this task addressed the three research questions from the perspective of each participant. The themes identified in each participant's interview were described in interpretive prose. During the initial coding phase, affective methods (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Denzin, 1997), in which the emotion and values are used for coding data were not used. However, as the thematic analysis

sought to identify the teacher educators' ways of talking about the resources, constraints and professional agency involved in their professional learning, each summary memo retained the tone and tenor of the teacher educator's perspective on her or his own professional learning and agency. This was accomplished in part using the participant's' own language retained from the in vivo codes. The main themes of the interview were condensed and coalesced as part of this phase of the analysis process.

The third task of the second phase was done using dyadic analysis. In the present research, dyadic analysis was used for triangulation, as I sought to look beyond individual interviews and into the meanings, perceptions and sense-making expressed mutually by a paired dyad (Manning & Kunkel, 2015). Dyadic analysis was especially useful for triangulation in the Finnish data, because there were only eight participants. Looking at the topics of discussion present in each dyadic combination is referred to by Manning and Kunkel (2015) as multi-dyadic analysis, which traces the relationships between discourses or themes in the talk. Dyadic analysis in which data is collected separately from individuals who share a common experience or practice (for example, the practice of being an English language teacher in Finland) and then is joined together in the analysis phase creates explicitly a third voice in the dyad; the interpretive voice of the researcher (Manning & Kunkel, 2015).

Completing the dyadic analysis was done by systematically creating dyadic pairs of all possible combinations of interviewees from the same national context. Each pair was considered, looking for thematic harmonization and dissonance in the talk. For each dyad, I wrote a summary paragraph describing the areas of overlap and contrast in relation to the three research questions. Each interview was used as a lens through which to consider the other interviews, iteratively going back and forth through the interviews to consider the themes. Writing the synopsis memos and dyadic summaries led to rich re-readings of the data. In this second phase of the analysis, the use of these analytical tools allowed me to develop a dialogue between the interviews, identifying dominant themes of each participant's answers and answering the research questions in terms of the individual teacher educators' talk. This yielded each of the participants interviews from new perspectives, like a kaleidoscope in which each interview in turn renders a slight turn of perspective from which to interpret the other interviews. Perhaps the best aspect of this summary writing, however, was that it allowed me to create a mental map of each participant's talk. This was especially true with the Japanese data because there were so many more participants, and in the initial stages of the analysis I did not feel that I had an easy familiarity on the over two-hundred pages of text. Many multiple readings were needed before I felt familiar and comfortable with the text. Yet simultaneous with achieving a deep familiarity with the data, the dyadic analysis also allowed me to consider each interview anew, by considering it through the lens of another participant's' perspective. In each iterative reading, I identified unique facets of the data while simultaneously solidifying the themes.

As a last task in the second phase, the individual concept maps were considered in reference to the synopsis memos and dyadic summaries. In some cases, additional themes were added to the concept maps, or codes or themes were renamed or reorganized in relation to one another. This compilation of the individual concept maps was then compared to the initial concept map.

4.7.3 Identifying professional learning and professional agency

The third research question considers how professional learning is mediated by professional agency within the professional community. As this third question is both question of *process* and a question of *the interrelationship between two theoretical concepts* (learning and agency), a third phase of analysis was necessary to reach the findings. A more thorough and explicit analysis of the relationship between professional learning and professional agency was undertaken in the third phase.

Professional agency is understood as an intentional, active and discursive process in which the teacher educator's choices and influence contribute to work practices in ways which are perceived of as significant (Eisikovits & Koren, 2010). For the purposes of the analysis, professional agency was recognized as being enacted when the teacher educators exert influence, make choices, and take stances in ways that affect their work and their professional identities (Hökkä et al., 2017; Pappa et al., 2017). Using this definition of professional agency, the data analysis for the third phase began by seeking to identify descriptive examples within the text of 1) exerting influence 2) making choices and 3) taking stances.

In the first task of the third phase of the analysis, a theory-driven approach was used to identify instances of individual professional agency within the text. This theory was based on recent literature about professional agency in teacher education and language teaching, particularly in the Finnish context. The three-part definition of professional agency was used as a guide for coding segments of the data in which each of the three enactments of professional agency (influence, choice, and stance) were identifiable.

To begin, I printed out the entire data set, then used color-coded highlighting to segment the text according to the three enactments of professional agency: exerting influence, making choices, and taking stances. The highlighted sections were then cut apart and collated into envelopes labeled exerting influence, making choices and taking stances. Un-highlighted text was discarded. Sections of text highlighted with multiple colors were collated together with the predominant color. Analyzing one envelope at time, tabletop categories were created, in which the highlighted pieces of paper were spatially arranged on the floor or table. Papers were then piled together, organized and clustered according to their common content. Clustered in piles were further organized into related themes. Using the spatial arrangement of the tabletop categories, it was easy to visualize which themes were more prominent and to arrange them in relation to one another. "Touching the data" (Saldaña, 2015, p. 230) made it easier to discover and understand the interrelationships and theming in the data. Like Saldaña, I also found that the paper and scissors method was faster and

more flexible than using a computer-based program. For several weeks on two separate occasions, I diligently but unsuccessfully attempted for to accomplish structural coding of professional agency in the data for both the Finnish and Japanese data sets using the computer software Atlas.ti. Once I had successfully used the tabletop method for the Finnish data, I determined that I would use the same method also for the Japanese data as well.

The second task of the third phase was aimed at identifying collective agency in the data. A theory-driven approach was also used in this section of the data analysis to identify instances of collective agency in the data. Pelenc and co-authors (2015) describe the construction of collective agency as a process of 1) public discussions and social interaction, 2) convergence of ideas 3) development of common ideas and 4) a choice of common goals that should be pursued through collective action. Pelenc and co-authors' (2015) understanding of the key steps in the construction of collective agency, based on relevant literature, was used as an analytical guide for identifying the development of collective agency in the teacher educators' interviews.

To complete the second task, I reread all the interviews, looking for evidence of each of the four steps contained within an individual's account of their collegial interactions and collaborations. Each step in the development of collective agency that could be identified in the interviews was noted, however only those examples in which all steps were present are reported in the findings. After identifying examples of collective agency, the sections of text identified were then considered in relation to the themes of professional learning present in these same sections of text.

4.8 Comparative thematic analysis

Upon concluding thematic analyses of the Finnish and the Japanese contexts separately, the findings of these two studies were compared using comparative thematic analysis. Comparative thematic analysis is driven by two overarching questions: *'Are some themes present in one data set but not another?'* and, *'If a theme is present in data sets from both groups in an analysis, is the expression of that theme different between groups?'*" (Guest et al., 2012) These questions are rendered directly as the fourth research question of the study: (4) Are some themes present in one context but not another? If a theme is present in both contexts, is the expression of that theme different between groups?

The first three phases of the thematic analysis described above proceeded from the most basic elements of the text – the words used in the talk of the participants themselves – and were expanded to encompass larger pieces of talk from which were abstracted the themes. The comparative thematic analysis, however, began from a broad comparison of the findings in the two contexts. The first task of the comparative thematic analysis was identifying the major similarities and differences between the findings of the Finnish and Japanese contexts. Substantive differences and similarities presented in the findings were

then explored further by analyzing the themes related to these differences and similarities. This second task of comparing the themes directly was done by considering groupings of themes identified in the concept maps that were developed in phases one and two of the thematic analysis. In a final step, the segments of the interview transcripts from which the themes were derived were compared to one another. In this way, the comparative thematic analysis moved from a consideration of similarity and difference at the broad level of the presented findings to a detailed examination of the interview data itself (see Figure 3).

Because the comparative thematic analysis proceeded from an analytical consideration of the major similarities and differences demonstrated in the Finnish and Japanese findings, the entire data set was not re-read as part of the comparative thematic analysis. Rather, the comparative analysis focused only on those sections of the interview text from which the themes under comparison were derived. Only substantial similarities and differences in themes were taken into consideration in reviewing the interview transcriptions. As such, comparative thematic analysis differs from the constant comparative method applied in grounded theory research, in which constant and recursive comparison of the data may be applied even in the process of data collection (Guest et al., 2012), and proceeds through a process of open coding of the entire data set and proceeds to axial coding and selective coding (e.g. Winsor & Bendixen, 2015). Comparative thematic analysis is further distinguished from qualitative comparative analysis (QCA), which employs Boolean algebra to analyze causal relationships cases in small-*N* and large-*N* qualitative case study research (Glaser & Strauss, 2017; Kennedy-Lewis, 2014).

In order for comparative thematic analysis to be done, a certain amount of shared structure at methodological points of the study is necessary (Mills et al., 2010; Ragin, 2014). In the present study, the same interview guide (see Appendix 4) was used for all of the semi-structured interviews in both Finland and Japan. The interviews included the same themes, and a guide of prescribed questions which were asked to participants in the case that they did not address the topic within the free flow of their talk. In all cases, audio recording was used. When analyzing the data, the same methods and procedures were applied to both data sets. These consistencies provided sufficient consistency in the data analysis to allow for comparison of the themes and findings derived from the two data sets.

An important aspect of the procedure used in the comparative thematic analysis undertaken here is that significant themes identified from the findings, which were based on consideration of the findings of each research question individually, these themes were then considered in the data (across research questions). That is to say, in the thematic analysis (phases 1-3) the data was coded and sorted using text segmentation. From these groupings I derived the themes, and these themes were further grouped and categorized to answer the first three research questions. However, in the comparative thematic analysis, the significant findings were dis-aggregated into themes, which were then compared.

Related themes appeared in different sections of the Finnish and Japanese findings.

Thus a comparative analysis, which draws out in rich detail the differentiation in related sub-thematic elements across contexts, serves to highlight the underlying themes that have been collated into the main findings. As such, I will not in this section detail the ways, for example, that Financial Support or Academic Freedom were addressed as similar or distinct in each study, as these results are presented in detail in the Findings presented Chapter 5, sections 5.1.2 and 5.2.2. Rather, detailed consideration of those thematic elements which had become subsumed into the primary findings allows significant singularities in the data to accentuate one another.

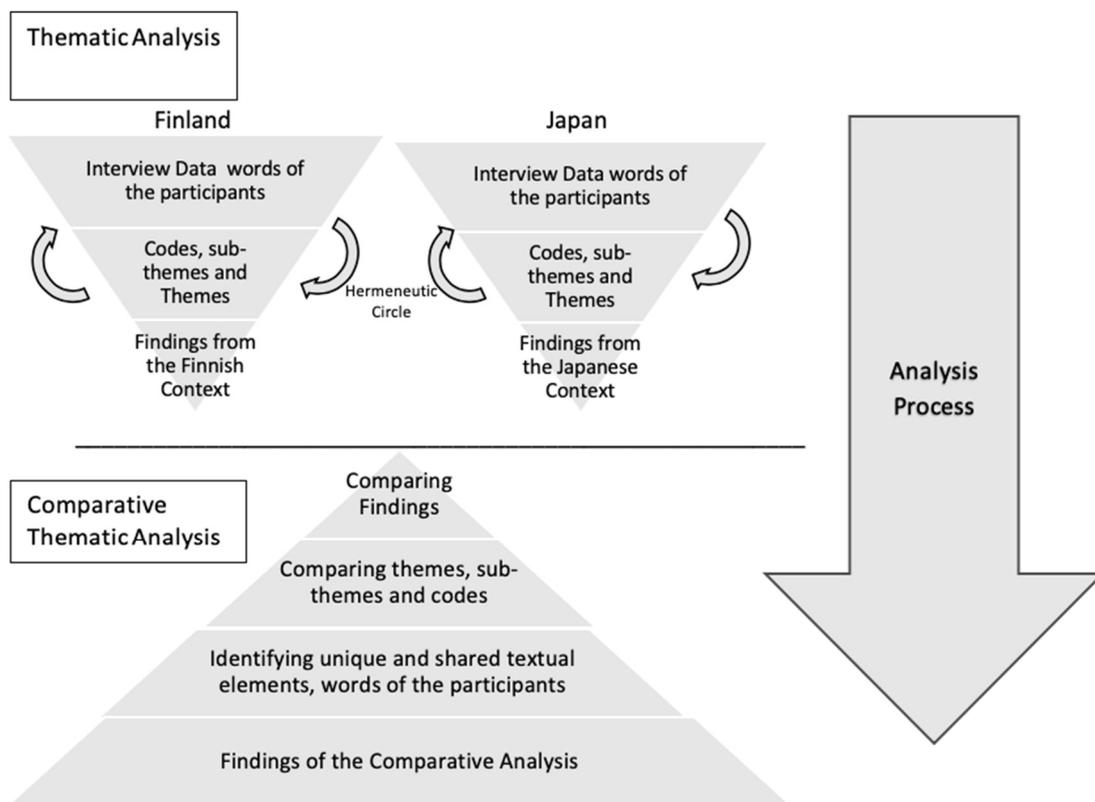


FIGURE 4 Thematic analysis and comparative thematic analysis

5 FINDINGS

This chapter presents the findings of the research in three sections. The first section, (5.1) presents the findings from the Finnish context. The second (5.2) section presents the findings of the Japanese context. The third section (5.3) presents the findings of the comparative thematic analysis. Summaries of the findings can be found in Table 4 and Table 5, at the end of this chapter.

5.1 Findings from the Finnish context

This section reports the findings from the Finnish context. It is organized according to the three research questions, beginning with the kinds of professional learning that were identified in the teacher educators talk about their professional work within various professional communities (5.1.1). The following subsections then present resources (5.1.2) and constraints (5.1.3) to professional learning. The last section explores the role of professional agency in mediating professional learning within professional communities (5.1.4), with consideration of individual agency (5.1.4) and collective agency (5.1.5).

The findings from the Finnish context demonstrate that professional learning, its resources and constraints, and the mediation of professional learning by professional agency are understood by ELTEs as containing intrinsically social aspects. Throughout the descriptions of the findings in Finland, a conceptualization of professional learning emerges in which the social context is key to understanding how professional learning is given meaning by the language teacher educators within their professional communities, and how professional learning is resourced and constrained by the social context. The interaction between the individual and her social context emerges as both a process and a context for professional learning. The social environment plays a significant role in resourcing professional learning and as a space for expressing professional agency.

5.1.1 Kinds of professional learning

Professional learning is here understood as an ongoing and agentic practice-based process which contextually situated over time. Like all learning, professional learning implicates both introspective and socially mediated processes. The themes identified in the analysis related to professional learning in the teacher educators' talk through their descriptions of habitual practices and routines of working life, as well as developmental changes in their professional practice. As the interviews explored the roles of the professional community in developing professional practice, the analysis considered particularly the ways in which the teacher educators perceived of the professional community as relevant to their professional practice.

Two kinds of professional learning were identified in the Finnish context. They are termed here *inquiry learning* and *identity learning*.

5.1.1.1 Inquiry learning

Learning through inquiry was the primary way that the ELTEs in Finland described their professional learning. Inquiry is conceptualized here as reading and writing scientific research, as well as an orientation toward developing one's teaching through systematic and intentional research (Guest et al., 2012). Inquiry in the production of scientific knowledge exhibits an attitude of questioning and novelty; searching for new ideas, methods, and connections between research areas and for developing avenues for building new connections between fields. This orientation implies that scientific inquiry is part of a process of academic and social engagement and dialogue. Inquiry maintains an orientation toward critical thinking, dialogue, debate and problem-solving.

Inquiry encompasses two aspects that are particularly relevant to the present findings. First, inquiry has a social aspect, both in terms of the socially constructed nature of scientific knowledge (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993; Snow-Gerono, 2005), and also in terms of collaborative inquiry for developing teaching practice (Sandoval, 2005). Second, inquiry has an aspect of novelty and innovative problem-solving that involves an awareness not only of the immediate situation but of the wider social contexts. These two aspects of inquiry learning (i.e. social and novel) were identified throughout the teacher educators' discussions of their own professional learning.

The first mode of inquiry learning, *inquiry in teaching*, was expressed as part of the development of the teacher educators' teaching practice. A significant aspect of inquiry learning for the teacher educators in this study is problem-solving in teaching. Teacher educators described an ongoing consideration, both individually and collectively, of ways to adapt their teaching to the changing needs of their student-teachers. This discussion was primarily described as centering around issues of teaching increasingly diverse student populations in Finland. Teacher educators were aware of consideration for the range of learning needs of their students, for example teaching English to students with dyslexia, teaching English to students whose mother tongue is not Finnish, and teaching

English to students with a multicultural background. In addition, teacher educators were concerned that their student-teachers be aware of the differences in interest in and motivation for language learning that students bring to the classroom based on a variety of social circumstances outside of schools, including the students' interactions with their parents and the availability and perceived personal utility of English through for example media that would be of interest to students.

Throughout the teacher educators' talk on problem-solving were evident themes of social change in Finnish society. English language teacher educators emphasized seeking new and innovative pedagogical and content solutions for their student-teachers. Developing new creative teaching practices was described as a necessary response to the changing needs of the student-teachers and their future school students. In addition to a consideration of how to develop the student-teachers' pedagogical competencies, professional learning as working toward problem-solving and pedagogical innovation was connected to discussions of the social utility of knowledge. The connection between English teacher education and educational issues in wider society was apparent in the teacher educators' talk. In this way, inquiry learning for teaching was not seen as an isolated endeavor serving only to expand the professional practice and competencies of the F-ELTE or the student-teachers, but also having social impact in society through language teacher education.

"We are now developing new courses in language learning and teaching and they are related to the research we are doing. But also to the kind of societal impact thing. So we try to see what's going on in the world at large, in our society, sort of in the language policies, language education policies, things like that." (F-ELTE 5)

Characteristic of the teacher educators' descriptions of inquiry for teaching was shared dialogue. In this way, inquiry learning in teaching shared many aspects of what has been called collaborative inquiry (Butler & Schnellert, 2012). In their descriptions, finding solutions for challenges in teaching, and seeking ways to address to wider questions of curricular reform in relation to current trends in Finnish education were described in terms of sharing ideas. Mutual learning, an attitude of openness and respect for others' views as presented in public discussion was described as part of inquiry learning.

"From whenever there's a problem or... whenever I'm tossing with new ideas with new courses, new teaching ideas, 'Do you think this would work?' Then it's, more often than not, it's this talking with colleagues and sharing experiences and sharing ideas." (F-ELTE 4)

Also characteristic of inquiry learning in teaching was a recognition of one's own lack of knowledge. In this lack of knowledge, there was space for learning, growth and development. Further, one's own personal lack of knowledge could be a place for the expertise of others to take over. Solutions to the problems presented in the dynamic between the students and the teachers were also a site of potential learning for the professional community, department or professional colleagues. The teacher educators took responsibility for their own learning, but

also opened up their deficiencies as areas for joint improvement within the community for the professional learning and practice of others as well.

“Now when we were planning our joint, our department courses on language learning and teaching, then I suggested that, we were discussing what would we need, what would our students need, then I raised this multi-cultural classroom issue and now we are trying to figure out and come up with something as a department.” (F-ELTE 4)

The second mode of inquiry learning was *inquiry in research*, through writing, reading and discussing scientific research. Writing research, both individually and with others was described as a significant part of inquiry learning and contributing to scientific expertise through writing and publishing empirical research comprised a meaningful aspect of professional practice. In describing their work with colleagues, joint authorship of scientific research was cited by most of the teacher educators (6/8) as something which was as meaningful in their work. “And we do lots of writing together, which is basically what we do. We write a lot of stuff together and we do lots of things together. This is something we take for granted, basically.” (F-ELTE 3) Although joint publications were not always frequent, working together on research projects and writing held a meaningful place in their professional work, especially in their work with colleagues.

“I mean, I’m really interested in the ideas and I personally enjoy writing... Even one colleague... has contacted me when he’s felt like he was completely stuck and he didn’t know what else to do and he was joking, ‘Can you- do you have any ideas about how to work with this [text] now?’ So I feel like, I almost feel like I’ve begun to take on some kind of supervisory role just because of how - who and how - maybe it comes from this teacher background.” (F-ELTE 2)

In addition to the importance of writing scientific research, reading was also a significant part of inquiry learning. The teacher educators described the importance of reading in developing their knowledge of the English language through cultural literature and also in becoming learning about educational research and theory by reading scientific literature.

“Very soon I came to know about the literature. Vygotsky the soviet psychologist... very soon got well known in the teacher education departments and was integrated. His principal of the Zone of Proximal Development became one of my basic tools for understanding the way language proficiency proceeds.” (F-ELTE 8)

Manifest in the teacher educators’ discussion of empirical and theoretical writings or texts was a shared repertoire of scientific research. This shared repertoire was evident both implicitly and explicitly in the teacher educators’ talk, across professional career stages and across universities in this study. The English language teacher educators mentioned the same educational theorists (e.g. Vygotsky) the same pedagogical strategies (e.g. dialogic pedagogy) and shared research interests in language education. During the interviews, several of the teacher educators at both of the universities cited the same empirical research studies about English education and teacher education in Finland in

answer the interview questions. For example, both F-ELTE 3 and F-ELTE 8, who teach at different universities, referenced the work of the same research group in answering one interview question, “[redacted] by the way has written a very interesting PhD thesis about [that]. Have you read it?” (F-ELTE 3) and “Actually, [redacted] conducted a teaching experiment on that... and if you are interested you should consult his work.... Obviously, (my colleague) knows (this researcher) very well, indeed... You will find their dissertations in the university library.” (F-ELTE 8)

Although these teacher educators were not in the same departments or same universities, their common repertoire and knowledge of the research in their field shows a shared knowledge base of the professional community of English language teacher educators in Finland and implicates a shared empirical basis for understanding the development of the field of scientific inquiry about language teaching and learning in Finland.

Although I have here presented *inquiry in teaching* and *inquiry in research* as distinct themes within inquiry learning, there was considerable overlap between the two within the teacher educators’ talk. Teacher educators expressed significant overlap between their research and teaching.

“My teaching is built on my research. It should be. There is no other alternative. I mean, the teaching is supposed to be based on your research. Either your own empirical research or the research that other people have done, most certainly.” (F-ELTE 3)

The connection between research and teaching was described in terms of the content of the lessons and presenting student-teachers with current information. However, it was also described in terms of explaining to student-teachers the methods used in empirical research. In this way there was a connection between the F-ELTEs own inquiry learning and the inquiry learning of the student-teachers. “And also, when we are trying to teach them research skills.... So, then it’s always good when we try to show them examples of data, you can tell them about data gathering. You’ve got experience, first-hand experience.” (F-ELTE 4)

Conceptually, inquiry is related the epistemological orientation that scientific knowledge as constructed and developed by people. Inquiry is oriented toward a perspective which considers the social utility of knowledge (Butler & Schnellert, 2012). The social construction of scientific knowledge includes social processes of cooperation, collaboration, and competition. Because inquiry is a process of questioning and seeking novel answers to emergent issues, it is also a process which naturally de-centers authority (Sandoval, 2005). In teaching, inquiry learning is an attitude of questioning, of openness to challenge and understanding the roots of difference that can promote changes in teaching practice (Sandoval, 2005). The goal of teachers’ inquiry is capacity building and problem solving in a systematic and continuing cycle (Butler & Schnellert, 2012). That knowledge is socially constructed, and that student-teachers are also being initiated into inquiry learning, is important for developing the ELTEs’ practice in terms of pushing forward knowledge about their field and introducing findings to their students while also introducing their students to the analytical methods

of research and the social networks of scientific research in the field of English education from the beginnings of their university studies.

5.1.1.2 Identity learning

The second kind of learning identified in the teacher educators' talk is identity learning. The term identity learning is taken from Geijsel and Meijers' (Lewison, 2003) work on the connection between identity and professional learning. The theme of identity learning was not identified prior to conducting the thematic analysis. Rather, the term is used here to aid the reader in contextualizing the findings of this study. Identity learning is conceptualized as process through which the individual interprets herself and the meanings of her work within the professional community. Thus, identity learning as a manifestation of professional learning is both social construction and individual sense making. Identity learning is an ongoing process, interpretation of self in the context, related to activities, in this case the activity of professional practice (2005).

In identity learning, the F-ELTEs described what Geijsel and Meijers (Geijsel & Meijers, 2005) have termed boundary experiences: a crisis or challenge which leads a person to recognize her limitations and see herself from a new perspective. The boundary experiences described by the teacher educators as relevant to their professional work occurred both within and outside of the workplace, such as enduring the death of a loved one, transitioning between jobs or positions, and experiencing challenges in articulating oneself to one's colleagues or students. In particular, the process of transitioning between different kinds of work and adjusting to new professional practices was described (6/8). In the interviews, teacher educators created strong narratives of self and success in responding to boundary experiences in changing professional environments.

“When I first came away from teaching to do research, I had an identity crisis... ‘I am a teacher’ that was kind of how I had rooted myself here. Then all of a sudden when I transitioned from teacher to researcher all of a sudden all of the teaching disappeared. And it really was a huge shock.” (F-ELTE 2)

The boundary experiences described by the teacher educators were often about the limitations of knowledge and skills, or a perceived tension between the self and the context. One of the most common boundary experiences for the teacher educators in the Finnish context was in struggling to articulate themselves to their colleagues or students. The sense that the student-teachers did not quite understand the meanings that the teacher educators were trying to convey was expressed as an inability on the part of the teacher educators, or even on the part of the department as a whole, to convey the meanings and purposes of language teacher education. “I also keep on having those disappointments, that I'm not able to do things as I would like to do, that I'm sort of- I don't sort of get my message through, if that is the right expression for that.” (F-ELTE 5) This challenge was complicated by the ELTEs' age and generation, which was related to a changing sense of professional identity in relation to the students over time.

“And also the age difference between my students and me. As a young teacher, we are at the same level. The older I get, the younger my students get, so now they look at me as a person of their mother’s age or an aunt or something like that. So it’s not only the theoretical, pedagogical ones but it’s also who I am as a person and who they are.” (F-ELTE 5)

Negotiating the self over time in changing contexts was a common boundary experience for the teacher educators. Boundary experiences were resolved through reflective and reflexive processes of re-interpreting the self. “I have literally gone through those stages of a butterfly, laying the eggs and there are those caterpillars and then there is the cocoon... I’ve been using this metaphor in my teaching, that professional development sometimes goes like a butterfly.” (F-ELTE 8)

5.1.2 Resources for professional learning

This section presents the resources for professional learning within the teacher educators’ professional communities in Finland. Resources are understood as social contexts and cultural tools, encompassing both material and interactional constructs, which are interpreted as beneficial for professional learning. For the purposes of this research question, professional learning is understood in reference to the findings from the first research question; inquiry learning and identity learning.

The findings show that the main resources for the teacher educators are (1) a supportive collegial environment, (2) financial resources, and (3) academic freedom. As presented in section 5.1.1, both inquiry learning and identity learning involve a distinctly social aspect. It follows here that the collegial environment was listed as most important support for the development of teacher educators’ professional learning.

5.1.2.1 The collegial environment

A supportive collegial environment was the most valued resource for developing professional practice. Two distinct themes related to the collegial environment are distinguished. The first is the support of individual colleagues within the collegial environment. Individual colleagues were seen as important resources for the teacher educators’ professional learning based on their professional expertise and experience. The teacher educators interpreted the knowledge and experience of their colleagues as a resource for developing their own learning through shared dialogue. Beyond this, teacher educators described their colleagues’ knowledge enhanced their own knowledge in an additive way, i.e. that their colleagues had different knowledge, experiences, opinions or ideas which then through discussion the teacher educators incorporated into their own professional knowledge. Moreover, the teacher educators understood that their own resourcefulness was increased when working in a supportive the collegial environment.

“I think is most important that I was able to find people who were willing to work and invest their expertise and their energy and collaborating together. I am the kind of person what if I have to work alone, obviously I know how to do it. And there are things that you need to do alone. But I feel that I am more resourceful when sharing and being in a brainstorming meeting with colleagues. And I was able to find like-minded colleagues.” (F-ELTE 8)

This indicates that that the dynamic interaction between people gave more value to the teacher educators’ own previous experience and own previous knowledge, which then could be drawn on in a more resourceful way. Individual colleagues created a supportive collegial environment not simply through adding the external experience of another person. Through the dynamic interaction with particular colleagues, they perceived an increase in the value of their own professional expertise.

The second aspect of the of the collegial environment as a resource was the informal and open atmosphere that was created in the dynamic between the teacher educators and other colleagues or student-teachers. The collegial atmosphere is here thematically distinguished from the support of individual colleagues as a dynamic interaction between and among groups of people. The teacher educators described a sense of openness within the department or between themselves and the student that allowed the teacher educators to develop their own practice and professional identity. “For some reason it seems that in this department, it’s really strange, we don’t gossip, which is a very good thing...I think it’s a very sort of friendly atmosphere. People are allowed to be who they are.” (F-ELTE 5) Similarly, co-teaching experiences created a developmental for the student-teachers. “We have tried to create very sort of, familiar atmosphere... so that people would be free to talk about their problems... so that the students feel free to ask, even the most stupid questions.” (F-ELTE 7)

The familiar atmosphere created in the teacher training courses was further described in terms of the teacher educators’ positive estimation of the student-teachers’ contribution to the ELTE’s professional learning. “I like the interaction and dialogue with my students. Because they are really extraordinary people and they all have their interesting views on things, and they come from such different backgrounds.” (F-ELTE 3)

As main theme that was identified in resources for professional learning was the supportive collegial environment, I therefore find it useful here to elaborate more precisely the particular attributes of supportive collegial environments described by the teacher educators. These represent the major sub-themes identified in the teacher educators’ talk about the social supports for their learning. The five major sub-themes of the collegial environment as a resource for professional learning are here introduced in the order of the frequency and depth of elaboration within the interview data. They are (1) mutuality (2) trust & vulnerability (3) leadership (4) friendship and (5) serendipity.

Mutuality The teacher educators valued a sense of mutuality and reciprocity in social situations. This was evidenced in the teacher educators talk of sharing with colleagues and in learning from and with their students. I mean everybody

teaches everybody. Mutuality was related to a sense of dynamic fluidity among people, generally expressed through dialogue. "I mean everybody teaches everybody." (F-ELTE 4) Mutual exchanges were described as reinforcing egalitarian social dynamics between people. "Our hierarchy is, in this department, is very flat. We have very, very few differences between professors and researchers or any other people. I mean, we're very democratic in a sense." (F-ELTE 3) Mutuality was related to the legitimacy of one another's knowledge. This esteem for the value of the experience of others in contributing to the positive social environment, even given differences in position or status, was evidenced, for example in the description of the transition from a relationship of teacher and student to that of colleagues.

"The interesting thing is that one of the supervising teachers at the normal school was actually herself a student at the normal school. And I remember her as a sort of ten-year-old! So she's been right through the system, full-circle, so she represented the change of generation, I suppose... It meant we found it easier to talk the same language since she has grown up in this system, and is now herself supervising it." (F-ELTE 1)

F-ELTEs also expressed a desire to create reciprocal dynamics between themselves and the student-teachers and graduate students. "Well maybe if I have my own doctoral students and we were really interested in something together... we could just sort of like bounce ideas off of one another." (F-ELTE 2)

The sharing of ideas and dialogue between teacher and students was part of the emphasis on mutuality within the collegial environment. Mutuality also encompassed the theme of mutual respect, and respect for the rights of others to be and do who they are. Mutuality was based on respect for other people's decision-making processes, their right to engage or disengage in educational change, and the right to have and express a different opinion. Mutuality as a form of respect was expressed in reference to school teachers, students and colleagues. "And so you have to keep an open mind and respect other people. I think you have to see them as individuals with their own experiences which are quite valid, their viewpoints. There is a reason why they think that way." (F-ELTE 3)

Trust and vulnerability Trust was a critical aspect of the development of the collegial community, and related to this was the sense that the teacher educators felt they could be vulnerable about sharing their ideas and limitations with their colleagues. "Nobody ever says, 'Well what are you thinking, idiot?' Because in some departments I know that that happens. But here it's very like, 'Okay yeah, that's a good idea!' And then we start developing together." (F-ELTE 4) Being able to trust that they would not be publicly criticized, but rather that their ideas would be supported and further developed allowed for a vulnerability in which teacher educators felt free to share their professional struggles and novel ideas. In turn, the openness created by trust and vulnerability led directly into opportunities for professional challenges and novel ideas to become sites of identity and inquiry learning.

Leadership Teacher educators cited the support of those leadership positions as being critical to the development of a positive collegial environment. "I suppose, basically, everything depends on the head of department." (F-ELTE 1)

Although personal relationships between those in key leadership positions and other faculty members was generally rather flat, teacher educators said that the leadership had been essential in supporting their professional learning, especially when is professional learning carried beyond their own individual practice to the shared practices. “He doesn’t try to be authoritative, so we’ve had quite good talk and discussions together.” (F-ELTE 7) ELTEs valued an attitude of openness to innovation and participation.

“I mean in particular you have to have, the director of the department has to be the kind of person who is open to, well I wouldn’t call it experimentation, but let’s say the kind of person who is willing to encourage and support all kinds of new things. And also have a sort of collegial atmosphere and setting up committees that are open for everybody that they can work together.” (F-ELTE 3)

Friendship Creating and maintaining a collegial environment was also attributed to friendships between professional colleagues. Themes of time and space were relevant to these descriptions of friendship as contributing to the collegial atmosphere. Time was a theme in terms of decades of knowing one another, “So my first 10 years were quite heavy in this sense, working partly alone and establishing friendships within my own departments and getting to know the teachers in the teaching practice school... we are very good colleagues and friends and all that.” (F-ELTE 1). Themes of space were identified in that Finland is a small country and people know each other, “You know this advantage of being in a small country, that you know everybody.” (F-ELTE 1) This allowed the English language teacher educators to develop sustained friendships over space and time which in turn contributed to the collegial environment. “Of course there is some kind of a friendship. An important person is [my colleague]...I do things with [her] which are teaching or research or whatever, but I think we are also friends, so we have a cup of coffee together, and plan things together, go out together and so on.” (F-ELTE 3)

Serendipity Luck, chance and serendipity were prominent themes in the teacher educators’ descriptions of their professional work and social interactions. These themes overlapped with other thematic aspects; having good departmental leadership was attributed in part to serendipity, “We had the right people in the right positions...I think it was a lucky chance. There is a word for it. Something happening - serendipity?” (F-ELTE 5), being able to secure a position or funding had an element of luck “I landed on my feet through pure chance in a way, there happened to be a vacancy here” (F-ELTE 1), successful projects were described as developing with “random conference friends” (F-ELTE 4) or as a result of chance office arrangements “with some people that I have at some point just happened to share an office with” (F-ELTE 4). In this way, the teacher educators described their work with others as more a matter of serendipity, rather than merit or combined effort. These moments of chance were situated within a particular time and space. If the constellation of factors and people happened to align, the circumstances might generate the conditions for successful collegial collaboration and learning within the professional community.

“I think it, there’s also a sense that there is a moment, a unique moment that is offered to you and you, you seize it, you see the opportunity and if somebody else happens to see that same opportunity then you have collaboration, you know a common goal, that, as you say catalyzes.” (F-ELTE 1)

5.1.2.2 Financial support

The second resource for professional learning was financial support provided by the academy, university or faculty for the development of research and teaching. Financial support included salaries, grant funding for projects and travel, as well as the provision of desks, offices and other physical materials. Financial support was seen as valuable for professional learning in procuring funding for projects, research and teaching. Financial support was valued for travel for pedagogical exchanges, international research projects, and building institutional networks. Funding was understood as developing not only one’s own professional practice, but also as creating professional connections between institutions or individuals that could provide the possibility for future research for oneself, one’s students and one’s colleagues. Financial support particularly supported the development of international networks for the language teacher educators.

An important aspect of the way in which the teacher educators described financial support as a resource for learning was the co-occurrence in the data of themes of financial support and social support. In describing her desire to develop her research and teaching, F-ELTE 3 describes her hopes that these plans will be awarded financial support, either from the faculty, the university or from outside sources. However, she ends by emphasizing that social, not financial support, is more important for developing teaching.

“And we have plans, we have plans to develop our teaching and we have this research and development project going on, and we’re planning to use the data we have gathered so far to further develop our teaching... Hopefully we will get some support, because I know the university makes and the faculty certainly makes grants available to people who want to develop something. ... The financial support is not as significant as the social support. Social support is more important.” (F-ELTE 3)

The connection between financial and social resources was related to the notion that particular individuals in the administration are responsible for making the funding decisions.

“If I think of the director for example, I don’t see him very often, we just send emails to each other. But he is very positive, and he’s supportive. His attitude is. And I think that helps. And then of course he’s the person who supports financially.” (F-ELTE 7)

This sense that decision-making power is accorded to particular, known individuals was an important aspect of the overlap between financial and social resources for learning.

5.1.2.3 Academic freedom

The final resource for professional learning is academic freedom. Academic freedom is the ability to direct one’s own teaching and research based in

accordance with the institutional structures and policies of the university. Academic freedom was the least mentioned resource, but it formed a significant theme in the teacher educators' descriptions of the directions and trajectories of their own work. Teacher educators appreciated being able to pursue their own research interests and to design their courses. "I had complete freedom of choosing the topic, pretty much as long as it was something that had to do with language learning and teaching." (F-ELTE 3)

A unique aspect of the teacher educators' interpretations of academic freedom as a resource for professional learning is that in cases where teacher educators referenced academic freedom, they provided reference to the professional community.

"I would see the support more in freedom to develop and explore the avenues that are of interest to me, rather than having any prescribed path to follow. And I think I have benefited a lot from having the freedom to address the questions that are of interest to me... So on the one hand I've been coaching freedom as this benefit, but it also makes me less problematic to my colleagues." (F-ELTE 2)

Academic freedom was thus a valued resource for professional learning among the individual teacher educators, but not without consideration of this freedom was related to particular contexts or dynamics within the professional community.

5.1.3 Constraints to professional learning

This section presents the constraints to professional learning for English language teacher educators in Finland within their professional communities. The characteristics of these constraints are such that they represent a challenge beyond the boundary experience; they are not readily overcome through professional identity negotiations. Two types of constraints were identified within the teacher Educators talk; (1) individual attributes and behaviors (2) infrastructure.

5.1.3.1 Individual attributes and behaviors

The most commonly described constraints to professional learning within the professional community were individual attributes, attitudes and behaviors. Individual attributes are understood as characteristics which are relatively stable over time, such as personality, age, gender, etc. The constellation of challenging attributes, attitudes and behaviors within the work context (interpreted as ways of being, believing and behaving, or understood as who people are, what they think and how they act) created conditions which impede professional learning. Other individuals were described as constraining the social dynamic when they displayed selfish and individualistic attitudes or ways of working. The perceived selfishness or individualism of others led teacher educators to feel excluded from meaningful influence over their own work or shared work within the community. Negatively ascribed personal attributes such as being "very individualistic and very non-liberal" led to negative behaviors "not enough negotiation, not enough

dialogue.” (F-ELTE 5) “It was very, freezing experience as far as research is concerned because the main element is trust... you wouldn’t want to work with persons who have a very narrow perspective and selfish thinking” (F-ELTE 5). F-ELTE 8 described similarly, “I’m just afraid of the view of autonomy as this kind of rugged individualism. We have got enough of that.”

Individualism was connected in the teacher educators’ talk to themes of “territorial thinking” (F-ELTE 8) and “cliques” (F-ELTE 2). These tensions overlapped with the legitimacy of professional expertise and attitudes of “collegial suspicion and collegial envy” (F-ELTE 8) or behaviors of “gossip” (F-ELTE 5) “stabbing in the back” (F-ELTE 4) and “sabotage” (F-ELTE 1). Attributes, attitudes and behaviors of others at times led perceptions of threat, exclusion or isolation.

“Collegial envy, collegial suspicion, whatever it is. Obviously, everybody wants to guard their own territory, so it’s territorial thinking. And to guard your territory one way is to kind of put down your competitors. One way or another suggesting that they are less competent than you.” (F-ELTE 8)

Individual attributes of the self were also expressed as being a constraint to learning, in terms of personal attributes or behaviors. At times, teacher educators interpreted their own backgrounds, personalities or skills to be limitations to their own learning. Not being able to articulate one’s professional identity to others, attitudes developed in childhood, gender, age and linguistic background were among the individual attributes mentioned. In this way, teacher educators at times saw themselves as being a hindrance to their own work. These expressions of personal attributes or behaviors was nearly always in reference to the social context. In these cases, the teacher educators described some kind of irreconcilable discrepancy between who they were or how they behaved and a particular social context of professional life. “Partly the barriers are in ourselves in the way we behave. I’m not sure whether I’m right in saying that we are kind of a culture that we’re used to taking orders.” (F-ELTE 5) F-ELTE 1 also framed himself as a constraint, emphasizing the social context and his value to the professional community, “I suppose the biggest obstacle is myself in a way... being considered to have little of value to contribute” (F-ELTE 1).

In reference to both the attributes of the professional self and the professional other, there is evident the themes of professional competence, contributing value, influence and power.

5.1.3.2 Infrastructure

A second constraint to professional learning that was mentioned by four of the six teacher educators at one university was infrastructure. Infrastructure as a constraint included the working arrangements of the physical space, such as having offices in different buildings in disparate areas of the campus, or the separation of faculties and departments in different wings of various building. Infrastructure as a constraint concerned the organization of people within the space. Having offices and working spaces disbursed across the university

campus made it difficult for colleagues to meet together spontaneously to discuss and share ideas. Because of the space arrangements, meeting with one another generally needed to be pre-arranged. Infrastructure was seen as a barrier to the development of joint projects and described as leading to an increased sense of isolation in one's daily work.

“And when we were in that building some of our people were at the other end of the building and the other people were at the other very distant part of the building. It was pretty much impossible to get together... It made meetings more difficult to arrange. There was no popping in to some colleague's room and asking their opinion about some stuff. It was a hassle to get things done, so it definitely has an impact.” (F-ELTE 3)

Infrastructure as a constraint to professional learning evidences the intersection of the material and the social in professional learning.

5.1.4 Individual professional agency

The following two sections (5.1.4 and 5.1.5) answer the third research question, *how is practice-based learning in professional communities mediated by enacting professional agency?* Professional agency is understood as a situated process of decision-making and action which impact the teacher educators' professional practice and identity. Because the focus of this research question is on how ELTEs enact professional agency within the professional community, the analytical orientation seeks to understand both the language teacher educators' enactment of *individual agency* as well as *collective agency*. The research aims to contextualize the teacher educators' perceptions of professional learning in relation to their perceptions of the professional community, and thus considers how collective agency mediates the individual teacher's professional learning in instances of collaboration or shared work. The interviews were therefore analyzed using two complementary methods of identifying professional agency in the text. *Individual agency* was identified in the data as (1) making choices (2) taking stances and (3) exerting influence that have impact on the teacher educators' professional practice within the workplace (2005). *Collective agency* was identified by cataloging references to processes of discussion, convergence, development, commitment and collective action (Eteläpelto et al., 2013).

I first describe the ways in which teacher educators in Finland employ resources to practice in inquiry learning and identity learning. The findings show four related areas of individual agency within the professional communities; (i) expressing professional identity (ii) developing collegial relationships (iii) assisting others' learning and (iv) seeking out interactions in order to increase one's own knowledge.

The relationship between teacher educators' professional agency and professional learning within their professional communities was closely tied to their perceptions of themselves as professionals and their perceptions of the needs of their colleagues within and beyond the work community. As discussed

previously, both inquiry learning and identity learning encompassed significant social and individual aspects.

5.1.4.1 Expressing identity

Professional agency was identified as mediating professional learning when teacher educators drew upon their professional values, commitments and motivations to take stances and make choices related to their professional practice. These expressions of commitment and stance were used to negotiate, re-negotiate and enact professional identity within various professional communities. Teacher educators referenced their work in relation to the emotional meaning of being able to express professional identities. "I enjoy teaching. It is a form of fulfillment for me, you might say. Here am I, basically very shy, and there's this stage where they allow me to perform." (F-ELTE 1) Expressing novel or different, yet authentic aspects of the professional self was valued as both an act of personal satisfaction but also through finding meaning in expressing professional identity within the social contexts of professional practice. This satisfaction was also described in relation to the successful overcoming of boundary experiences. The transformation of the self, or a re-interpretation of the professional self, was expressed in relation to one's work within the professional community. "I was able to contribute in a more open way, in a more mature way, more authentic way. Getting in touch with my own inner life, my own inner child as the metaphor goes. I was able to kind of begin a new kind of professional life." (F-ELTE 8)

5.1.4.2 Developing relationships

Teacher educators' professional learning was mediated by professional agency when they intentionally and proactively developed relationships with colleagues, students and other professionals. The enactment of professional agency was often related to a desire to work with long-time friends and esteemed colleagues. Teacher educators described intentional choices of research and teaching companions to develop their professional practice.

"It's more often that somebody knows that, okay, this person has been working on research projects before and she might be suitable for this project and she's interested in this. So that's how it usually goes. So you always start thinking of specific people who you would like to work with who are interested in that topic." (F-ELTE 4)

Some of the most successful or satisfying work projects were accomplished in meaningful relationships with cherished colleagues. "We do a lot of collaborative teaching. For example [my colleague], one of my dear, dear colleagues, actually, organized a course and she recruited a few of us to act as teachers." (F-ELTE 3) The dynamics of developing friendships as a way of enacting professional agency for professional learning was predicated upon a mutual value of each other's expertise. In addition, the teacher educators described the successful development of joint work with particular people as being based on the social

dynamics, “it’s probably been more about chemistry than about anything else” (F-ELTE 4).

5.1.4.3 Assisting others

The third way that individual agency mediated professional learning was through assisting others’ learning. Examples of assisting or contributing to others’ learning was evident both in interactions with student-teachers and also with colleagues. Teaching in particular was viewed as an activity wherein the pedagogical choices and influence that the teacher educator enacted within the learning environment were also significant in mediating the teacher educator’s own professional learning.

“I teach them, we do, as I said this kind of dialogic teaching... it’s very intense and it’s very rewarding. And I also understand teaching that it’s - when you are teaching, you are learning a lot. So that it’s very educating to work so close to a group of young people. Very talented ones... I feel that it’s kind of a human growth. I see every person teaches you something, and it’s a very, very, very rewarding experience. Yes. And young people are so, so wonderful people.” (F-ELTE 7)

Individual professional agency was also expressed in contributing to the professional learning of their colleagues.

“I can also see that I actually had something a bit different to offer them... I was seeing things in a different way and asking questions that they wouldn’t have asked. And I can actually now see that in some of their research... Which - um, for me kind of validates my experience. That it’s not just me being in my own little place and having a very nice interesting, kind of stimulating kind of time, but actually it is of value to somebody other than just myself.” (F-ELTE 2)

Assisting others’ learning was associated with the teacher educators’ conceptualizations of themselves as professionals and of themselves as a resource for the learning of others. In this way choices in teaching and social engagement were related to perceiving a space to engage their own expertise as part of professional practice; to influence others, to reinforce their own positive conceptualizations of their own professional competencies.

5.1.4.4 Seeking assistance

Teacher educators also recognized within themselves a need for professional development and sought input from colleagues whose expertise they valued. Positive examples of joint work were described as being “very educative” and as a venue for dialogue, creative brainstorming and action that led to professional growth. Teacher educators sought assistance from within their local professional communities.

“I know there are some people, some friends and colleagues, I know they are always ready to step in and they are always, they have sort of very good innovations in mind. We often start by saying something like this, ‘Hmm, I have an idea, but I’m not sure whether that would work.’ And then she or he starts telling about it, and then we kind of start working it together...I have this feeling that I’m really safe with working with my colleagues and they are kind of a safe net, or something like that.” (F-ELTE 5)

Ideally, teacher educators suggested that collaborative work should be a simultaneous practice of both of resource agency and developmental agency being of mutual benefit to the individuals involved.

“We talk things over. She’s been teaching here for forever so you know I learn a lot from her and she’s very, very helpful. She gives me ideas, you know, what to read and things like that.... It’s wonderful. I think, you know, we all have our own contributions to bring forward.” (F-ELTE 6)

In addition, teacher educators also sought the opportunity to learn from other professionals at conferences and in wider national and international networks. “I always look at the participant list... And that's how some cooperation has started. I've just gone and introduced myself and said, 'I've read your work and can I ask for advice?'" (F-ELTE 4) Teacher educators enacted individual agency in soliciting, seeking out and pursuing others who were perceived to be knowledgeable in their fields.

5.1.5 Collective agency

In order to understand how collective agency mediated the individual learning of teacher educators, Pelenc’s (Pelenc et al., 2015) five step framework of the development of collective agency was employed as an analytical tool to identify collective agency in the teacher educators’ talk. The five-step process begins with a recognition of the individual's own professional agency. From this basis, the crucial steps in the development of collective agency are public discussion, convergence of interests, development of a common set of interests, and a choice of common objectives or goals for collective action. In the examples of the teacher educators’ collective agency given here, all five of these steps were evident in the teacher educators’ talk. In the Finnish data multiple examples of collective agency, progressing through discussion, convergence, development and a choice of common goals were described. These descriptions of collective agency often extended beyond Pelenc’s five steps, which conclude with the choice of a common objective for collective action, into descriptions of sustained collective action toward a common aim that continued over a period of years.

Examples of collective agency were many and diverse. All of the English-language teacher educators in Finland described experiences of collaboration and co-work with professional colleagues in which they were able to pursue and complete a collective action that resulted in the creation of something novel. The experiences of collective agency described varied in duration and perceived social impact, from co-authoring publications locally to working internationally to shape the development of language education in Europe. Notably, the teacher educators did not in every case describe their personal involvement as central, or themselves as being leaders within these groups. Rather, their descriptions share intentional, dialogic and participatory elements as the teacher educators engaged in discussions and became both sustainers and beneficiaries of collective actions. While collective agency can be understood from the position of leadership, professional collective agency is also experienced from the perspective of those

who, as participants, bring their individual agency to bear on the development of the collective.

5.1.5.1 Working on daily research and teaching

The most common expression of collective agency was in routine dialogue and joint decision-making to solve problems related to the student-teachers, to modify and adjust the language teacher education coursework and curriculum, or to create learning environments that benefited student-teachers' learning. Through regular meetings and discussion, the teacher educators described maintained an ongoing commitment to the joint aims of teacher education. This kind of collective agency focused on the formative nature of teacher education, and the sense that in working with others in the department or with school-based teacher educators to maintain. These activities were often in the form of co-teaching. Collective agency in the daily work of research and teaching was described as working with colleagues to maintain and incrementally improve the arrangements of regular routines for the benefit of student-teacher.

“We would find that over the years we developed a nice system, based on providing positive motivation for the students, encouraging them. And I suppose if that was co-operation, enough mutually supporting each other in order to boost the self-image of the teacher-student, then that worked very well.” (F-ELTE 1)

ELTEs described a sense that the routines of English language education are jointly sustained and developed over time. These shared professional practices become systematic in nature, and further the shared aims and objectives of supporting the student-teachers' professional learning. In addition, when cooperation between colleagues was described as successful, it was not only in the sense of individually providing learning support for the student-teacher, but also that the colleagues provided mutual support in order to achieve the shared goal of positively reinforcing the development of the student-teachers' professional identity.

5.1.5.2 Transforming English language education

A second expression of collective agency for the teacher educators was their engagement in the collaborative work of reshaping, informing or reforming language teaching practices or policies at the level of the university, schools and society. In working together to transform the routines of English education, the teacher educators worked together to create substantive changes related to the structure, purpose and practice of language teaching. Teacher educators sought to influence local language teacher education, national language policy and to improve language teaching at all levels. Through discussion, convergence, development and collective action, teacher educators and their colleagues worked together to create novel language education programs, local, national, international and longitudinal joint research projects to developing language education, educational interventions and publications meant to inform and innovate language education. Together teacher educators jointly identified

difficulties in language teaching and went about trying to solve them through collaborative action.

“We pretty soon formed a unity and a project group, and there were excellent people working in several schools... I got to know key people in the local area and then nationally and pretty soon internationally as well. So it was a quick start and like a snowball effect. Doing something, getting the results, publishing and then going into places... I sometimes felt like I was doing missionary work...” (F-ELTE 8)

In exercising agency to transform English education, the ELTEs evidenced the connection between individual agency and collective agency, as the teacher educator’s individual work is connected to the goals of the project group.

“It needs a totally new kind of thinking about when and how to teach other languages. And it’s something this department certainly has a lot of expertise in, and we are I think a national authority in language education policy issues here.” (F-ELTE 3)

Collective agency for transforming or reforming language education was related to themes of social impact and the collective expertise of colleagues in language education. The desire to shape, form, guide and have a say in the ongoing transformation of language teaching in nationally was described as something which was shared work. ELTEs described the collective agency of the department as able to draw together professional authority on the issues of language education and take action through writing and publishing in order to influence the development of language teaching.

5.1.5.3 Resisting and consolidating power

The final way that collective professional agency mediated the English language teacher educators’ professional learning was through resistance and consolidation of power among connected groups of professionals. Collective agency manifested as collective resistance to structural powers (e.g. the ministry or university administration) in response to perceived potential threats to the work and autonomy of the professional community. ELTEs came together with colleagues to create organized infrastructures and networks of professional practice which were intended to strengthen the networks of professional expertise in language education in the face of potential university restructuring and reform. Teacher educators responded to tensions between the government, the university structuration and the university teaching staff, in which language education at some universities may at some point be placed in jeopardy.

“Languages are taught at every university. A people of 5 million doesn’t need that, so they are going to at some point, the government probably is going to give up some of the language departments at some universities. And so obviously then we want to sort of try and influence that we are pretty powerful, we are pretty big, and we are quite, you know, you can’t abolish us.” (F-ELTE 4)

In gathering their collective agency, the teacher educators’ professional practice in relation to this collective action was imbued with a sense of professional

solidarity and the concentration of expertise as a force of power against the threat of impending university reform. These collective initiatives of resistance created stronger and more clearly defined networks between colleagues that were used to develop, for example joint research projects between colleagues who had not previously been aware of their shared research interests. In addition, this type of collective labor, which has a political aspect in the sense of having the goal of influencing the university's administrative decisions, created a boundary experience for individual teacher educators in which they oriented their professional decision-making in relation to the goals of the collective action, based upon their own professional convictions. "I so fervently believe that in this project, when they are so involved in education, education people should be along in the project. That's primarily why I'm present there." (F-ELTE 2) The desire to add one's voice to a collective decision-making process evidences the overlap between individual agency, that is the stances, choices and influence over others that the teacher educators desire to have over their work in the professional context, and collective agency, that is the process of dialogue and shared action that impacts the professional practices of individuals and the professional community as a whole.

5.1.6 Summary of the Finnish findings

Two related forms of professional learning were identified: inquiry learning and identity learning. Both forms of learning included aspects of dialogue, novelty, innovation and change. Resources and constraints for professional learning were also highly social in nature, the primary resource for learning being the collegial environment, which was characterized by mutuality, trust and vulnerability, leadership, friendship and serendipity. Likewise, constraints to professional learning revolved around the attitudes and attributes of colleagues, as well as the impact of the university infrastructure on facilitating communication between colleagues. Teacher educators in the Finnish context described experiences of both individual and collective agency, which they used to influence their work and professional communities and to express their professional identities.

5.2 Findings from the Japanese context

This section presents the findings from the Japanese context of teacher English language teacher educators' professional learning. It is organized according to the three research questions, beginning with the kinds of professional learning that were identified in the teacher educators talk about their professional work within various professional communities (5.2.1). The following subsections then present resources (5.2.2) and constraints (5.2.3) to professional learning. The last section explores the role of professional agency in mediating professional learning within professional communities, with consideration of individual agency (5.2.4) and collective agency (5.2.5).

The findings from the Japanese context demonstrate that professional learning, its resources and constraints, and the mediation of professional learning by professional agency are understood by ELTEs as a strongly individualized process. Throughout the descriptions of the findings in Japan, a conceptualization of professional learning emerges in which sustained individual effort and critical reflection is key to understanding how professional learning is given meaning by the teacher educators within their professional communities, and how professional learning is resourced and constrained by the social context.

5.2.1 Kinds of professional learning

This section presents the kinds of learning identified in English language teacher educators' professional communities in Japan. The main finding is that ELTEs in Japan valued autonomy in their work, and described professional learning as primarily an individual endeavor, pursued through reflection on their experiences and observations. Beginning from a stance of critical self-reflection and observation, J-ELTEs were attentive to the dynamics of their professional learning environments to seek ways to improve their own professional practice. In reflecting on interactions with students, school teachers and colleagues, J-ELTEs made intentional movements to improve on their individual strengths and weakness as professionals.

5.2.1.1 Critical self-reflection

Critical self-reflection was the process the J-ELTEs most often described in the development of their own professional practice. Self-reflection is a process of intentionally considering one's professional practice for the purpose of professional improvement. The critical and diagnostic nature of self-reflection as described by teacher educators in this study has similarities to the Japanese concept *hansei*, or 'critical self-reflection'. The teacher educators reflected on what they could do to improve their professional practice for the benefit of their students and to more fully fulfill the requirements of their jobs. Self-reflection was primarily described as reflection-on-action, in which the teacher educators considered their teaching with a critical eye to identify areas for improvement. Reflection happened when the teacher educator thought about his own classroom practice, how the students responded and then made a commitment to modifying or enriching practices in order to improve teaching. Intentional improvement was often linked to discussions of self-evaluation and the self-assessments required by the university.

Self-reflection was connected to formal evaluations, as an opportunity to critically consider the students' feedback on the teaching practice and the content of the lessons, "We reflect upon our teaching and what would be the merits of our lessons or the weak points of the lessons." (J-ELTE 9)

In addition to formal student evaluations, some teacher educators elicited written feedback from students after class. This served to initiate a process of

reflection for the students about the lesson, as well as a point of reflection for the teacher educator about the success of the lesson. Others wrote reflective notes for themselves "I also put down my classes, because I reflect... Every class I write my notes, just to remind myself what it is to process stuff, and it gives me clues for the next class of what are some of the deficiencies." (J-ELTE 16)

Dealing with deficiencies in one's teaching was a primary reason for practicing self-evaluative reflection. J-ELTEs expressed a sense of the need for continual improvement through reflection, "This is kind of self-reflective so I can easily - hopefully - adjust my teaching before it's too late." (J-ELTE 9)

Reflective practice also occupied the space between research and teaching. Doing classroom research allowed teacher educators to solicit writing from the students for use in research and teaching. Teacher educators used their classroom research or action research data to assess the students' learning trajectories in order to modify teaching. Being able to simultaneously develop research and teaching was described as positive for the teacher educators' motivation. "I collected all the documents and I thought about how to mediate that information. But I think I can reflect and try to make it more, kind of rich and updated for this particular group." (J-ELTE 14) In relation to career advancement, or in personal commitments to reflective practice, reflection occupied a place as part of the individual's effort toward committed self-improvement.

5.2.1.2 Experience and observation

Learning through experience and observation was evident in talk about current teaching as well as meaningful past experiences, for example studying abroad or training seminars. The teacher educators interpreted their experiences as part of their own personal learning trajectory, and through reflecting on these experiences were able to develop themselves as professionals. There was a general understanding that the older a person is, the more life experience that person has. Perceptions of specialized expertise were overlaid with discussions of seniority and experience.

"I also worked in a follower position when I was young. The degree of contribution will change depending on the teachers' age. If I work in a higher position, I have to have an objective perspective of matters and think how we can develop the university considering the government's orientation." (J-ELTE 7)

Learning through observation was described in a way similar to learning from experience, in that the teacher educators learned by watching and analyzing the teaching and learning experiences of others. Observing classroom teachers at schools as part of ongoing research in language education was the primary mode of learning through observation. In this way, doing research in schools was understood as providing teacher educators with opportunities to access learning environments in which they could achieve deeper understandings of language teaching and learning.

In some cases, there were opportunities for learning by observing the classes of other faculty members, "We observe one teachers' class and after that

we have a meeting for exchanging impressions, opinions and ideas. That is a very good opportunity.” (J-ELTE 3)

Learning by reading was also an important mode of professional learning (5/16). I here group reading with observation because learning through reading a proxy for personal experience or direct observation. “...I was not familiar with what was going on in elementary schools in those days, so I personally started to study by myself here by reading books about what is going on in other countries, including Finland and Korea, China.” (J-ELTE 10) Reading was also a way to expand one’s perspective about English language education.

“...But when I read the book it was kind of fascinating because it pointed out the kind of blind spots... And that the book enlightened some of the problems of that, so I started to think about, for example the power relationship in intercultural communication in English.” (J-ELTE 6)

The teacher educators drew on their own experiences and their observations of the experiences to enhance their professional learning.

5.2.1.3 Lecturing and listening

Teacher educators described being able to expand their perspectives by talking with and listening to knowledgeable colleagues. Talking with someone in a senior position provided was the primary opportunity to increase understanding.

“Yes, having a talk with [redacted]-sensei is very, very useful, because I see things from my own perspective. He sees things from a different perspective. By having a talk I can broaden my perspective. Maybe our view toward language learning or acquisition can be a little bit different, but by having a talk on the language acquisition thing I can learn a lot.” (J-ELTE 2)

A key aspect of the kinds of interaction described as useful, evidenced in this excerpt, was that neither the aim nor the result of the conversation is building consensus between the teacher educator and his colleagues. Nor is the aim to augment joint understandings of language learning and teaching. The benefit of the discussion is to augment the individual’s perceptions and conceptualizations, and in most cases the benefit of the discussion is for the subordinate.

Second, discussion was seen as developing professional knowledge through gaining a better understanding the work organization. This type of workplace learning through conversing with other staff was also perceived as primarily benefiting the individual teacher educators’ own understandings, rather than being described as building mutual expertise. This was orientation was complementary with the view teacher educators expressed that the individual pursuit of professional development was the primary way to contribute to organizational learning. “We are working individually, okay? We are doing our best in our own field. In that way, maybe we are cooperating, you see.” (J-ELTE 4) Obtaining information about the ways the university administration functioned or gaining knowledge of workplace politics through discussion helped the teacher educators better situate their own work within the structure of the university.

“They showed me, especially the office staff, they helped me a lot. They showed me how to register my email address and so on, how to use the budget, that kind of thing. And I didn’t know quite well about the institute itself, those who have been working here for a long time told me some brief history of the institute and some of the problems they were faced with at that time, so they helped me a lot.” (J-ELTE 10)

5.2.2 Resources for professional learning

This section presents the findings to the question *What are the resources for English language teacher educators’ professional learning within their professional communities in Japan?* The findings describe the resources for the kinds of learning that the teacher educators themselves described as important for their own professional development (critical self-reflection, experience and observation, lecturing and listening). The primary resource for professional learning was funding that provided the opportunity for teacher educators to pursue their own research interests through the purchase of books and materials travel for research and conferences and to hire research assistants. The second most cited resource was academic freedom. The teacher educators felt they were free to teach and pursue the research interests that they found personally engaging, free from interference either from the university or from colleagues. The third resource can be understood as vertical alliance, that is using hierarchical relationships to further one’s learning opportunities. Teacher educators also used their institutional affiliations as a resource for professional learning.

5.2.2.1 Financial support

Money was the primary resource teacher educators received for developing research and teaching. Grants from the Ministry of Education, university administration and departments were the primary support for developing research. The majority of the teacher educators in this study (10/16) had been awarded or participated in multi-year Ministry of Education grants. This funding with seen as a central piece of the resource that was used to develop the teacher educators professional work and to assist their professional learning.

Financial support in terms of funding was valued in terms of the discretionary freedom as the use of the funds, research and teaching as individual pursuits, and the amount of money provided through various sources. The teacher educators were able to use these grants quite freely at their own discretion. “I can use the money for any purpose.” (J-ELTE 4) Funds were used for research travel (7/16), conferences (6/16), to hire research assistants (5/16), purchase materials and books (3/16). “I get a research budget from the university which I can use quite freely... It’s enough to buy a nice supply of books... I’m going to use my research budget to pay students to do the transcription and so on.” (J-ELTE 5) In addition, some purchased technology such as computers or software for doing the research (2/16). “We can buy everything that is necessary, for example like this magazine. Of course, we can buy things like this for both students and research. And also, SPSS.” (J-ELTE 7).

Obtaining financial support for research was linked in the language teacher educators’ talk to the perception of research as an individual pursuit. “As far as

I'm concerned, I'm doing individual, independent research. So, I seldom get support of other colleagues here." (J-ELTE 4) When prompted about other kinds of support for research development, such as from the professional community, some teacher educators emphasized that financial support was the only external support for developing research. "I cannot think of anything besides the funding grant. Because I feel like when doing the research, I feel like conducting the research is kind of an individual thing to do." (J-ELTE 6)

Discretion of how to use research funds was also key to the teacher educators' value of financing as a resource for learning. The language teacher educators in this study generally described having sufficient funds pursue their work. "The Ministry of Education grants tend to be pretty generous. So, you can get a lot done if what you are doing requires money, you can get the money" (J-ELTE 5).

5.2.2.2 Academic freedom

Academic freedom in determining one's research and teaching was the second most cited resource for professional learning. Most teacher educators in this study expressed that they had a great deal of freedom in determining their own teaching and research. The university structure allowed freedom to determine the organization of their teaching and research. This freedom was especially valued at the university level as a contrast to what teacher educators had experienced working as school teachers. The teacher educators described this freedom in terms of what they were able to teach, for example as a contrast between university coursework and junior high school coursework. "As for college textbooks there is no censorship, you can write whatever you want... You can teach them however you like. My way is that I focus on theory." (J-ELTE 12)

The teacher educators described wide-ranging freedom to design the contents of their courses according to their students' needs and their own interests; "We have total freedom." (J-ELTE 2) Academic freedom also came in the form of flexibility to work from different places, and to determine one's own schedule to some extent. Freedom of movement and scheduling was a support to developing teaching. "Well strictly speaking on Friday I sort of stay here, but I can spend time in [the place I live] studying or researching, you know. That kind of academic freedom is a great support for me." (J-ELTE 1)

5.2.2.3 Vertical alliance

Teacher educators used the unequal, asymmetrical and hierarchical power relations between themselves and their juniors and seniors to resource their own professional learning. The term 'vertical alliance' is taken from Lebra's (1976) explanation of the power dynamics at play between juniors and seniors within the traditional hierarchies of Japanese society. The teacher educators in the Japanese context (both Japanese and international) utilized unequal power relations as a resource for their own professional learning. In situations where a socially recognized hierarchy was present, for example based on mother tongue, *senpai-kohai* (senior-junior), professor-student, male-female, etc., teacher

educators were able to develop positive working relationships which assisted their own professional learning.

Vertical alliances demonstrated the complexity and intersectionality of social hierarchies along the lines of nationality, gender, and mother tongue. These dynamics often existed at the intersectionality of multiple identities (male-female, foreign-Japanese, etc.). In one instance, a male early-career foreign teacher educator described his working relationship with a female senior Japanese colleague. The following account demonstrates the push and pull that Lebra (1976) describes in the superior-inferior relationship, in which both parties within the vertical alliance receive mutual benefit.

“If you are working with a Japanese colleague and you write a paper in Japanese, it’s very helpful to have a Japanese colleague do it with you. And then vice versa when we write a paper in English it’s helpful for them to have me... There is one colleague in particular, my *senpai*, in the department. When I first came here, she would ask me to participate in her research, which I did. And then when I started learning the ropes of the job, and then I would start asking her to participate with me.” (J-ELTE 11)

In another case, a mid-career Japanese female teacher educator described her working research and teaching relationship with a foreign male colleague. Again, the issue of language proficiency played a central role in their working relationship. “These days I almost always do research with [my male foreign colleague] ...so we collaborate quite well. And since he’s a native speaker of English and we write mostly in English, he can make our papers beautiful and grammatically correct.” (J-ELTE 13)

Mentors often played a meaningful role in furthering professional development throughout professional careers. “My mentor... is a powerful person, and I was kind of impressed and attracted by him when I came to this university... We are very close to each other and we can talk about English language education...and my research regularly.” (J-ELTE 6) In addition to finding support from mentors, the teacher educators were resourced by students in the form of student feedback and participation in research projects. Students’ impressions were valued in relation to the teacher educators’ teaching practices. “Sometimes they write good things which makes me feel good. Sometimes they write negative things, but that’s also - they are always right, you know? They are always right. Not only teaching skills but teaching content.” (J-ELTE 9) In cases where the J-ELTEs had graduate students, their work was also seen to support the professors’ work in a mutually beneficial exchange.

“I ask my graduate students to help me analyze the data. Actually, I ask them to feed the results into the computer system and I do the analysis. But I pay for the work by the graduate students and they are very glad because... they need money. So, I have money and in return for the work they have contributed to my work.” (J-ELTE 4)

Vertical alliance was also referenced in the ways that relationships with school teachers, particularly former students, were seen as a resource for professional learning. While expressing gratitude for the teachers’ support in developing their research and informing their practice, the teacher educators were also mindful

that classroom observations represented an obligation of time and assistance on the part of the teachers. As J-ELTE 3 indicated in discussing the primary supports for his professional learning:

“As I said I also often observe other professional teachers’ classrooms. I go to their schools and observe their classes. I video tape, and so before I go to the school, I ask them to cooperate for my study. So that is also support from professional teachers... Professional teachers at schools where I visit - to have interviews or observe their classes - they are also very busy in their daily routine, with their students. It’s quite a hard thing to ask for them to have time for my research; that they give me a lot of support, even though they are busy. So in that time I always feel that even though they have a lot of things to do, they are busy, so in that sense I feel like I get a lot of support in spite of their heavy schedule. They give me lots of time.” (J-ELTE 3)

J-ELTEs were mindful of the need for reciprocity in employing others for their professional learning, particularly those who would feel an obligation to assist based on their positionality. This reciprocity is a central feature of vertical alliance as a resource for professional learning. This reciprocal dynamic is addressed further in the exploration of J-ELTE’s enactments of professional agency in making and responding to requests in sections 5.2.4.2 and 5.2.4.3.

5.2.2.4 Institutional affiliations

Teacher educators used previous and current institutional affiliations as a resource for their own professional learning. Attending the same university or teaching together at the same school created bonds of trust and shared perspectives forged through mutual educational or workplace experiences. Bonds with former professional colleagues and university alumni from former places of work or schooling were used for research and professional development. Teacher educators in this study often maintained professional connections and relationships with former work colleagues and schoolmates. Further, these relationships continued to be a part of the social networks that the teacher educators felt to be part of their current professional communities, and they drew on these relationships for their own professional learning.

Shared institutional affiliations often meant that, in addition to sharing a similar academic background, they may also be of a similar age.

“Well, actually, my friend at [another Japanese] University got the PhD from the same [university in America] where I received my PhD. And the other one, she is teaching at [redacted] University, which is a private university in another city in Japan, and she did her, I think master’s, too and PhD at the University of [redacted] in America. And I did my master’s degree there, so we were kind of, we know each other in the association, and we have kind of the same background. And then we are around the same age and we share the same interest.” (J-ELTE 6)

Further, as J-ELTE 6 says, “we know each other in the association,” shared membership in professional academic communities was a resource for occasions of professional learning. Institutional affiliation is here interpreted to include the formally organized academic societies and affiliations such as regional and national teacher’s associations and language associations, such as JALT and

JACET. These shared memberships created spaces and occasions for professional learning. Furthermore, professional relationships and communities J-ELTEs developed through other institutional affiliations (i.e. former schools, alumni universities) were often supported and sustained within these professional academic associations.

“For the past two years I’ve been doing a symposium at the JACET conference [...] and I am collaborating with other university professors. And how did I meet them? Well, one of the university professors, when I lived in [northern Japan], he was a high school English teacher. Now he is a university teacher, but he was a high school English teacher, and we were drinking buddies. So presenting at this conference is a way for us to meet again and hang out again.” (J-ELTE 11)

Even in cases where those with shared institutional affiliation were of different generations, having attended the same university created a sense of trust and comfort.

“My colleague actually, she’s a graduate of [the same university I attended], too... I guess we are friends, we trust each other. We had a kind of a high level of trust when we started, so it’s always been very comfortable for me to talk to her.” (J-ELTE 11)

Current institutional affiliations were also used as resources for professional learning. The prestige or clout of certain universities could be used to gain access to research sites, particularly schools. Several of the universities include in the present study were well renowned locally, regionally or nationally (4/10 universities). The prestige of having an institutional affiliation could be used to gain access to particular research sites. In one example, the boards of education responded favorably to research requests, based on university affiliation. “Being at a University of Education opens a lot more doors for conducting field research than other universities...the boards of education... are more likely to say yes than to other researchers just because of the name of the university.” (J-ELTE 8)

5.2.3 Constraints to professional learning

This section presents the findings to the question *What are the constraints to English language teacher educators’ professional learning within their professional communities in Japan?* Constraints are understood here as the interpersonal, structural and material hindrances to the kinds of learning described in section 5.2.1 (critical self-reflection; experience & observation; lecturing & listening). The findings show that the primary constraints for the teacher educators in Japan were 1) time 2) differences in colleagues’ background and beliefs and 3) expertise and embarrassment.

5.2.3.1 Time

The most cited constraint to learning among the teacher educators was a lack of time for developing teaching and research. The tension between determining for one’s self how to allot one’s time for the development of one’s own professional competencies and the requirements of the profession as dictated by social

obligations or by university evaluation criteria was the overriding theme in the teacher educators' discussion of time as a constraint to professional learning. In their discussions of time as a constraint to professional learning, the teacher educators positioned themselves in relation to the academic systems within which they work and placed the onus for overcoming time constraints on themselves and their personal motivation to persevere despite constraints presented by work obligations determined by the university.

Characteristic of the teacher educators' discussions of time constraints was the perception that many duties were required by the university as part of the teacher educator's professional practice. Because professional learning was viewed by the teacher educators primarily as a result of individual effort, and because the most acknowledged evidence of learning was by increasing one's own disciplinary knowledge, the most salient issue for the teacher educators was not having enough time to pursue one's own reading and research. At many universities in Japan university academic staff, including teacher educators, are evaluated based on the following criteria: teaching, research, administrative duties and (in some cases) contributions to the local community. Many of the teacher educators in this study (9/16) expressed that they did not have sufficient time to engage in all of these areas to the best of their ability. Furthermore, the teacher educators did not value each of these areas equally as contributing to their own professional learning. Teacher educators expressed that there was not enough time for research because of competing professional demands, although they maintained a desire to focus more on research.

"Time for doing research is quite limited. So actually, I want to have more time to spend time for my research. Monday this week a new semester started and at the very beginning of this semester I decided I will do my research every day... I will create time for my research every day for at least one or two hours...but even though I decided to create my research time, since the semester started, I don't have enough time."
(J-ELTE 3)

Finding time to do research was a tension which resulted from competing professional demands but should potentially be solved in the future through one's own purposeful efforts. Teacher educators placed their own research in the balance with their commitments to teaching and community involvement. Being asked to provide advice and assistance to local schools was a matter of professional pride, which to some degree affirmed the value of their professional contribution to English language education in the local community. However, university teaching and community involvement also required a lot of time; time that the teacher educators felt decreased their time for pursuing their own research agendas.

"For me the research has a high priority, for me, but in reality, I have to teach English classes... I have to read in advance, so it takes a lot of time to prepare for the class. Also, I'm often invited as a kind of lecturer or a core researcher by the board of education in (this) city or another city around this area, so it's good for me to learn or know what is going on in actual classrooms... and have an opportunity to talk with actual teachers... And English language education in Japan is now trying to be communicative, so some people are interested in my way of thinking, or my work, so they ask me

to come and I'm kind of invited. So that's good for me, but again, it takes a lot of time." (J-ELTE 6)

Although it was evident that the teacher educators made meaning from their experiences teaching and community involvement as part of their professional development, teacher educators also expressed that they valued personally their own research agendas as avenues for their professional learning. However, there remains a tension between the time spent on research and time spent on other professional activities, despite the indication that for some teacher educators community activities contribute meaningfully to their professional learning as well.

"The biggest obstacles are finding time for research. Teaching; and as you have seen I have many classes to teach. And I also serve as a school principal.... It's not so meaningful things, but I must be there as the principal... You never get bored. Something is always happening in schools... We can see the things and the students from many aspects. That's one thing that I learned. You can see the education from different viewpoints. But that ends up taking my time." (J-ELTE 9)

Others expressed the tensions surrounding work obligations, "I don't feel much satisfaction, because this is one of my duties. So, I'm quite happy if I am excused from this work. It's voluntary, of course... At this age, I have to do such kind of job for those associations." (J-ELTE 4) Various professional obligations took time away from the teacher educators' research. J-ELTE 4's excerpt outlines above the tension that while participation in the particular associations is "voluntary" it is also the case that participation is "part of my duties." This ambiguity regarding work that seemed to be both voluntary and also required was manifest in the teacher educators descriptions of how they manage their time. In the case of J-ELTE 4, participation is an expectation of his work because of his age, expertise and position at the university. Further, teacher educators were at times required to travel to other cities to attend meetings, which took time away from research.

The teacher educators' descriptions of time as a constraint to their professional learning displayed tensions between the universities' numerous expectations and the intentions of the teacher educators to allocate time for research and lesson planning. Teacher educators often found that professional obligations, particularly administrative and managerial duties, left them without adequate time to dedicate to research or study.

5.2.3.2 Differences in background and beliefs

The second most cited constraint (9/16) was tensions with university teachers whose professional backgrounds were not in education. Differences in disciplinary background left teacher educators feeling that they lacked a common starting point to enter productive conversations about developing English language education at the level of personal or departmental practice. Differences in professional background, educational background and professional experience was seen as a barrier to building on practice-based professional learning within the professional community.

In most universities in Japan, there are between one and five teachers responsible for the English language teaching methodology courses. At half of the universities in this study, there were two teacher educators responsible for such courses. The national curriculum mandates language teaching methodology courses as well as linguistics and literature courses. This formalized structure was relevant in the teacher educators' descriptions of the obstacles to developing their teaching.

First, other faculty did not have experience teaching in schools, nor were they knowledgeable about language pedagogy, despite also being English teachers. Other faculty were generally perceived as being experts in areas such as literature or linguistics and primarily interested in things besides developing English language teacher education. The language teacher educators felt that the differing backgrounds and research interests of people in the department meant that their colleagues were not potential resources for developing their own pedagogical practices. Further, the other teachers' interests in their own research areas seemed to preclude a desire to participate or to respond to the solicitations from their teacher educator colleagues.

"Well, one of the problems I felt, honestly, is many teachers who work at the college of education majored in pure sciences, in the humanities and so on, or science department. I experienced teacher training programs as a student, but their situation is quite different. So, for instance, a person who majored in literature believes that anything related to education is not his matter. And everything related to English education should be left to us, to the two of us. So in this case they are not interested to responding to your request, only the two of us. I cannot say they ignore educational factors, but they want to concentrate on researching their own interests." (J-ELTE 1)

A distinction between themselves as "the education people" and the other English teaching staff was recurrent in the teacher educators' discussions of shared practices within their departments.

"I should explain one thing about our department. Our department has three divisions. So, there are nine people, nine right now, three literature people, three education people - I'm one of those. So in terms of real collaboration, the *kyoiku* (education) people are the only ones I could realistically expect to have a really good conversation with in terms of teaching practice...because no one else has an education background." (J-ELTE 5)

Teacher educators expressed difficulty having productive conversation about teaching practice with departmental colleagues. Clear divisions of responsibility were made between the teachers of linguistics, literature and those responsible for teacher education. Teacher educators expressed as sense of limitation to developing practices across the curriculum. "They see themselves, I mean first of all they are great people. But they see themselves as experts in their fields, and teacher education is what I'm supposed to do and what my colleague is supposed to do." (J-ELTE 11)

The distinctions between people's specialties implicates a division of labor that impacts how university teachers and professors related to each other within the department, as well as how they valued one another's expertise. The structure

of the university departments was perceived influencing the interpersonal dynamics of the workplace and how people feel resourced or potentially constrained by the expertise of their colleagues. Interacting with colleagues to further develop one's own teaching or language learning at the department more generally was constrained in part because of the different specializations and interests of the faculty.

In addition to a barrier to developing teaching practice, having different professional backgrounds or disciplinary perspectives was mentioned as a barrier to developing joint research projects, or even as a barrier to simply being able to have meaningful conversations with one's colleagues about one's research. In describing the difficulties of discussing language teaching with other colleagues, J-ELTE 8 described his views as such: "In terms of research, difference of background, difference of skills. I tend to work in more psychology, psycholinguistics, kind of vein of things where as other teachers have actually said, 'I don't believe in psychology.'" (J-ELTE 8)

Differing professional beliefs about language education was another constraint to professional learning. Teacher educators (8/16) said that differing philosophies of English language education were a reason attempted co-teaching or curricular reform was unsuccessful. The teacher educators expressed having fundamentally different philosophies regarding the purposes and methods of English language teaching from their colleagues. When talking about the constraints for professional learning within their professional communities, teacher educators described instances where they had made an attempt to develop classes together (4/16), to co-teach (2/16) or develop coordinated programs in the curriculum in order to develop student competencies and in a particular direction (4/16). However, in the cases where these endeavors were perceived as unsuccessful, the teacher educators most frequently said that there were disagreements about differing approaches to the methods of language teaching.

Differences of philosophy about language education presented a constraint to professional learning by creating barriers to dialogue and shared practice between colleagues. Tensions were evident in the teacher educators' description of the source and legitimacy various teaching philosophies and professional expertise. Further tensions were described around faculty beliefs and practices regarding the medium of instruction; i.e. whether to use English or Japanese to teach English at the university level.

"We disagree very fundamentally on the nature of teaching... He believed, and still believes, that the primary goal of what we are doing is to make it as fun as possible and that students shouldn't have expectations put upon them... And he goes back to the course of study guidelines and he points to the fact that it is supposed to build interest in foreign countries and make students interested in studying foreign languages. And if it's fun they will do it. Whereas I tend to go back to a much broader field of research that says that without some kind of underlying proficiency nothing is fun. That without good organization on the part of the teacher, even if something is fun nothing will come of it. That on the whole, if you don't use English in the classroom, that if the teacher doesn't use English in the classroom, the students won't. Whereas he takes the perspective that to teach English you don't need to use English at all. I mean he has actually said that." (J-ELTE 8)

In fact, the most commonly cited point of contention between teacher educators and their colleagues regarding English language pedagogy was medium of instruction. Teacher educators reported multiple and conflicting views about how the faculty should use English in teaching English content courses (i.e. English pedagogy, English linguistics, English literature, etc). The other university teachers' choice to teach in English was viewed as having an impact on the teacher educators' professional practice. Because the whole of the student-teachers' university preparation was understood by the teacher educators to be a joint effort by the entire department, the amount of time that the students were exposed to English was a function of the pedagogical choices of the other university teachers. Limited instructional time in English thus became a limiting factor for the development of students' language proficiency, which in turn constrained the teacher educators' own pedagogical practice based on the limited proficiency of their students.

"The problem related to [the student-teachers' English limited language proficiency] is special courses are taught in Japanese at the university... So that's a challenge for us. When I teach at the graduate level, when the students' English proficiency is so high, then we feel comfortable using English in that class. But when we teach the subjects to the freshmen or sophomores, who do not feel comfortable using English, then that is a problem... So, we have to switch into Japanese. That's like a vicious cycle." (J-ELTE 1)

The centrality of subject-matter content as well as the contested nature of medium of instruction are both apparent. English is seen as a mediating factor between the students and the educational content of the university classes. To the extent that using English as a medium for instruction impedes rather than assists students' developing understanding of meanings, the teacher Educators felt that the pedagogical purposes of the lessons were better served by using Japanese. This was expressed as a tension between the ideal and the practical, recognizing that the classes should be taught "ideally 100% in English," (J-ELTE 2) but also that they themselves have not been able to attain this ideal because of the limited proficiency of their students.

The pedagogical choice to lecture primarily in Japanese was based on the student's' English proficiency. Yet the ability to lecture in Japanese allowed some teacher educators a wider range of pedagogical choices for developing teaching practice. In this way, tensions surrounding medium of instruction were also described from the perspective that teaching English using Japanese is not the obstacle, but rather the solution, and those teachers who are not able to use Japanese in their pedagogical repertoire are hindered in their teaching practice.

"The teaching material itself is in English, but if I lecture in English that's way too high level for them. So I just lecture in Japanese. I think that native speakers (of English)-like [my colleague] have more problems in teaching content classes because if he teaches content classes in English, you know, nobody can get it. So, I can always use Japanese, so no problem with that." (J-ELTE 13)

J-ELTEs described difficulties coming to an agreement within the department over a standardized language of instruction during their curriculum planning meeting.

“I don’t know if I have to tell you this or not, but teachers have different teaching philosophies. And I have no problem working with [my teacher educator colleague] and we have developed very good background and curriculum, I believe. But some teachers don’t think it’s the way that we have to go... So talking about teachers’ training, student-teachers’ training, we have TESOL one, two, three, four, but we had a huge discussion that these courses are taught in English. So we have to add four more courses taught in Japanese because the situation of language education in Japan now is like, ‘Japan is different.’ (J-ELTE 15)

Tensions over the national context of English language teaching, the methods of language teaching as well as the objectives of language teaching spilled over into curricular decisions for the J-ELTEs. “Content-wise they believe the content should basically be if you can explain grammatical points in Japanese that’s sufficient. Where we just think, yeah, but nobody’s going to speak English.” (J-ELTE 16)

A main objective of English language teacher education in Japan stated by the J-ELTEs was that the student-teachers should be competent and confident in speaking English. This objective was reiterated by all of the teacher educators in this study (16/16). However, other faculty members in the departments were described as not particularly sharing their concern for spoken proficiency, or even if other colleagues were in agreement, there was not always departmental consensus about shared pedagogical strategies toward fulfilling that aim. Teacher educator 11 said this directly, indicating that while he and the other English language teacher educator in his department had reached a consensus about the shared aims of their teaching for their students, he would have liked to see a “broader” “department wide” and clearly stated “standard” regarding the competency goals for the student-teachers.

5.2.3.3 Contested expertise and embarrassment

The previous section discussed constraints to J-ELTEs professional learning related to the teacher educators’ perceptions of the content of their colleagues’ professional expertise and beliefs about teaching. These constraints of professional background and belief can be summarized as sharing an intra-personal aspect; they are described as emanating from colleagues’ professional orientations and professional limitations. This section addresses constraints to learning stemming from the interpersonal relational aspects of collegial interactions and the emotional content of respecting one another’s professional expertise in the social surround.

The tension between self as learner and self as master-expert within the professional community and was apparent in the teacher educators’ interviews. These tensions of professional identity created constraints for the teacher educators within their professional communities in terms of dialoguing with colleagues about continuing or further professional development. Likewise, a

tension was apparent in conflict between the teacher educators' perception of professional practice as learning and professional practice as performance.

Tensions surrounding professional expertise were expressed by the teacher educators in terms of emotion and affect, particularly in negative terms of irritation and embarrassment. Respecting one another's position and expertise thus centered around the interpersonal relationships between colleagues, and how professionals should interact with one another based on the achievement and expertise implied by their position. When discussing their colleagues' perceived lack of expertise, the teacher educators often made clear that there was a collegial atmosphere within the department and positive feeling among the colleagues. In most cases, they felt the need to emphasize that the professional relationships and collegial atmosphere were valued and remained intact. Further, while recognizing their colleagues' perceived pedagogical limitations, they expressed a desire to avoid arguments or contradictions that would harm the working relationship.

Thus, teacher educators described refraining from airing or raising sensitive questions about how or what the other university teachers were teaching, even if the teacher educators had a sense that the other university teachers' practice was having a negative impact on the overall performance of students within department and thus impacting their own teaching practice. Rather than run the risk of embarrassing a colleague or face the arduous task of bringing more work on themselves by challenging the expertise of another, they refrained from asking other faculty about their teaching practice.

J-ELTEs' articulations of their own professional competence in relation to the competence of others was evident in comments such as, "I know the situation and I know what I'm doing" (J-ELTE 12); "I was in here before. So I have many feelings. Thus, I know many things." (J-ELTE 7); "So my responsibility as a university professor is... how should I put it, not to educate, but to sensitize teachers to new knowledge about English language education." (J-ELTE 4); "Whereas some other professors, with a narrower background and a more traditional educational background might feel themselves constrained to try something that is really radically different... the way I do a course or the way I try to structure things might introduce something new, especially to students." (J-ELTE 11). These comments demonstrate the teacher educators' sense of themselves as knowledgeable professionals in their field. In combination with these statements, the teacher educators also expressed a sense that learning was primarily an individual pursuit.

The process of becoming professionally knowledgeable was related to perceptions of age and the development of mastery over time.

"This is only my own personal interpretation, but I think the way in which people learn (in Japan) may be a bit different. The perception of the knower is more prevalent through things like age. So, 'you are older and more experienced, therefore you must possibly know more' kind of culture... It's just a kind of perception of what an experienced person may know. Things like wisdom. It comes with experience but also with age and the social hierarchy within an institution... You sort of become a knower through living." (J-ELTE 14)

The development of expertise was not only related to individual perceptions of competence. To a greater extent, the perception of professional expertise was connected to the role of the university in promoting and assessing professional learning. Assessment of expertise presented as a central issue for the teacher educators in their discussions of professional learning within the contexts of their universities. Institutional involvement in professional learning in the forms of both university teacher evaluations and Faculty Development (FD) were considered to have marginal value for the J-ELTEs professional learning. Further, formal evaluations and FD became sites of tension wherein professional expertise was challenged by colleagues and the administration. Thus, university's intentional involvement in formal development and formal assessment viewed not as contributing in truly meaningful ways to the teacher educators' professional learning.

Formal evaluation was discussed by 11/16 teacher educators in Japan in terms of the tensions about on-going job assessment by the university. As discussed previously in the findings, self-evaluation through personal reflection was a primary way that teacher educators understood their own professional learning. However, similar to the tension between determining for one's self how to allocate time for professional learning while also meeting professional obligations from the university, evaluation was described in terms of a tension between formative self-evaluation as part of professional learning and being assessed for promotion, salary, bonuses or even simply given praise according to criteria determined by the university. In the worst case, the assessment criteria was described as "unfair" (J-ELTE 9) and contrasted strongly with the type of formative assessment which aids learning through personal reflective practice. In the best cases, J-ELTEs were able to successfully use the formal evaluation for their own reflection in order to fulfill personal learning objectives. However in the majority of descriptions, the teacher educators' reactions to the university evaluation systems ranged from neutral to negative. While J-ELTEs valued formative assessment, they expressed a concern that the amount of effort and work they invest in their teaching was not sufficiently considered as part of the evaluation.

"Well, I feel like it's very difficult to evaluate the quality of the teachers' efforts and contributions based on points. Because the teaching is, I think, collaborative work not individual achievement. So I think we should give up calculating points and evaluate our efforts and contributions because evaluations should be more constructive more, not negatively incentivized but positively incentivized. By going through the evaluation process I can probably learn, 'Ah, okay these points I have to put more efforts into making this point better.' So if I notice it and if I learn something from the evaluation process that would be okay. But just calculating points doesn't tell you much information about it. And also if they are going to use those points calculated unfairly as my grade, it's kind of, you know, I feel even silly." (J-ELTE 6)

University professors were seen as reluctant to accept and act on negative feedback from the university or students. J-ELTEs anticipated the potential embarrassment of senior colleagues from evaluations and reluctance to modify or change teaching practices based on external assessments. Avoiding

professional embarrassment, or saving face, is important aspect of navigating interpersonal collegial relationships.

“Nobody wants to be judged. I’ve repeatedly opened my class up to others and they don’t take me up on it because they know that they don’t want other people going there, to their classes. Because I’ve asked and they’ve said no. People don’t necessarily want to change their ways. They don’t want to change what they are doing. Because they don’t want to be assessed on it, on their teaching. When you bring up the idea of like a lesson study -- and we have to do one every year, so everyone ends up having to have their classroom open. And so we all go to the class and we all watch it. But generally teachers schedule it at a time when they know nobody else can go. So like, they look at the overall schedule and they see, ‘Okay! Everyone’s got class third period Monday. We’re doing my class third period Monday!’ And so they generally create as many disincentives to be judged as possible. And I’ve had teachers tell me that, ‘I was hoping nobody would show up.’” (J-ELTE 8)

Faculty Development presented another site of contention over collegial expertise. FD programs at public universities are designed to promote observation and discussion of pedagogical practice among university teachers as a part of professional learning. FD programs generally included annual or bi-annual teaching symposia and lesson study, meant for “exchanging impressions, opinions, ideas” (J-ELTE 3). J-ELTEs expressed the perception that the university administration seemed to believe that university teachers would benefit professionally from opportunities to develop their pedagogical expertise as a community through discussion, dialogue and exchange with their colleagues.

However, despite the official perspective that professors could develop their professional expertise through collegial exchange about teaching practice, the teacher educators in this study expressed high levels of ambivalence about the utility of FD for their own professional learning. This ambivalence was expressed in relation Faculty Development as forced and a waste of time due to the lack of pedagogical expertise of the other faculty participating in FD. Further, J-ELTEs indicated that the emotional load of saving face during FD prohibited gainful discussion.

A central aspect of the J-ELTEs ambivalence towards FD was its mandatory nature and the sense that they would rather be spending time on their own work. “Three years ago, I was a member of the FD committee, so I was kind of forced to. But, yeah forced to go. But now I’m not a member, and I’m not forced to, so I just don’t go.” (J-ELTE 6) And although FD was described as “a very good opportunity” that is “quite good for us if we are really involved in that kind of stuff,” at the same time it was described as “But actually, it’s another time killing thing, for research, actually.” (J-ELTE 3) The sense that FD was a waste of time was further related to differences in professional and educational background.

“Less than half of us actually attend [...] I think it’s a kind of a waste of time, for me. Yeah, it’s just a general thing, what they are doing. They are doing research in other fields. [...] if you really want to learn a specific teaching method or how we can make our classes very effective, we can’t learn a lot just by attending FD. That’s the point. But we can learn something even from homeless people, so just being there can mean something, we can learn something.” (J-ELTE 2)

Collegial lack of background in education and pedagogy was also related to the emotional load of being judged by others.

“I told you about the observation lesson that we are forced to do once a year. The linguistics guys were really, really upset about it. Because they’ve never been observed before. It’s never happened. And their idea of observation, because again they are not so much an educational background, is that they will be criticized and given advice.” (J-ELTE 5)

Faculty development was placed in tension with not only with saving face as a part of Japanese culture, but also with the concept of “classroom as kingdom” and the sovereignty of the teacher in the domain of his expertise.

“...We try not to disturb other people’s teaching. We kind of try to keep a distance between each other and not to intervene with other teachers... Having your class is kind of your kingdom, so that’s kind of a realization of your thoughts or your specialties within the classroom. So that’s one of the things. And the second thing is probably embarrassment. If other people come in and they are watching your class you feel embarrassed, especially because if you cannot teach properly you lose face, kind of. So I don’t think many professors want to disclose their teaching classes to other people. I don’t know if this is related to Japanese culture or not, but this is the way we feel. Even though the university wants us to look at each other’s’ classes as a part of the Faculty Development.” (J-ELTE 6)

Issues of saving face and the emotions about respecting one another's expertise, conflict avoidance, avoidance of embarrassment or negative emotional exchanges between colleagues was inextricably linked with the teacher educators’ sense of themselves as “knowers” and respecting the (limited) expertise of their colleagues as a constraint to professional learning within their professional communities.

“I think that what is taken as important is just to be there at the FD, rather than really, truly communicate, and share their thoughts and ideas. Maybe as you said it’s causally involved in the Japanese language. Discussion and argument is always very similar. The difference in opinions may be the start of causing quarrels. That’s one thing that somehow Japanese culture would not accommodate. We cannot imagine that people would have a very severe discussion and in the next moment be getting on like friends. We can’t imagine that. Once that relationship is terminated by the fierce discussion, we no longer look at each other. That won’t happen. Getting involved in discussion. So we just end up with a lot of superficial talk rather than discussion.” (J-ELTE 9)

J-ELTEs not only sought to avoid humiliating colleagues, they also held the expectation that their colleagues maintain an attitude of humility with respect to their work. Teacher educators described a feeling of annoyance when another professor would present themselves as being an expert. A lack of humility in relation to one’s own expertise was viewed as bragging and was not respected. Further, lack of humility precluded interested in listening to the professional insights other colleagues might share because the attitude of superiority is found to be obnoxious. Addressing the difficulties of sharing expertise between colleagues was explained in terms of emotional responses, representing a tension between the teacher educator’s own expertise and colleagues’ expertise as a

potentially emotionally charged encounter and thus as a constraint to shared practice.

"I personally cannot so much stand when people are talking some knowledge, sort of showing off and bragging about their knowledge. Especially so when I know those things. I cannot. 'Stop talking. I know that,' Or maybe it's something that I don't know, but I think, 'Well, that may be so'... And they talk on and on and on to show off what they know. 'I know everything, and you don't talk' kind of attitude, which I cannot stand." (J-ELTE 9)

Another facet of the emotional load of respecting a colleague's expertise was in making sure not to embarrass or make someone lose face, even in the case when the J-ELTEs doubted their colleagues' expertise. Thus, even in cases where the J-ELTEs would have liked to address certain pedagogical issues with their colleagues, they described choosing to refrain from potential conflicts.

"I speak quietly, but for example in my English teaching classes, for the past, last week and the week before I did a lot on pronunciation. But students are learning pronunciation from our linguistics guy, so they should know where the tongue goes and how to move the lips and all that. But I've noticed that their pronunciation is awful.... I would love to know what the linguistics guy is doing. I would really love to know, and I'd love to collaborate with him a little bit more." (J-ELTE 11)

Another side of embarrassment was maintaining sensitivity toward relational status and rank order. For the J-ELTEs, this meant that as socially high-ranking university faculty, they expressed sensitivity toward not wanting to put others in the uncomfortable position of doubting the J-ELTEs competence. Because their social position was as professor, and therefore expert, they were sensitive to create exchanges that would open doubt toward their own ability or capacity to perform their job. This aspect of the sensitivity on the part of the J-ELTE's was described not in terms of self-preservation, but rather in terms of preserving the face of the other by preserving the rank order.

Avoiding embarrassment by preserving the social dynamic was described in terms of the emotional load of not wanting to scare or frighten others by casting doubt in their minds as to their expertise.

"...I don't want to scare the other person, the other Japanese person, by showing how vulnerable I am. In case that person thinks I really can't do my job...It might frighten the other teacher, it might make them think - maybe she doesn't know what she's doing, or it might make them think, well, I wouldn't have a clue what to say about what you are saying. Please don't display your lack of knowledge. I'm not really sure. You have to really know the person very, very well to be able to do those exercises." (J-ELTE 14)

Teacher educators were sensitive to the discomfort or intimidation that others would feel if asked to comment on the J-ELTE's work. These dynamics created constraints to soliciting candid interactions, for example from school teachers.

"It can be kind of uncomfortable to question somebody else. So especially if it's an elementary or a junior high school teacher, I think they are kind of intimidated to question somebody at the university, even though I would welcome any kind of criticism whatsoever." (J-ELTE 11)

5.2.4 Individual professional agency

The following two sections (5.2.4 and 5.2.5) provide the findings to the third research question in the Japanese context: *How is practice-based learning in professional communities mediated by enacting professional agency?*

The tripartite description of professional agency as (1) making choices, (2) influencing colleagues and (3) taking stances was used to identify the kinds of actions in the exercise of professional agency at the individual level. Examples of the teacher educators' choices, stances, and influence on their work were identified in the teacher educators' interviews as evidence of the teacher educators' professional agency. Collective agency was identified using Pelenc et al.'s (2015) description of the steps of collective agency development.

The findings are presented in two sections. The first section presents the findings about individual manifestations of professional agency. The second section presents the findings about collective manifestations of professional agency. Teacher educators in Japan manifested individual agency in 1) control over teaching and research agendas, 2) influencing students 3) making requests and responding to requests and 4) refraining from social interaction. Descriptions of collective agency were rare, but in the cases identified in the data the J-ELTEs leadership played a meaningful role in its development.

5.2.4.1 Control over teaching and research agendas

Teacher educators in this study expressed a strong sense of agency in determining their own teaching agendas, methods, and materials. As discussed in the section on resources for learning, academic freedom was seen as a great resource for professional learning. This freedom was evident also in the teacher educators' descriptions of agency in their teaching.

Pedagogical agency was evident not only in the extent to which the teacher educators determined their teaching materials, methods and aims, but also in the extent to which they described working to influence their student-teachers. This influence manifested in many areas, for example directions to student-teachers regarding study and course expectations, social expectations of English teachers, political perspectives about English, and theoretical perspectives about language teaching. Teacher educators described a wide range of knowledge that was necessary to impart to their student-teachers in terms of content, professional expectations, skills and capacities. Teacher educators desired to impress upon their students the expectations that superiors and society will have of them when they enter the workforce as English teachers, and described these expectations in terms of professional organizational skills, time management and social skills.

"I try to keep saying that they have to study. Not just saying, but trying to encourage them now without losing their motivation, because that is their responsibility; to be a professional English speaker... So that once you graduate from this university as an English major, you are socially recognized as an English major, so you are expected to be fluent." (J-ELTE 6)

Teacher educators described influencing their students in implicit ways through unspoken actions and attitudes. For example, J-ELTE 2 expressed his desire that students would gain social competencies by participating in extracurricular activities while at university. Although he said that he wouldn't express his stance verbally to his students, he believed that his students "can understand my message implicitly. They know that I'm a rugby guy."

Individual agency manifested in the teacher educator's influence over their own research projects in terms of both methods and content, "In terms of research, I think it's developing exactly the way I want it. I probably, I will probably be going down the same path for a number of years" (J-ELTE 5). Nearly all of the teacher educators in this study were engaged in individual research projects (14/16), and they were largely able to determine the means, methods and objectives of their own research. Although the J-ELTEs expressed difficulty finding time for research, the teacher educators expressed a high degree of agency in dictating the content and direction of their research plans. The ability to design and carry out their research according to their own professional expertise evidenced the connection between academic freedom and professional agency.

5.2.4.2 Making requests of others

The second manifestation of individual professional agency in the Japanese context was in instances where the teacher educator felt him or herself in a position to be able to make a request of another person and have this request fulfilled. This was true for being able to make requests of former students, school teachers, colleagues in other departments, senior staff, administrative staff and others outside of the university. In being able to make a request of others, the teacher educators used the influence of their relationships and status to benefit their own professional learning. However, it should be noted that asking or making a request of someone else it was not about asking for advice. Rather, the teacher educators solicited action from those above or below them in the social hierarchy.

Professional agency was expressed in being able to solicit and receive the participation from individuals outside of the university to enhance the J-ELTEs teaching or research. Using their position, they were able to organize and influence others to participate in professional practice. Exercising this kind of influence was especially valued by the J-ELTEs when directed toward people of some renown in their field. Being able to exercise agency as influence by making a solicitation and then receiving a positive response from someone in a superior position was a meaningful enactment of the J-ELTEs professional agency.

"I have a connection with [a local institution], one of the executive members, and once a year we give the English education seminar and basically I'm the only guy who organizes. They help me, the teachers, but I do everything, the program, the preparation, negotiation. And then we, every year I ask one big shark who is nationally famous in literature or linguistics and then junior high school teachers and senior high school give a presentation." (J-ELTE 12)

In a similar way, the teacher educators expressed individual agency in being able to make requests from people who were their juniors, such as former students or local teachers, “I have some kind of personal relationships with the teachers and teachers’ consultants there. Without that help, it might be very difficult for me... next to impossible to collect the data.” (J-ELTE 10)

5.2.4.3 Responding to requests

A related experience of individual professional agency was the experience of being in a position to respond to the requests of others. Being asked to give lectures was expressed as an affirmation of the J-ELTE's expertise and position. “Also, I work with junior high school teachers, senior high school teachers, I’m helping. Every year I’ve been asked to help them by the board of education because I’ve got a lot of friends up there.” (J-ELTE 12)

The maintenance of personal relationships was an important aspect of responding positively to requests for assistance. Teacher educators expressed a sense of obligation to help teachers who are making an effort to improve themselves and their schools. “Actually, I’m giving a little lecture on this coming Thursday... It ends up my teaching time and research time... but as long as they are struggling to be better teachers and better schools, why not help them?” (J-ELTE 9). In engaging with schools and teachers in the local community, teacher educators took opportunities to influence language education locally. Understood here as related to vertical alliance as a resource for professional learning, the enactment of agency to assist in local schools provided meaningful opportunities for professional learning. Further, professional agency in both making and responding to requests was also connected to the role of institutional affiliations as a resource for professional learning. Affiliations with schools and boards of education provided forums through which the teacher educators were able to fulfill requests for professional assistance from teachers and other education professionals.

5.2.4.4 Refraining from interaction

Agency manifests not only in positive motions toward change, but also in actions of resistance or maintaining the status quo (Vähäsantanen, 2015). J-ELTEs described many instances of moving away from interactions with their colleagues; of purposefully, intentionally keeping silent in an interaction in order to preserve the collegial relationship. If professional expertise or assistance was not solicited, “I keep very silent.” (J-ELTE 14). This choice to abstain from interaction was a frequent and strong agentic response in the contexts of the Japanese university workplace. Maintaining the boundaries of others’ classes and research was a conscious choice of the teacher educators in collegial interactions.

As discussed in the constraints to professional learning, J-ELTEs said that people shouldn't intrude on one another's professional work. The teacher educators thus made an intentional choice not to try to influence their colleagues' teaching, even in cases where they expressed a personal stance of curiosity or doubt regarding the effectiveness of their colleagues' teaching for the English

student-teachers. Although the lack of dialogue and fear of embarrassment was discussed by the teacher educators as a constraint to shared professional development, it also represented a purposeful agentic choice on their part to avoid potential workplace conflict, “I wouldn’t even dare, I wouldn't even dare to go up to a Japanese professor and start talking like that” (J-ELTE 14).

Many of the teacher educators lamented the lack of a strong lesson study component to their teaching or the opportunity for real dialogue about teaching and learning. This was especially for those teachers who had worked previously in lower or secondary schools. The lack of shared practice left them feeling “isolated” (J-ELTE 2) “lonely” (J-ELTE 5) and “standing alone” (J-ELTE 6). Yet even the teacher educators who lamented the lack of discussion with their colleagues expressed intentionality about not intruding on other university teachers’ professional practice or interacting with their colleagues in a such way that they would feel threatened or lose face. “Maybe it’s my character or the Japanese character, but we tend to avoid those confrontations.” (J-ELTE 9)

In the Japanese context, agency can be understood as intentional responsiveness to a dynamic situation or relationship between people (Billett, 2006; Fenwick, 2006; Vähäsantanen, 2015; Vähäsantanen, Hökkä, Eteläpelto, Rasku-Puttonen, & Littleton, 2008). Being sensitive to others’ feelings and moderating one’s own actions in response is characteristic of this type of agency and was evident throughout the J-ELTE’s responses. This sensitivity to professional colleagues as a manifestation of individual agency was identified in the talk of both Japanese and international J-ELTEs in this study.

5.2.5 Collective agency

Although descriptions of collective agency were few in the data, the key finding is that J-ELTEs’ leadership was central to enacting collective agency for professional learning in the Japanese context. In order to identify collective agency, I distinguished within the participants’ talk evidence of each of the steps in the process of the development of collective agency: discussion, convergence, development, commitment and collective action (Markus & Kitayama, 2003). Collective agency is understood here as a process which originates from the agency of an individual with the capacity to pursue goals beyond self-interest (Pelenc et al., 2015). According to Pelenc (2015), through discussion and convergence it is possible for individuals develop and commit to a common set of values and motivations, which they employ to make a choice of particular aims to be carried out in collective action. In the interviews, J-ELTEs talked about their work with others and their perspectives on the success and satisfaction of various projects. Through this discussion, I aimed to elicit reflections on the participants’ agency within their professional communities on occasions when they had been able to work with a group of colleagues to achieve something they perceived to be of meaning.

The ELTEs provided very limited descriptions of collective agency, despite a significant portion of the interviews being dedicated to exploring the teacher educators’ collaborative work. The development of collective agency was often

fraught with tensions and deemed by the teacher educators themselves to have been unsuccessful in achieving agreed upon goals. Among the sixteen teacher educators interviewed for this study, only two complete examples of collective agency were identified (3/16). One of the examples was shared by two of the teacher educators who were working together in the same department. The object of collective agency in both cases was the development or reform of English-language teaching. In these two examples, the teacher educators described in detail all parts of the process of the development of collective agency (discussion, convergence, development, commitment and action). All other descriptions of collective agency in the data were partial, lacking in at least one phase of the process identified by Pelenc and co-authors (2015).

Because examples of collective agency were limited, a robust thematic analysis of collective agency among ELTEs in the Japanese context is also limited. However, I present here the main theme which was clearly shared in the talk of the participants relating to collective agency: leadership.

The J-ELTEs who described a process of the development of collective agency described themselves as being *in leadership positions* with relation to the project development. J-ELTEs did not describe instances of being participants within larger reform or development efforts as personal experiences of collective agency which contributed meaningfully to their professional learning. Leadership of a project was a central part of the experience of collective agency. At the same time, the leadership positions occupied by the J-ELTEs were embedded within wider institutional hierarchies. For example, both J-ELTE 14 and 16 described the beginning of their most satisfying experience developing English teaching with others as beginning with being selected to leadership positions. "But the school said - if that woman is going to lead, we will sign the contract." (J-ELTE 14) or likewise, "When I was appointed chair" (J-ELTE 16). Congruent with the steps indicated in Pelenc et al.'s (2015) development of collective agency, open public discussion was a significant component of the J-ELTEs descriptions of their most satisfying shared work. As leaders, the J-ELTEs described their own role in leading the group through a process of convergence.

"And we had meetings, and we had all-day meetings with the departments saying, 'This is what we need. What do we need to do?' Looking at our curriculum and making some tough choices about what to cut. We started reorganizing. And everybody was agreeing. We had a lot of resistance from people outside, administration, president, vice-president, things like that. But basically, we were so well planned." (J-ELTE 16)

Within the contexts of their own successful leadership, J-ELTEs described having influence over their own work, influence over their colleagues' perceptions of the shared aims and influence over others' practice. This influence over others' work was combined with a sense of satisfaction with the process of developing collective agency. The importance of leadership was connected to talk about making a meaningful contribution to the development of language education within a particular institution. This was best represented when the work was described as valuable, the team dynamic was enjoyable, and one's own personal

repertoire of professional skills was expanded. "It felt as if I was learning how to lead" (J-ELTE 14).

However, another significant aspect of the J-ELTEs talk about leadership in the development of collective agency was the recognition of the limitations of their contribution to sustained institutional change. For example, although J-ELTEs 15 and 16 were able to leverage their positions as departmental chairs to influence the development of learning and teaching within the department for a time, eventually external conflicts led to the dissolution of the project. "Just because you have the position, doesn't mean you have the power" (J-ELTE 16). In fact, most of the descriptions of provided by the J-ELTEs which demonstrated only part of the development of collective agency were replete with descriptions of "failed" (J-ELTE 15) attempts at shared departmental reforms in language teaching. J-ELTEs expressed frustration about not being able to come to consensus with their colleagues about the appropriate aims or methods of shared endeavors.

5.2.6 Summary of the Japanese findings

Three forms of professional learning were identified: critical self-reflection, experience and observation, and lecturing and listening. All of these forms of learning proceeded from an initiation of effort by the teacher educator themselves and were characterized by an emphasis on internal processing and integrating of information obtained through conscientious observation and personal experience. Professional learning in Japan was characterized by a focus on the connection between thought and action, between educational theory and professional practice, and by the role of the individual in fulfilling professional obligations. Teacher educators, as university teachers and professors, valued intellectual autonomy in developing their research and teaching practice. Resources for professional learning revealed the value that the teacher educators placed on financial support for professional learning, as well as the importance of socially defined hierarchies and in-group affiliations. Throughout the discussion of the resources for professional learning, the relationship between the individual and the institutional structures was a salient aspect of the teacher educators' continued professional learning. Likewise, constraints to professional learning centered around tensions between personal goals and professional obligations determined by the universities. Beyond this, however, constraints for teacher educators' professional learning in Japan were described as relating to the nature of the professional dynamics within the departments. These dynamics were influenced both by the pre-determined organizational structures of the departments, but also by a sense of social norms of professional interaction related to the recognition of others' professional expertise and position. Professional agency in the Japanese context primarily manifested as individual agency in one's own teaching and research, as well as in moderating one's actions in consideration of the social environment. Descriptions of collective agency in professional learning in the Japanese context were limited. Collective agency

relied heavily on the importance of one's own leadership in steering a group in collective action.

5.3 Findings of the comparative analysis

This section presents the findings to the fourth research question: *Are some themes present in one context but not another? If a theme is present in both contexts, are there differences in the expression of that theme?*

The systematic analysis presented here seeks to illuminate shared and different themes between the Finnish and Japanese contexts, and to elaborate nuanced distinctions in the expression of these shared and disparate themes. The method of comparative thematic analysis begins with two analytical considerations suggested by Guest et al. (2015), which are the basis for the fourth research question of this dissertation: 'Are some themes present in one data set but not another? and 'If a theme is present in data sets from both groups in an analysis, is the expression of that theme different between groups?' By considering the similarities and differences between the Finnish and Japanese participants' talk in this way, the present research draws together the findings from two distinct contexts in order to further explore perceptions of the contextually situated nature of the relationship between professional learning and the professional community.

Because there were more thematic differences than similarities, the findings presented in this chapter primarily treat the differences between participants' talk in Finland and Japan. In addition, focusing on the distinctive aspects allows for a more nuanced reflection and consideration of specific articulations from which these differences emerge.

At the core of the differences between the Finnish and Japanese participants' talk is a divergence in perceptions of the relation and function of the professional community in the ELTEs own professional learning. This includes the variation in the kinds of learning that are valued, the expression of themes related to the resources and constraints for learning, and in the ways that individual and collective professional agency mediate professional learning. The findings of the comparative analysis further elaborate the ELTEs talk about contextually relevant ways of learning and knowing, expressions of professional expertise and who has it, and the ways that ELTEs act as agents within their professional communities. These differences follow the primary distinction between the major findings of the two contexts; namely that in Finland professional learning is primarily understood as a socially mediated process, whereas in Japan professional learning is primarily understood as an endeavor of individual effort and mastery.

Section 5.3.1 presents the most salient differences between the two studies. The primary difference is the perception of the function of public dialogue in professional learning. This theme is chosen for elaboration because, while it had relevance to all areas of the findings for each research question in the Finnish

context, public dialogue was limited or absent as a thematic element relating to the main findings in the Japanese context. Given the distinction between the social (Finland) and individual (Japan) orientations toward professional learning in the two studies, an exploration of the presence and absence of the themes related to public dialogue as an element of professional learning serves to illuminate one of the primary differences between the findings in Finland and Japan. Section 5.3.2 presents the similarities between the two studies. The similarities presented were chosen because their expression between the two studies was so similarly expressed by the participants, and were related so similarly to the overarching findings, as to be relatively indistinguishable between contexts. These similarities are the sense of individual agency in research and teaching and the importance of friendship in professional learning.

5.3.1 Differences between the two contexts

Many differences were identified between the talk of the participants in Finland and Japan. The findings presented below reflect only the most salient differences relating to professional learning within the professional community. The findings elaborate the differences in the use of public dialogue for learning and teacher educators' perceptions of collegial and student expertise. I then turn to a consideration of four paired differences, which were related but present in one study but not the other. These four thematic pairs are: *transformation & transcendence*; *permanence & ephemerality*; *future orientation & past orientation* and *serendipity & appreciation*. The following sections address different aspects of the teacher educators' perceptions of professional learning, elaborating distinct perceptions evident in the two contexts. Comparative thematic analysis seeks to illuminate differences, looking first for themes which presented in one study, *but were absent in the other*, followed by a consideration of themes which were *present in both* studies but expressed differently.

Section 5.3.1.1 *public dialogue and professional learning* considers the role of open talk and discussion within the workplace as a valued aspect professional learning in each context. The section elaborates the ways in which the theme of public dialogue was referenced, and also brings forth elements which were not common between contexts, for example the role of private dialogue in the Japanese context. Section 5.3.1.2 describes the ELTEs *perceptions of others' expertise*, in an elaboration of whose professional knowledge is recognized within the professional community. ELTEs perceptions of their colleagues' and students' expertise, and how the expertise of those within the professional communities within which they work contributes to the ELTEs professional learning. Sections 5.3.1.3 *the nature and aims of professional learning*, 5.3.1.4 *the nature and aims of professional agency* and 5.3.1.5 *temporal orientations* present distinct themes related to perceptions of the nature of professional learning, evidencing differing orientations toward both the aims, processes and sustained results of professional learning and professional agency for the individual and the professional community. Section 5.3.1.7 addresses *responses to structure* presents

the differing orientations regarding the nature of the professional environment and how the professional community resources learning.

5.3.1.1 Public dialogue in professional learning

The primary distinction between the Finnish and the Japanese participants' talk was presence and relative absence, respectively, of public dialogue as a core aspect of professional learning. Public dialogue is understood as open discussion and shared meaning-making between colleagues and others at the workplace, in meetings and other social interactions. Dialogue is *public* when the information shared can be freely and openly disclosed to others, as the information is not privileged or confidential. Dialogue implies a back-and-forth, two-way interaction, shared meaning making, and mutuality between the parties involved.

Public dialogue was an important aspect of the process of professional learning in the Finnish context. Public dialogue was an aspect of both inquiry and identity learning, as well as an aspect of the perceived resources for professional learning. Social and dynamic aspects of professional learning which were presented in Finland often were described as occurring through public dialogue and discussion. F-ELTEs described open dialogue related to research, teaching and administrative development occurring in meetings as well as in formal and informal interactions with colleagues. "But in general I think we just talk a lot, with a group of people who we are in our area and we are trying to see what are those particular things we should try to accommodate or incorporate into our courses." (F-ELTE 4) In the Finnish context, public dialogue was characterized by openness and flatness among colleagues. In addition, public dialogue was part of the development of both individual and collective agency. In this way, public dialogue was part of the ways in which F-ELTEs enacted professional agency for their professional learning.

In the Japanese context, J-ELTEs expressed a greater value in listening, and in allowing space for monologue in social settings. The purpose of listening to the perspectives of colleagues was expressed not as a process of generating new mutual understandings through public discussion, but rather of coming to understand others' perspectives by listening intently to their talk and internally considering and interpreting the meanings expressed by others. The J-ELTEs stated that they rarely experienced open, public dialogue with colleagues around issues related to the development of research and teaching. "Really, we don't talk about our own classes.... People don't really suggest anything about teaching to anybody. That makes it sound like you're saying, 'I'm a specialist in teaching.' And we avoid that." (J-ELTE 13)

Teacher educators in Japan expressed tensions in engaging in public dialogue with peers from the same institutional context. This reluctance was expressed as being related to the kinds of reactions that could be anticipated from other professionals when discussing in the public space. J-ELTEs anticipated and described past experiences of tensions in open discussion.

"Discussion and argument is always very similar. The difference in opinions may be the start of causing quarrels- that's one thing that somehow Japanese culture would

not accommodate. We cannot imagine that people would have a very severe discussion and in the next moment be getting on like friends. We can't imagine that. Once that relationship is terminated by the fierce discussion, we no longer look at each other. That won't happen; getting involved in discussion. So we just end up with a lot of superficial talk rather than discussion." (J-ELTE 9)

In the Japanese context, tensions in public dialogue were related to themes of professional expertise, embarrassment, saving face, and competition within the professional in group. "What I've found in teacher training where you have everyone from the same context is people are afraid first of all to ask questions. Okay, because someone else will say, 'Stupid question.' And they do that. I've seen that." (J-ELTE 5) In Finland, the openness of dialogue was connected to the themes of trust and vulnerability in resourcing professional learning, as well as to collaborative inquiry learning. "Nobody ever says, 'Well what are you thinking, idiot?' ... But here it's very like, okay yeah, that's a good idea! And then we start developing together." (F-ELTE 4)

Perceptions of the reactions of others within the professional community to public discussion were also evident in the ELTEs descriptions of the issues they felt comfortable discussing in a public format. In the Finnish context, teacher educators described discussing many topics freely with their colleagues, ranging from private family matters and personal histories to philosophical, social and political matters relating to their work. "We meet regularly and have quite good discussions there and I think that supports my work as well... How to develop language teaching in the university, for example, how to develop language curriculums for example, and what is good language teaching, and very philosophical things." (F-ELTE 6) In the Japanese context, J-ELTEs described a range of professional situations in which various aspects of professional practice were not felt to be accepted into public discussion. Talk about issues which were not discussed, or the practice of not discussing, was prevalent in the J-ELTEs descriptions of their workplace interactions. "That debate over core content knowledge, subject teaching knowledge or pedagogical skills - pedagogical skills are not focused on here." (J-ELTE 16) "I think that what is taken as important is just to be there at the FD [Faculty Development], rather than really, truly communicate, and share their thoughts and ideas." (J-ELTE 9) The sense that topics related to one's own teaching, or philosophies of language education were not discussed in public dialogue was related to differences in background and belief as constraints to professional learning. Because J-ELTEs often perceived that their colleagues held differing orientations toward language learning and teaching, they often chose to refrain from public dialogue, anticipating the potential for conflict.

Public dialogue with student-teachers The presence of open, public dialogue was distinguished in the two contexts not only in the ways that the ELTEs described interacting with colleagues, but also in the ways ELTEs described talking with their student-teachers. In Finland, F-ELTEs emphasized the use of dialogic pedagogy in their classes and the creation of a relaxed environment in which their students would feel free to discuss and ask questions. This was coupled with expressions of articulating to the students directly the teacher

educators' own perspectives and expertise. F-ELTEs described giving advice to their students regarding language teaching. "I at least, I tell them explicitly because that is something I have learned from experience, that you can't be explicit enough." (F-ELTE 4)

J-ELTEs emphasized that public interactions with student-teachers about professional development often manifested in implicit understandings between the J-ELTE and student-teachers, rather than explicit public dialogue between the J-ELTE and the student-teacher. "I wouldn't say explicitly to those students. But I think they can understand my message implicitly." (J-ELTE 2)

Further, in Japan, tensions surrounding public dialogue with student-teachers were related to medium of instruction and J-ELTEs' professional practice. J-ELTEs described tensions when using English as a medium for discussion with student-teachers related to whether or not the students could fully comprehend the course contents. Rather than attempt dialogue with students in English in an effort to improve the students' spoken proficiency, J-ELTEs often focused instead on the students' fundamental grasp of the course content. "It's much more comfortable to speak in Japanese, and also we can have much deeper discussion as well." (J-ELTE 9) In the Finnish context, tensions around English as a medium of instruction for university studies as limiting either the student-teachers' language proficiency development or limiting the depth of course content was not present.

Public dialogue and private dialogue The distinction between social interactions in the public space and social interactions in the private space was meaningful for Japanese teacher educators in interpreting the development of their work. J-ELTEs made a distinction between the kinds of information that could be shared freely in public or private dialogue. J-ELTEs described a range of situations in which information related to professional practice was not meant to be discussed openly. "This is one of those super-secret - we have to use spy talk whenever we talk about what we are doing." (J-ELTE 8)

Private conversations were a place for J-ELTEs to speak candidly with their colleagues about sensitive issues related to professional practice, "When we went out drinking together, I could find that out." (J-ELTE 5) In the Finnish context, a distinction between public professional interactions and private or secret professional interactions as a typical aspect of professional practice was not made.

Not only did J-ELTEs make a distinction between public and private dialogue, they further expressed choosing to refrain from public dialogue in order to avoid areas of public controversy. J-ELTEs described themselves as at times choosing to remain quiet in collegial interactions. "If my help is not called for in the Japanese system, I keep very quiet" (J-ELTE 14). The relation between silence, secrecy and private discussion maybe in some way illuminated by the Japanese concept of *tatemaie*, or a distinction between that which is public but superficial, and that which is hidden but contains the full truth. It also may be related to the hierarchical workplace relations, and a sense of whose professional expertise may be legitimately expressed publicly.

Written text as public dialogue In each context, the data manifest distinct ways in which ELTEs described interacting with text as part of their professional learning. In both studies, written text, in the form of research papers, textbooks or official university documents were generally regarded as a form of public communication. Yet a unique aspect of the Finnish context was the ways in which the F-ELTEs described engaging with written text as a form of public dialogue. "Actually, if I read these things for myself... I can answer what they say and respond to it" (F-ELTE 2). F-ELTEs described that they "listen to papers" (F-ELTE 4), and that when students do homework it is a "discussion with the textbook" (F-ELTE 2). F-ELTEs also emphasized the importance of the written word in language teaching more generally. "But our classroom teaching has been very, very textbook centered, very, very literacy centered, written academic skills have been the most important and prestigious ones" (F-ELTE 5). Interaction with text in research and teaching, and text as a basis for public dialogue was evident in the Finnish teacher educators' descriptions of the development of their own professional practice, in research, teaching and in student learning as well. In this way, the written word was described as a way to engage in public dialogue with others across time and space.

In the Japanese context, written text was also expressed as a form public dialogue. Yet in Japan, written text as public dialogue was overlaid with the distinction between public and private dialogue. Thus, J-ELTEs emphasized private discussion of things which could not be written down. Controversial, privileged information regarding professional practice was omitted from public dialogue in the form of written text.

"And then there's other things that you can't talk about through documents. Like what is your university cutting? And what are you doing to oppose the cuts and things like that... it's something that you can't write, it's something that you have to talk about in person." (J-ELTE 5)

Public dialogue and inner monologue The relationship between public dialogue and professional learning in the two contexts was distinguished in the difference in the thematic intersection between public dialogue and inner monologue (internal reflection). In Finland, public dialogue and private inner monologue were both present as two interrelated aspects of identity learning. The intrapersonal processes of reflection and the interpersonal processes of identity negotiation in dialogue and social interaction were both meaningful parts of the F-ELTEs professional learning, forming an iterative cycle of identity learning. However, in the Japanese context the primary mode of professional learning was critical self-reflection for continual professional improvement. This type of reflection was not described as dialogic in nature. Rather, J-ELTEs described their own internal reflective processes as gaining direct or indirect feedback on their teaching practice based on student-teacher outcomes and performance. J-ELTEs would then use this feedback in thinking about potential corrective pedagogical adjustments and implementing these improvements from class to class or year to year. J-ELTEs described a progressive and expansive process of personal

professional improvement, development and mastery, which was not generally related to public discussion or dialogue with colleagues.

To summarize, it is apparent that public dialogue for professional learning is understood distinctively by the participants in this study in the Finnish and Japanese contexts. This difference seems to underline one of the fundamental differences between the two participant groups. That is to say, English language teacher educators in Finland primarily understood professional learning as a socially-mediated process, whereas English language teacher educators in Japan primarily understood professional learning as an individual pursuit of professional mastery. Public dialogue is one aspect of how these differences manifest in teacher educators' professional learning. In the Japanese context, professional learning was not seen as being mediated or negotiated by one's professional peers or colleagues, but rather was driven by the teacher educator's own understandings of and dedication to their social role and professional obligations. In this way, the individual teacher educator contributed to the professional community through actionable effort, rather than open public dialogue or interactive dialogic mediation with one's peers.

In Finland, the ELTEs talked about sharing ideas, brainstorming, and a dialogic interaction with department heads, colleagues and students. A key distinction between the two contexts is the limited reference to dialogue in the Japanese data as part of observing the social environment. The learner is expected to take in the world, to watch and listen to it without immediately interrogating it directly. Professional learning takes the form of experiencing and observing for oneself what people do in the professional space and developing a sensitivity to the meanings that are being given and who is giving them. This is in line with Nonaka's (1997) descriptions of the development of tacit knowledge, which is learned through socialization. Although the social environment is implicated in this learning process, the teacher educators do not describe learning as a process of *seeking out*, but rather of *soaking in*. In this way, the teacher educators come to understand the social context, and think for themselves how to appropriately interpret it in relation to their work, either in research or for developing their own practice.

In Japan, ETLEs most often said that they did not engage in public dialogue with colleagues around issues of developing research or their own teaching practice. Rather, there was public listening, gaining of information and perspective from colleagues and superiors, indirect monologue between colleagues, or private discussions between colleagues/peers, for example at drinking parties, conference events or during travel for research and teaching.

5.3.1.2 Perceptions of others' expertise

The second finding of the comparative analysis relates to the theme of legitimacy of knowledge. The theme of legitimacy was present in both contexts yet was inflected differently in relation to personal and collegial expertise in each context.

In the Finnish context, colleagues were often described as knowledgeable resources for one's own professional learning. Valuing colleagues' advice

manifested in professional agency as soliciting advice and collaboration in research, teaching and project development from valued professional colleagues and superiors. F-ELTEs also expressed value in dialoguing with their students, based on the perception that the unique perspectives and contributions student-teachers brought to teacher-training provided unique insights that were valuable to the F-ELTEs in developing their own teaching. F-ELTEs generally perceived value in their colleagues' expertise and expressed recognition of that professional expertise. Valuing collegial and student expertise in the Finnish context was related to the main finding from the Finnish context: professional learning is understood by the F-ELTEs as having a highly social aspect. This was in line with and referenced directly by the teacher educators as being based on Vygotskian social learning theory.

In the Japanese context, tensions related to the recognition of collegial expertise presented a constraint to J-ELTEs professional learning. While J-ELTEs valued the expertise of mentors and senior colleagues, similar appreciation for the expertise of peer-level departmental colleagues was not thematically identified. Tensions surrounding collegial expertise in the Japanese context were expressed in issues of colleagues' knowledge of English, language pedagogy, language research, and teaching philosophies. Tensions regarding the expertise of one's colleagues was further complicated by a sense of peer-level competition and an emphasis on one's own professional expertise. And although students and former students were valued as contributing to J-ELTEs professional learning, the value of juniors was not expressed as being related to the expertise of the juniors. Rather, it was related to the willingness of the juniors to work or participate eagerly in the J-ELTEs research or to the candidness of their responses on the teaching feedback questionnaires. The value of others' expertise in the Japanese context was related to perceptions of whose expertise is legitimate and how one becomes recognized as an expert. J-ELTEs expression of the value of their mentors, or of themselves as mentors to their junior colleagues or students was connected to their perception of themselves as knowers, and the connection between professional expertise and age.

Perceptions of the sources of one's own and one's colleagues' professional expertise presented another thematic difference between the two contexts. The relationship between research and teaching was approached differently by participants in Finland and Japan. In the Finnish context, research and teaching were seen as strongly linked.

"Oh, my teaching is built on my research. It should be. There is no other alternative. I mean, the teaching is supposed to be based on your research. Either your own empirical research or the research that other people have done, most certainly." (F-ELTE 3)

Courses taught by F-ELTEs were often described as directly related to the professional expertise developed through their own empirical research. One's own expertise, the expertise of one's colleagues, and the development of the student-teacher's expertise formed part of the process of being and becoming research-practitioners. A focus on research was also manifest in the Finnish

teacher educators' references to empirical research findings as answers to the interview questions for this dissertation. These references displayed a shared repertoire of knowledge about current research in language education, and a shared orientation toward language pedagogy.

In the Japanese context, the relationship between research and teaching as part of professional learning was much less tightly linked.

"But when I think about my research, I still feel a big gap between my research interests and what I actually have to do, I mean producing teachers. I'm always, what should I say, floating between the gap?" (J-ELTE 2)

J-ELTEs often found little connection between their research interests and their teaching. Tensions were expressed about the legitimacy of colleagues' professional knowledge based on whether professional orientations were based on empirical research, personal beliefs, or adherence to official policy documents. Teacher educators in the Japanese context referenced a diverse range of theories, methods and orientations to language learning and teaching. This wide range of orientations to language teaching was expressed both by individual teacher educators and also evident between teacher educators. Diversity of professional opinions was valued as an aspect of academic freedom, "Our ideas and opinions can be different. So it's very healthy, academically. A very healthy difference sometimes" (J-ELTE 2). Yet this diversity also created tensions around the legitimacy of colleagues' knowledge, "He goes back to the course of study guidelines... whereas I tend to go back to a much broader field of research..." (J-ELTE 8), which impacted shared professional practice. Tensions were also expressed surrounding the ways of doing empirical research in education that would be valued and validated by the wider, international academic community.

"I had a kind of argument [...] in Boston, also. He raised a hand and asked a lot of questions about the validity of the research, and things like that. You know I don't want to use my students as subjects, right? They must be just participants. So, I don't want to create a very controlled situation. But, at the same time I really want to create those kinds of situations to make my paper more valid." (J-ELTE 2)

Empirical research about language learning and teaching by contemporary scholars played a limited role in the J-ELTEs positive interpretations of the development their own professional practice. Rather than emphasizing the role of scientific research in developing professional practice, J-ELTEs emphasized developing a comprehensive knowledge of diverse array of teaching methods and educational theories. These included grammar-translation, using classroom English, task-based language teaching (TBLT), content and language integrated learning (CLIL), Palmer, Chomsky, and Krashen, among others. Thus, J-ELTEs focused on connection between educational theory and pedagogical practice for their student-teachers. F-ELTEs, by contrast, emphasized the development research-practitioners and the use of empirical research to develop teaching.

5.3.1.3 The nature and aims of professional learning

A third thematic difference was in the teacher educators' descriptions of the nature and aims of their own professional learning. The differences in their expressions of professional learning evidence distinct ontological orientations towards professional life, professional learning, change, agency and the relationship between the ELTEs and their professional communities. These differences were apparent in related yet distinct sets of themes, each of which was identified only in one context. The first thematic pair I call *transformation and transcendence* in professional learning: the theme *transformation* was present in the Finnish context, and the theme *transcendence* was present in the Japanese context. The differences between transformation and transcendence can be understood as orientations toward professional learning as adding something *new* (transformation in Finland) or making something *better* (transcendence in Japan). These distinctions are not meant to imply that ELTEs in Finland did not discuss attempts to improve their work or that teacher educators in Japan did not discuss attempts to revolutionize their work. The distinction is rather that, on the thematic level of the themes identified in the data from each context, the teacher educators in this study used different language to describe the means and aims of individual professional learning. This difference represents a nuanced take on the articulations of professional learning in context. It does not imply a radical or fundamental difference between contexts or professional learning practices.

In the Finnish context, *transformation* manifests as a process of professional change by which the teacher educator adapts his or her *professional identity* to incorporate new aspects of learning and to re-orient herself in relation to dynamic changes in the professional environment. Transformation was a thematic element of the F-ELTEs *identity learning*. F-ELTEs described the development of their professional identities as "identity crisis" (F-ELTE 2) and "transformative learning" (F-ELTE 8), and through change by which new aspects of an evolving and socially negotiated professional identity were integrated and reconciled within changing professional dynamics.

"Professional development sometimes goes like a butterfly, and you have to take your own time, your own cocoon period to sort out your own values and your own professional thinking and the private thinking behind. Then you can get this kind of empowerment." (F-ELTE 8)

Transformation was also evident as an aspect of inquiry learning, as it related to the F-ELTEs desire to respond to changes in society with educational innovations. These responses were described as contributing new domains to language teacher education which impacted at the level of the university and nationally.

"I'm a great believer in Europe, despite what's going on at the moment. And so I was very active in setting up these Erasmus student exchange, teacher exchange. And I think that was a great boost to Finland. To its own sense of identity and its sort of enhanced self-image." (F-ELTE 1)

F-ELTEs emphasized the use of *new* and *novel* developments in their teaching practice. "My mindset is that I'm always thinking about new things and new ideas." (F-ELTE 6) Transformation in inquiry learning was expressed as a gradual process of adapting English language education in Finland to reflect new empirical knowledge about language learning and teaching and modifying curricula and program structure according to the changing needs of Finnish society. "We don't train [the student-teachers] to teach students with different linguistic backgrounds... and we are not preparing them enough for that because we don't have the skills. That is something we ought to be working with and working at." (F-ELTE 4) Inquiry learning and identity learning were thus connected, as the transformation of the F-ELTEs professional competencies related to the transformation of Finnish language education more broadly. In this way the teacher educators intimated their own agency in renewing themselves and updating educational practices to respond proactively to social change.

In the Japanese context, *transcendence* manifests as a process of personal professional improvement, wherein the teacher educator strives to expand and enhance his or her professional expertise through continual and effortful awareness of one's shortcomings. Transcendence was thematically related to self-reflection as a form of professional learning, connected with becoming better and striving to attain ideal expertise and mastery over the professional self. "I can reflect on my work in the past year so I can know what kinds of things I should continue with, and what kinds of things I can improve." (J-ELTE 6) Teacher educators were also concerned with improving the quality and frequency of their research publications. The drive for continual improvement was related to the theme of evaluation.

"...Each year we are evaluated. In order to get a certain amount of money from the department we have to do our best... but also I feel, I think that it's a duty as a researcher present a paper, to write a paper, to contribute a paper to the academic journals." (J-ELTE 4)

Transcendence was further evident in the teacher educators' expressions of their hopes for their own role in the development of English language education and was connected to the theme of academic freedom. "I can do whatever I want. Which in a way is good because I can do what I think the students need and every year I am trying to improve the curriculum..." (J-ELTE 11) Teacher educators focused on the improvement of their student-teachers' capacities and language proficiency by overcoming their current shortcomings. "In this department, the teachers all agree with the idea that the first priority for us is to improve or develop our students' English ability" (J-ELTE 12). Further, J-ELTEs hoped to contribute in some way to the development of language teaching in their local areas by improving teaching practices.

"Though this Board of Education has some projects to boost the language ability of certain schools, and for the past three years I was involved in visiting those junior high schools and observing the lessons and giving some comments and encouraging teachers to boost their abilities... but as long as they are struggling to be better teachers and better schools, why not help them?" (F-ELTE 6).

For J-ELTEs, change in language education was generally described in terms of improvement. Ideas of novelty or newness were largely absent in the J-ELTEs talk and were circumscribed to discussion of 'new teachers' rather than new pedagogical innovations or novel trends in society or language learning. Transcendence overlaid multiple themes in the Japanese context, such as freedom in teaching as well as pressure from the university to perform. Yet at its core, transcendence as a theme in the teacher educators' talk referenced the individual nature of professional learning as personal improvement.

5.3.1.4 The nature and aims of professional agency

The second pair of contrasting themes I have termed *permanence* and *ephemerality* in professional learning. Permanence was a theme in the Finnish context, and ephemerality presented only in the Japanese context. These two themes were manifest in the teacher educators' talk about their experiences (or lack of experiences) of collective agency, and the lasting impact of their professional work on others within the professional community. Teacher educators in the Finnish context expressed a value in their perceived agency to create or initiate lasting change within professional communities at classroom, departmental, institutional, national or international levels of language teaching. Teacher educators in the Japanese context expressed a more circumspect perspective regarding their professional agency and expressed a sense of transience and ephemerality in their personal influence on their professional communities at all levels.

In the Finnish context, the theme of *permanence* was identified in the teacher educators' descriptions of the desire to have, and in many cases success in having, lasting impact on their professional communities. This impact spread wide with a sense of legacy and the consolidation of power in response to change. "We started last year this cooperation... and so obviously then we want to sort of try an influence that we are pretty powerful, we are pretty big, and we are quite, you know, you can't abolish us." (F-ELTE 4) F-ELTEs seemed to share a sense that their work mattered, and while accepting tensions inherent to teacher education and language teaching such as funding and student-teacher selection, the F-ELTEs narrated continuities of personal and institutional transformation that endured towards the future. Related to transformation, F-ELTEs interpreted success in their work in the ability to modify programs and pedagogical orientations, not only as individuals but as part of a group of educators. "And then you have the feeling that, okay, you've added a new dimension to this university." (F-ELTE 1)

In the Japanese context, the theme of *ephemerality* was manifest in expressions of transience regarding their own personal impact on their professional communities and on society as a whole. Teacher educators emphasized the past and current success of their own efforts without mention of lasting organizational or social change in language learning and teaching. The theme of ephemerality was related to the J-ELTEs expressions of not overly influencing or pressuring their colleagues. The sense of not being able to create

lasting organizational change within their institutions was manifest even from senior Japanese teacher educators in this study, who expressed uncertainty as to whether their initiatives would be continued by junior professors after their retirement.

“I’m not sure [if this conference will continue after I retire.] I’m not sure, and I’m out of breath now... I hope the lady will take over. But I don’t want to be very bossy. I don’t want to control her and I think she’s just one of my colleagues and we’re on the same level. So if she thinks it’s better to continue, she will do that.” (J-ELTE 12)

J-ELTEs expressed limitations in their ability to directly impact others over space and time or impress upon others to continue to follow in reforms for the sake of lasting organizational change. “So, the department is not the last decision maker. We have to pass it on to the committee, but everything is already settled outside the department so when you go to the committee meeting they’ll kick it back... so there was nothing that we were able to do.” (J-ELTE 16) The sense of having limited influence over others was also expressed as both an upward and a downward limitation. J-ELTEs expressed challenges in motivating language learners as well as in impacting the perception of English in the wider society. “The kind of ‘social needs’ of [English] are scarce in this country, and in that context how to motivate the learners, with low motivation to start with... Maybe I myself won’t be able to create the language needs, just myself.” (J-ELTE 9)

Throughout their talk, the J-ELTEs circumscribed their descriptions of professional agency as limited in time with relation to the social environment.

5.3.1.5 Temporal orientations

The third thematic pair of is *future orientation* and *past orientation* toward professional learning. Future orientation was identified as a theme only in the Finnish context and Past orientation only identified as a theme in the Japanese context. This pair of contrasting themes related to how the ELTEs situated themselves in relation to the work of language teacher education.

In the Finnish context the *future orientation* manifest in F-ELTEs concern for future, for new and potential changes in university reform and with respect to addressing trends in language education. Teacher educators considered the development of language learning and teaching with anticipation of future changes in society. This was particularly in reference to increasing student diversity in schools and inclusion. “I don’t think that our school system and our society is actually very well prepared for this... because I think the whole society is in transition and I’ve been trying to understand what is going on here.” (F-ELTE 4) Teacher educators in Finland expressed an awareness of their professional work as being related to addressing student-teachers’ preparation for a diverse and changing world. This was also related to a sense of the need for novelty and innovation in the development of English language teacher education. “There seems to be a huge gap to be bridged in the way we teach foreign languages in the classrooms and in the ways the young people use foreign

languages nowadays in the community.” (F-ELTE 5) The future orientation was apparent in both inquiry and identity learning.

In the Japanese context, J-ELTEs expressed a *past orientation* in relation to their professional practice which encompassed maintaining, developing and articulating to their students an awareness of the connection between the current issues in language teaching and the historical antecedents of English teaching in Japan. This historical information also formed a part of the teacher educators’ own professional knowledge. J-ELTEs described English language education as problematic and politicized. “Still they have to know about the bright side and dark side of English education. So, in order not to be arrogant” (J-ELTE 12) Tensions related to English education in Japan were present in the teacher educators’ descriptions of their research, teaching, local public service involvement, as well as their broader perspectives on language policy and social trends in language learning. Teacher educators thus described a need for their student-teachers to have a more complete grasp on the development of English education in Japan. “It’s not just what goes into the classroom, it’s a part of a political makeup of the society. So they should understand the constitution, the history of what has gone on in education in the country.” (J-ELTE 5). These concerns about the politically charged nature of English language education in Japan were expressed by the teacher educators as impacting the development of their professional practice and their interactions with their students and, to some extent, their colleagues.

“...And the sense that English is undermining the stability of the Japanese society because there is a focus on English and therefore the heart. And I mean that in sort of a metaphoric sense, but a very symbolic and real sense. The heart of the country will be eviscerated if the language is undermined. And people believe this. Some of our students have said this in their homework last week.” (J-ELTE 16)

Understanding the existing systems of language education- why they exist, their historical development and functioning- was understood as important for improving English language education in Japan. Further, articulating these tensions to student-teachers was an important part of the J-ELTEs work.

5.3.1.6 Responses to structure

The final pair of thematic differences was evident in the ELTEs expressions of the nature of the power dynamics within the professional community in relation to professional learning. These two orientations are described in the themes of *serendipity* and *appreciation*. Serendipity as a theme was present only in the Finnish context, and appreciation only in the Japanese context.

In the Finnish context, teacher educators described *serendipity* as a meaningful aspect of their professional learning. Luck, chance and serendipity were discussed in chapter 5.1.2.1 aspects of the collegial environment which resourced professional learning. Talk of serendipity was present in the Finnish context in discussion of the development of collective agency, the role of the leadership in professional learning, the development of research and teaching

projects, and in receiving work placements. Luck was related to the sense that professional encounters which led to perceived professional development “just happened” (F-ELTE 4) and that there was no person or particular power who was involved in directing particular decisions or outcomes. “I don’t think there was anyone orchestrating. I think it was a lucky chance.” (F-ELTE 5)

In the Japanese context, J-ELTEs described as sense of *appreciation* for the affordance of professional opportunities by the university or other organizational structures. Appreciation was expressed in relation to the institutional structures which served to resource professional learning. Support in administrative duties from the administrative staff of the university “I really appreciate their work” (J-ELTE 6)

The organizational provisions for autonomy in research and teaching were described with a sense of gratitude “Well, academic freedom. I appreciate that.” (J-ELTE 2). The theme of appreciation was also evident in J-ELTEs descriptions of the institutional expectations for publication. These expectations inferred a professional value for. “The other aspect of support is pressure. There is a pressure to put papers out. I actually appreciate that.” (J-ELTE 5). J-ELTEs expressed appreciation for the affirmative and cooperative stance of boards of education in recognizing universities of education as valuable and legitimate sites of educational research, evidenced an interest from the board of education about research collaboration between J-ELTEs and schools.

“You know when people ask me questions about my research - I mean officials, board of education school types - when they ask questions it’s generally not in such a way as, ‘We don’t want to do this.’ It’s just we need to be on clear footing for this, that and the other thing. To which I fully agree and I’m actually quite thankful for those kinds of questions.” (J-ELTE 8)

In the Japanese context, appreciation for opportunity was a related to professional autonomy in research and teaching, as well as the recognition of value or significance of one’s work. The J-ELTEs sense of appreciation or gratefulness was expressed in to their perception of how the circumstances which lead to their professional learning could come about. In many cases, the teacher educators described opportunities and encouragement from the university administration, boards of education and the ministry.

5.3.1.7 Summary of thematic differences

The differences in themes rendered through the comparative thematic analysis evidence distinct discourses about professional learning available to ELTEs in Finland and Japan. By interrogating these thematic distinctions, I do not mean to suggest radical differences between the professional learning of teacher educators in Finland and Japan, but rather to elaborate nuances in the directionality of particular discourses the development of English language learning and teacher education in both contexts. To some extent, these differences reflect matters of practice, for example interpretations of the role of public dialogue in professional learning. Yet to a greater extent they represent subtle

turns in the ELTEs interpretations of agency, temporality and structure. Elaboration of these distinctions gives some indication of particular aspects of the language or discourses that ELTEs use as mediational tools in constructing differentiated worlds.

5.3.2 Similarities between the two studies

The comparative thematic analysis also serves to elaborate those aspects of the two studies which are expressed in similar or compatible ways. There were few thematic similarities which shared clearly commensurable expression across participants in both contexts. The similarities presented here represent a level of sameness that their expression could not be meaningfully differentiated between contexts. The two similarities are *agency in research and teaching* and *friendship*.

5.3.2.1 Agency in research and teaching

In both studies, ELTEs expressed a high degree of control of the content of their teaching and research. They were able to choose their own teaching methods and teaching materials, and they were able to conduct their teaching in accordance with their own professional views. Further, teacher educators in both studies described a high degree of agency regarding the trajectories of their own research, particularly with regards to the topics of their research. In both contexts, ELTEs directed their own research agendas in accordance with their own professional areas of expertise and interest. This was also related to the value that the teacher educators in both studies expressed for academic freedom. In both studies, teacher educators expressed a value in the freedom to design their own classes and pursue their own research interests. Further, in both studies, teacher educators valued academic freedom to the extent that they were able to determine their own timetables and locations for research.

In the Japanese context, this high degree of agency in one's own teaching may not be unrelated to the wide diversity of beliefs about language teaching expressed by their colleagues. Faced with dissent from colleagues about the aims and methods of language teaching, J-ELTEs used their classrooms to pursue their own visions of teaching practice, without interference from their colleagues.

5.3.2.2 Friendship

The second thematic similarity between the two studies was that ELTEs valued the contribution of good friends as supports for their professional learning. In both studies, teacher educators expressed a particular value to their professional learning for those professionally close to them whom they would also consider personal friends. In the Japanese context, friends were more often members of external professional communities (for example academic societies) or alumni groups. However, the impact of friendship on driving professional learning was the same. Teacher educators in both studies described being incentivized by professional friendships to pursue new projects, attend conferences, and develop their work. This indicates that professional learning is not only resourced by

those who are considered professional colleagues, but also those who are considered friends. This indicates that across studies, there are affective and emotional aspects of professional learning.

TABLE 5 Summary of findings for research questions 1, 2 & 3

Kinds of Professional Learning (Research Question 1)	Resources to Professional Learning (Research Question 2)	Constraints to Professional Learning (Research Question 2)	Individual Agency (Research Question 3)	Collective Agency (Research Question 3)
<i>Finland</i>				
Inquiry learning	Collegial environment	Individual attributes	Expressing identity	Working on daily researching and teaching
Identity learning	Financial support Academic freedom	Infrastructure	Developing relationships Assisting others Seeking assistance	Transforming English language education Resisting and consolidating power
<i>Japan</i>				
Critical self-reflection	Financial support	Time	Control over research and teaching agendas	Leadership
Experience and observation	Academic freedom	Differences in background and belief	Making requests	
Lecturing and listening	Vertical alliance Institutional affiliation	Contested expertise and experience	Responding to requests Refraining from interaction	

TABLE 6 Summary of findings of the comparative thematic analysis, research question 4

	Thematic content	<i>Finland</i>	<i>Japan</i>
Themes present in both, but expressed differently	Public dialogue in professional learning	Open, public dialogue	Private dialogue, public monologue
	Perceptions of others' expertise	Legitimacy of colleagues' expertise, including student expertise	Tensions recognizing expertise of some departmental colleagues in research and teaching about language education, particularly those not " <i>education people</i> " (i.e. teacher educators)
Themes present in one context but not the other	The nature and aims of professional learning	Transformation <i>Self-change, metamorphosis into something new</i>	Transcendence <i>Self-betterment and improvement</i>
	The nature and aims of professional learning	Permanence <i>Sense of lasting impact and agency for sustained organizational change</i>	Ephemerality <i>Sense of limitations on lasting influence over others and the institutional legacy of one's work</i>
	Temporal Orientations	Future orientation <i>Transformation of society, need for innovation in a dynamic and changing world</i>	Past orientation <i>History of English in Japan as relevant to current practice</i>
	Responses to Structure	Serendipity <i>Response to institutional benefit as chance, luck and randomness</i>	Appreciation <i>Response to institutional benefit as gratefulness to power for providing opportunity</i>
Shared Themes	Agency in Research and Teaching	Expressions of control over research and teaching agendas, expressions of academic freedom	
	Friendship	Many meaningful professional relationships were also lasting friendships	

6 DISCUSSION

The purpose of this dissertation is to gain a better understanding of how English language teacher educators (ELTEs) develop as professionals to meet the current challenges of English language education in different contexts. The research investigates teacher educators' professional learning, the resources and constraints for professional learning, and professional agency in English-language teacher education in Finland and Japan. This investigation is accomplished by examining English-language teacher educators' talk about their own professional learning in relation to their professional communities. The following sections of Chapter 10 summarize the findings and suggest connections to previous research (6.1), provide methodological reflections on the limitations of the study (6.2), suggest practical implications for English-language teacher educators' professional development (6.3) and provide directions for future research (6.4).

6.1 Reflections on the significance of the findings

The results of this study demonstrate that English-language teacher educators' interpretations of professional learning and professional agency are influenced not only by the particular micro-political contexts of their immediate professional communities, but that teacher educators' talk shares identifiable thematic elements across institutions within a particular national context. In particular, the current study elaborates the extent to which English-language teacher educators in differing national sociocultural contexts describe their professional learning to be social and dialogic in nature. The implications of professional learning understood as either a dialogic and social endeavor, or as primarily an individual process, further manifests in the teacher educators' descriptions of the resources for their own professional learning, as well as descriptions of their own agency in using these resources.

The main finding from the Finnish context is that professional learning is described as including significant social and dialogic aspects. The social aspects of professional learning were evident in the main forms of professional learning

identified in the Finnish context: inquiry learning and identity learning. ELTEs in the Finnish context valued their colleagues' expertise and sought validation and augmentation of their own professional learning in dialogue with colleagues. In the Finnish context, individual and collective professional agency played a meaningful role in mediating the ELTE's professional learning. Teacher educators were able to affect not only their own work, but also to lead and to participate in changes related to the development of English-language education at the level of individual practice, departmental, university, local, national and regional language education. ELTEs in Finland valued the maintenance of trusting and equal relational interactions with colleagues, students and superiors. They also described their professional learning and agency to be resourced by a sense of serendipity, the expression of which was unique to participants in the Finnish context.

The findings from the Finnish context support previous research findings from general teacher education in Finland. The English-language teacher educators in the Finnish context particularly valued research-oriented teaching, and described research on language learning, teaching, and culture as a meaningful part of their own professional learning. This finding adds to the current studies that have shown the teacher educators to value research-based teaching as part of the professional learning of their student-teachers and suggests congruence between the Finnish English-language teacher educators' perceptions of their own professional learning and their perceptions of the professional learning trajectory of their student-teacher.

The main findings from the Japanese context show that professional learning is described by the English-language teacher educators as primarily an individual endeavor. J-ELTEs assumed personal responsibility for the development of their own research, teaching and the successful fulfillment of their professional obligations. The centrality of individual professional learning in the Japanese context was evidenced in the main form of professional learning: critical self-reflection. Further, the most significant resource for professional learning in the Japanese context was financial funding which the teacher educators could allocate at their own discretion. For ELTEs in the Japanese context, interactions within the professional community were described in multiple ways as constraining professional learning. Teacher educators' individual professional agency was strongest in the development of their research and teaching, while the development of collective agency (as theorized by Pelenc et al., 2015) was limited. Collective agency manifested when the J-ELTEs themselves were in leadership positions. The importance of leadership in talk about collective agency is related to the significance of hierarchical professional relationships within the workplace as a resource for professional learning. Hierarchical dynamics manifested in the resources for learning as well as in the enactment of professional agency.

Although agency can be understood as "intentional causal intervention in the world," (2012) the findings of the present study show that J-ELTEs often displayed professional agency in the workplace by purposeful and intentional

non-intervention in the professional practices of their colleagues. This is in line with Kitayama's contention that agency in the Japanese context often manifests as control or adjustment of the self with reference to the desires of others (Ratner, 2000). This finding of the present study thus indicates that there may yet remain gaps in a more robust theorization of professional learning in context.

In many ways, the findings from the Japanese context are in line with previous research, which has emphasized the significance of individual effort and social obligation in learning. Yuan (Kitayama & Uchida, 2005; Markus & Kitayama, 2003) also found that ELTEs practice may be impeded by the students, in the form of a tension between meeting the students' needs or following one's own pedagogical aims in teaching.

The findings also indicate a sense of isolation among language teacher educators, extending what Yuan (2016) has indicated; in an East Asian institution of higher education colleagues are often unable to talk together about the development of their work, especially those who have come from the experience of teaching in schools. Professional autonomy was valued by the J-ELTEs, and also, it would seem, by their institutions. The teacher educators therefore held mutually reinforcing personal and social expectations of maintaining a high degree of independence in their research and teaching. Yet these demonstrations of teacher educator professionalism in line with the expectations for professionals within the context of higher education, often left the J-ELTEs with a sense of isolation and loneliness in comparison to their days working as teachers. This indicates the possibility that there should be increased consideration of issues of professional well-being.

According to these findings, financial support for research was a valued support for the teacher educators' professional development. This finding may be extended to consider the relationship between funding and the development of the researcher identity of teacher educators in the Japanese context. In most cases, the J-ELTEs in this study described their research as well-funded. This contrasts with findings, for example of ELTEs in the context of Hong Kong, whose researcher identities were subjugated in part due to a lack of funding for research (2015).

Most studies of English language education in Japan focus at the school level at teachers and students. Thus, the professional learning of those at the height of the institutional hierarchy of language education, in terms of age, years of experience, expertise, and their professional learning and agency in developing not only their own work but in shaping the trajectory of English-language teacher education nationally in Japan has been left under-studied. Other scholars have indicated that the social roles and learning of those individuals in highly prestigious positions (such as senior university professors at renowned institutions of higher education) fulfill different social obligations than those which are typically associated with the general population in Japanese society (Yuan, 2015).

In both the Finnish and the Japanese contexts, the findings showed that academic freedom was understood as a resource for professional learning. This

indicates that the structural provision of policies and institutional practices resourced the teacher educators' exercise of agency in the development of their teaching and research. Academic freedom was especially appreciated in the Japanese context. This finding indicates the interrelation between agency and autonomy exists within the structural environments of workplace learning. Therefore, although Huang and Benson (2013) have rightly suggested that agency can be a precursor to autonomy, it is also the case that the structural affordances of academic freedom can create a venue for the exercise of agency in the development of one's own work. This does not mean that individual autonomy is a precursor to agency per se, but rather that the possibility to develop both autonomy and agency are socially mediated and dependent upon wider institutional dynamics. Therefore, it cannot be expected that autonomy develops only from an individual's act of agency in wresting control, or in the interpersonal dynamics between those who resource learning in practice (i.e. student and teacher, senior and junior faculty). Rather, the development of autonomy depends on structural conditions. In this case, the affordances of academic freedom itself created a sense of autonomy in which the teacher educators exercised agency to develop their own work.

It may also be the case that a connection can be made between academic freedom and the teacher educators' sense of professional expertise. If we understand autonomy as a capability of those who have learned how to learn and are expert in learning (Huang & Benson, 2013), the sense of academic freedom as a resource for learning may also serve to enhance the teacher educators' professional identity as experts in their field. This is in line with previous understandings of the relationship between teacher autonomy as a key to the type of teacher professionalism which has been widely praised in Finland. However, the connection between autonomy and organizational learning in teacher education has been problematized (Wenden, 1991). Further consideration could therefore be made as to the relationship, for example between autonomy and collective agency in teacher education, or between autonomy and language teacher educators' professional learning.

The findings of the comparative analysis highlight the difference in perceptions of the role of public dialogue in professional learning. While the findings from the Finnish context show the significance of open public discourse in professional learning, findings from the Japanese context reveal that public monologue and private dialogue play more significant roles in the English-language teacher educators' descriptions of their professional learning. This is particularly interesting in light of the work of Nonaka (Hökkä, 2012) in the context of the Japanese business sector, in which dialogue is particularly emphasized in the knowledge creation process. However, it may be that dialogue is differently approached in the Japanese education sector, or that Nonaka's conception of dialogue does not necessitate an explicit differentiation in types of dialogue (public, private, monologue, discussion, etc.) Or, it may indicate that the type of knowledge creation that Nonaka has theorized is not happening in English language teacher education at universities in Japan. The lack of open

public discussion among colleagues about the development of research and teaching in the Japanese context was related to tensions surrounding perceptions of collegial expertise, embarrassment, competition and conflict avoidance.

A more nuanced understanding of the role that public dialogue plays in learning in the Japanese context may also go some way toward elaborating the well-documented difficulties of English language teachers of implementing communicative language teaching in Japan. These difficulties have been generally ascribed to cultural differences between Confucian educational cultures and the West (Nonaka, Toyama, & Konno, 2000). Such explanations emphasize the dominant role of the teacher as lecturer and student as receiver of information East Asian societies. In such interpretations, the hierarchical nature of East Asian educational cultures is viewed with a mix of admiration (for the teacher's control) and distain (for the perceived passivity of the students), while failing to interrogate more deeply the mechanisms by which such a dynamic is mediated. Findings of the present research may find resonance with other studies that have explored the role public dialogue in Socratic teaching styles, which are discursive by nature, and Confucian pedagogic strategies traditionally employed by teachers in East Asian countries such as Japan (Aoki, 2008; Badger & MacDonald, 2007; Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Hofstede, 1991; Littlewood, 2000, 2001; Scollon, 1999). Therefore, given that open public dialogue may not be highly appreciated as part of the professional learning of English teacher educators – and potentially university English teachers more generally – are there more valued ways or forms of learning that can be integrated into the professional practice of English teacher education? For example, greater opportunities for nurturing the inner monologue and critical self-reflection with structural support from the university (e.g. modifications of professional evaluations). Such a line of inquiry may benefit from the rich literature on learner autonomy in Japan and the noted tendency toward initiative and self-reliance in private study (Aoki, 2008).

The comparison of the two studies revealed differences in the ELTEs perceptions of their colleagues as potential resources for professional learning, with implications for the enactment of individual and collective agency. In the Finnish context, professional colleagues were described as meaningful resources for professional learning. Participants in Finland described using public dialogue frequently as a meaningful part of negotiating their workplace practices, learning from and with colleagues, discussing matters ranging from intimate identity concerns to regional language policies and philosophies of language learning and teaching. Mutuality and trust between colleagues in the Finnish context was connected to a sense of equality in interactional dynamics.

In the Japanese context, however, peer colleagues of equal status within the same university department were not found to contribute significantly to the participants' professional learning. Rather, J-ELTEs professional learning was primarily resourced in asymmetrical and differential relationships of vertical alliance, such as with senior professors, current or former mentors and students, school teachers, or between native and non-native speakers of Japanese. Peer-

type relationships were most often found to be maintained through affiliation with national academic societies. These professional relationships were often based on previous institutional affiliations, for example having studied at university together or taught together at schools. In this way, teacher educators in Japan availed themselves of relational dynamics to engage in many meaningful opportunities for professional learning.

Further, J-ELTEs expressed a high degree of professional agency in purposefully choosing non-interference in their colleagues' professional practices. They described taking stances and making decisions not to attempt to influence their colleagues' work. This finding is in line with previous research in Japan related to the role of the mentor during the practice of *kyouzai-kenkyuu* (lesson study) within a professional community. The mentor "observes the research lesson and participates in the discussion but avoids giving a proactive stance. Remarks from a mentor with higher competency may frustrate the discussion. A mentor states his or her opinions in the form of a commentary at the end of the discussion" (Smith & Palfreyman, 2003). Teacher educators in the Japanese context described their own public workplace communications similarly. Sincere professional opinions were described as being often purposefully withheld from public dialogue. When shared publicly, the teacher educators described, for example, waiting until the end of a meeting to express their perspectives as addressed to a general audience. Listening to this type of public monologue was also a way for J-ELTEs to understand their colleagues' perspectives in indirect public communication. Open discussion, on the other hand, was more often described as occurring through private and confidential information sharing. Despite this general lack of open public discussion within departments and between colleagues, in the two instances of collective agency identified in the Japanese context of this study, open, public discussion between group members was described as having a significant role in the development of particular projects. The findings of this research contribute to understanding how perceptions of learning and dynamics of social interaction influence the ways in which teacher educators interpret professional learning and agency at work in differing sociocultural contexts.

Similarities identified between the teacher educators' professional practice and learning within their professional communities in Finland and Japan centered around the teacher educators' sense of individual agency. Foremost, ELTEs in both contexts described very strong pedagogical agency. Autonomy in teaching and research were highly valued by all participants, and they described having great freedom in developing their own work. ELTEs in both studies expressed pedagogical agency in determining their teaching methods and materials, as well as directing their own research aims and objectives according to their own professional interests.

Friendship was also valued in professional learning in both studies, and was viewed as a resource for learning. In both cases, the teacher educators described seeking out opportunities to work with professional friends as part of developing their teaching or research. It's also the case that in both studies

financial support was meaningful, although in the Finnish context financial support was also tied to social support for learning.

The comparative analysis charts the thematic differences from which the findings of each context emerge. The analytical intent of the comparative analysis is, in part, to consider aspects which present only in one context. Interestingly, several singularly identified themes presented unique counterparts between contexts. In the findings, these were paired as couplets which contribute to an in-depth of analysis of the underlying themes from which emerge the distinct findings of the two participant groups. These pairings are: transformation & transcendence, permanence & ephemerality, future orientation & historical orientation, serendipity & appreciation. These thematic differences may indicate some measure of divergence in ontological or discursive paths between English-language teacher educators in Finnish and Japanese contexts, based on the discursive repertoires available for making sense of one's own work. The findings of the present study support the work of Li (Chichibu, 2016, p. 157), who has indicated that the development of educational theorization in what is generally described as "the West" and "East Asia" have emerged from different ontological and philosophical traditions, and have been influenced at different times by different theories of mind and society. These learning models are transmitted from one generation to the next (Li, 2005, 2012, 2016a, 2016b; van Egmond, Kühnen, & Li, 2013).

At the present moment, there can be identified much similarity in the discourses of globalization and the educational objectives pursued in English-language education across geographical regions (Li, 2016b). There are also shared global discussions and scholarship about language education, (e.g. communicative language teaching, CLIL, L2 student motivation, etc.). The production and sharing of scholarly thought is less geographically and temporally bound than it has been previous to the information age. However, the legacy of the social transmission of certain ways of knowing related to learning and human agency remain embodied and reproduced in particular ways between people within a particular geographic locale. Thus, current discourses cannot be disconnected from the history of meanings shared by one's immediate predecessors in a particular location.

The unique sub-themes in the Finnish context - that learning is negotiating transformation and change of self and society (transformation); that agentic action is most meaningful when significant and lasting change is sustained in the environment or practice (permanence); that learning and teaching are associated with the future of society and anticipating meaningful responses to future uncertainty in both pedagogy and research (future orientation) - these ways of framing the self and the world can be understood as conventional lines of discourse in Western thought. Likewise, the unique sub-themes in the Japanese context- that learning is an embodied task of maturing, mastering and perfecting the self (transcendence); that one's individual agency over others and the world is limited temporally and bodily (ephemerality); that current educational circumstances are tied to and incomprehensible without a deep appreciation for

an omnipresent past (historical orientation)- are identifiable in traditional lines of East Asian philosophy (Takayama, 2008).

Perhaps findings related to serendipity and appreciation, more than indicating an existential difference about the social structures of universities in Finland and Japan, represent distinctive ways to situate oneself in relation to institutional contexts, which creates a peaceful resolution of inherent power conflicts within the workplace. Since institutional power dynamics are complex, it may be difficult or perhaps impossible for an individual to accurately parse the internal politics which influence one's professional circumstance. Serendipity and appreciation thus represent interpretations of occasions of professional development in relation to the structural power dynamics at play in the workplace. Such interpretations may be considered discursive strategies which afford a possibility for professional well-being. Interestingly, these discursive strategies of serendipity and appreciation in professional learning provide alternatives to the hero/victim narratives which have been identified in research on teacher educator's professional learning (Ichijo & Nonaka, 2007; Nakamura, 1991; Nonaka & Toyama, 2003; Nonaka et al., 2000).

6.2 Methodological reflections

I now turn to a critical consideration of the limitations of the present study. First, I present a methodological consideration of the limitations of comparative qualitative research in education. Second, I reflect on my own position and the emic/etic distinction in qualitative and comparative research. Finally, I address potential limitations of the data collection in the present study. Each of these three areas is considered with reference to how the issues have been managed in the present study and how limitations could possibly be mitigated in future research.

6.2.1 Considerations for international comparative education research

The methodological approach of the present study is a comparative analysis of teacher educators' talk in two geographically disparate locations. Comparative studies, such as this one, have the benefit of internally problematizing the generalizability of the research findings. The present comparative study highlights the primacy of context in English-language teacher educators' professional learning and professional agency by offering differing perspectives on professional learning, its resources and constraints, and the enactment of professional agency in two disparate national contexts. The findings related to English-language teacher educators in Finland are not generalizable to English-language teacher educators in Japan, nor vice-versa.

Further, on the basis of the present findings we cannot make any generalizations to from the ELTEs in this study to ELTEs in different contexts, nor to teacher educators or language teachers generally. The results of this study

are limited to these particular participants, situated within particular geographical spaces in time. Moreover, the findings cannot represent the whole of each individual participants' understandings, perceptions, or experience. The findings represent only a consideration of how a particular selection of ELTEs in Finland and Japan talked about learning and agency during interviews conducted in 2011-2012. The findings are derived from a synthesis of the participant's unique descriptions. The rich data that was collected during the interviews for this study (over 300 pages) cannot be in its entirety presented meaningfully for the reader without distillation and synthesis, which is the work of qualitative research. Reducing the lengthy accounts given by the individual participants has been at times an arduous process. The nature of such qualitative research is at once amplifying shared voices, but also discriminately omitting from the participants' talk that which is irrelevant or inconsequential to the data corpus. This is done with recognition that some unique expressions of individual participants, which were meaningful enough to them to share in our interviews were, in effect, silenced, while those shared thematic elements are rendered in the findings of the study. In comparative international educational research, as in other qualitative research, it is regarded as beneficial to approach this process from a position of empathy towards the participants (Bullough Jr, 2015). This process of determining what is meaningful requires constant reflexivity on the part of the researcher.

Moreover, in comparing the talk of the participants across contexts, the aim is not to reify a distinction between Finland and Japan. Nor is it meant to intimate hegemonic differences, to dichotomize or to ignore the wide array of variation in perspectives and scholarship emerging from these locations. Rather than to essentialize differences, the objective is to recognize nuances of meaning and illuminate more fully how context can shape the expression of particular concepts (e.g. professional learning) in talk. In this way, the current study leads us away from an uncritical acceptance of implied universals of human learning and agency, toward contextually and temporally emergent interpretations. Therefore, the findings from this study do not represent facts in a positivistic sense, but ways of understanding professional learning and professional agency as influenced by contexts which span beyond the micro political and organizational toward systemic and historically generated discourses in particular geographic locations.

6.2.2 Ethical considerations: from emic vs etic to empathetic

At the beginning of the research, I had most clearly understood my role as researcher in terms of the emic and etic distinction which is often made in comparative international education research. Distinguishing between the participants' subjective understandings (emic) and the researcher's objective understandings (etic) is often highlighted in international comparative research. The suggestion of a distinction between emic and etic follows from an ethical question of who can accurately interpret research. Given that my mother tongue is neither Finnish nor Japanese, and that I received my primary through master's

level education in the United States, I began this research with an understanding of myself as occupying a clearly etic position vis-a-vis the participants in the study.

However, the process of collecting and analyzing the data and of interpreting the findings has led me to consider more critically the acceptance of a polarized distinction between emic and etic perspectives in comparative research. In his discussion of doctoral students' reflexivity in conducting comparative research, Hellowell (Hellowell, 2006) suggests that rather than take dualistic notion of emic and etic, it is useful to consider instead the ways in which the researcher herself is insider and outsider. Hellowell conceptualizes this distinction in terms of a spectrum of being more or less insider or outsider. He also calls on his doctoral students to recognize the ways in which their multiple identities (professional, gender, language, national, etc.) may allow them to achieve various positionality in relation to the participants and the research.

Engaging in a process of reflexivity during all stages of qualitative research calls on the researcher to question deeply and iteratively her own subjectivity. Rather than trying to eliminate subjectivity, the researcher accepts her own multiple subjectivities, laying bare an awareness of the design and interpretations of the study. This calls for a recognition of the tensions between conceptualizations of objectivity and subjectivity (2006). Foremost among these tensions in comparative research is the extent to which it is possible to separate the self from the object of study, the self from its context, and the object of study from its context. The present study itself shows that the object of study is most meaningfully understood in reference to the sociocultural context. Reflexivity challenges the extent to which separation of subject-object and context is possible, and in comparative research, the extent to which this possible de-contextualization assists in creating a rich understanding of the data. Further, neither the researcher nor the subject under investigation are fixed (McNess, Arthur, & Crossley, 2015).

For this reason, rather than considering closeness and distance, familiar and strange or emic and etic, Hellowell (McNess et al., 2015) suggests a reflexivity that focuses on empathy and alienation. To consider empathy in the process of qualitative research reframes the ethical considerations as significant not only in terms of the relationship between the researcher and the authenticity of the research, but as a humanistic consideration between the researcher and the study participants. It is from this empathetic stance which I provide a brief reflexive expository about my positionality in relation to the research. Because it is less intuitive for me, I begin by addressing my position as an insider.

As Hellowell (2006) suggests, I am more of an 'insider' than someone who has never lived in Finland or Japan, or than someone who has not taught English in these countries. Having lived and taught in Japan for two years, and having a basic proficiency in Japanese, I sense myself to have an awareness of some nuances of meanings, terms, and concepts that were familiar to my participants. For example, I have participated in lesson study while teaching in Japan, which was a practice mentioned by many of the participants in the study. It was also

the case that when the J-ELTEs learned that I had been an Assistant Language Teacher (ALT) on the Japan Exchange and Teaching Programme (JET) for two years, there was a shared knowledge of what JET means in social discourse, and we were able to situate ourselves in reference to one another. In this way, they could perhaps imagine something about my experiences with English in the Japanese educational system. In some small sense, in returning to Japan to conduct the interviews I felt myself a 'homecomer' (Hellowell, 2006). Upon returning to Japan, I quickly re-acclimated to the smells, tastes, and my habituated ways of doing, being, and speaking in Japan. I felt a sense of comfort in this habitus. Yet, returning to Japan in the capacity of a university-affiliated researcher rather than as an assistant English teacher positioned me with the possibility to listen, to hear, to understand the experiences of others in a new and more focused way by conducting interviews with university English teachers across the country. In this sense, I felt it very satisfying to come back to Japan and gain access to ELTEs at various universities, by virtue of my affiliation with a Finnish University.

Likewise, if I consider my position in relation to the Finnish context, I am a doctoral researcher in the Finnish system within a faculty of education. As such, the research design was influenced by the approaches to research often taken in Finland, in this case the sociocultural approach to qualitative research. As a doctoral student at a Finnish university, I am myself embedded within an educational faculty in the Finnish context. I have lived in Finland for nearly ten years, and have gained Finnish citizenship and functional proficiency in Finnish. In the case of both Finland and Japan, I have some a priori knowledge and experience of these educational systems which I bring with me to the study.

However, in many ways I feel myself an outsider to this research. Particularly in the Japanese case, I had no experience with the universities where I did the interviews and I was not acquainted with any of the participants, nor their specific work communities, prior to the interviews. I have not myself been an English-language teacher educator in Japan, nor have I taught at a Japanese university. As my Japanese proficiency is limited, deep conversation of complexities and nuance are beyond me. I also feel that I am clearly foreign in the eyes of the participants, and that I am an outsider to them. Likewise, in the Finnish context I felt, especially at the time of the data collection, to be an outsider. And although I have become more embedded within institutions of Finnish education and Finnish society at large, there remains an unbridgeable gap between the 'insider' status of the participants at the time of the data collection and my own status.

Hellowell (2006) has discussed the idea of the researcher as 'stranger' who has freedom from entanglement. It is possible, particularly in the Japanese case, that there were some unintended advantages of being perceived of as an outsider to the professional communities of the participants. Upon reviewing an early draft of this dissertation, a scholar who has internationally published research on English language education in Japan asked me how it was that the Japanese participants, particularly the older senior Japanese male participants, expressed

themselves so frankly in the interviews. I was a bit surprised by this question, as I didn't at first have an answer. Upon reflection, I imagine it may be the case that because I was a young, female, foreign, English-speaking doctoral student, this may have created such an unequal power distance that some senior participants felt that their responses about their work could be shared candidly. Perhaps being a 'stranger' of lower status and doing the interviews in English allows for a certain sense of secrecy or privacy that may facilitate expressions of frustration and stance taking which would not be given to peers or expressed publicly. However, when considering the interpretation of the data, the participants may have some shared understandings and discourses which were not accessible to me, or which I was unaware of, which may have limited my interpretations. In an effort to mitigate this effect, I have discussed the research with people familiar with both the Finnish and Japanese contexts at all phases of the research. This has taken the form of shared coding, additional interviews, and reviewing and discussing the findings.

6.3 Limitations of the study

All research has limitations. The interpretations presented here are based on the descriptions of the participants of this study. These ELTE's descriptions may vary from those of other ELTEs not interviewed for this study, even within the same national contexts. In the previous sections, I have discussed some of the theoretical and methodological limitations of the study. Here, I address some of the practical limitations of the study which may have affected the results.

The first consideration is that of saturation with the Finnish data. Had there been more time and additional funding for travel, it would have been possible to add additional participants from other universities in Finland. For example, Francis et al. (2010) suggest that qualitative interview data include at least ten participant interviews. The present study included only eight participants from the Finnish context. Unlike the Japanese interviews, wherein I was able to anticipate the responses of the participants by the end of data collection, such saturation was not reached in the Finnish data. This is a limitation of the current study and were I to do this research again, I would add at least four more participants from at least one additional university in Finland.

A secondary limitation of the data collection may be that further triangulation would have been possible with the addition of different types of data. For example, observational data of meetings and teaching, or group interviews among particular professional communities would have added to the possibility for triangulation. To some extent, triangulation was achieved through participant review of interview transcripts, selected follow-up interviews, secondary coding by another researcher, and by discussing my interpretations of the findings with educational scholars from Finland and Japan. One possibility which emerged as an unintended part of the data collection was the pair interviews which were included in the study. These two interviews yielded some

of the richest data. Furthermore, it was from the experience of conducting these pair interviews that I got the idea for doing a dyadic pair analysis of the individual interviews, which assisted in the depth of the analysis. Were I to do this study again, particularly because of the focus on the role of the professional community, I would do more pair and group interviews, in addition to the individual interviews.

A third consideration with the data collection may be that of the language of the interviews. In addition to a reflexive consideration of my own position in relation to the research, not being native-level fluent in Finnish and Japanese has methodological ramifications in this study. The choice not to hire a translator, but rather to conduct the interviews in English may have reinforced certain unequal power-dynamics between the interviewer and the interviewee when English is my mother tongue and the second language of most of the participants. I think that for the case of the participants, in all cases, as ELTEs, their English fluency was to a level that there would be little difference between the content of their talk in English and in their mother tongue. In the case of the interview I conducted in Japanese, my comprehension of the participant's answers during the interview itself limited my ability to solicit deeper responses (e.g. more in-depth follow-up questioning than, "Why is that?"). However, the interview in Japanese also yielded very rich expressions of the participant's role as a senior faculty member and the sources of his professional expertise. Further, his interview displayed clear similarities to the expressions of other participants whose interviews were in English. In this sense, although there may have been more to elicit during the interview had my Japanese proficiency been better, I would also maintain that this had little impact on the data collection overall.

Additionally, there is a consideration of my position in framing the questions of the interview. Interviews are a conversation, and meanings are negotiated between the researcher and the participants during the interaction. As the initial focus of my dissertation was English-language teacher educators' talk about collaboration in professional practice, the interview guide prompts focused on participants' shared work within professional communities (see Appendix 3). It could be proposed that the focus on collaboration during the Finnish interviews raises concerns that the responses of the Finnish participants were skewed by soliciting experiences of shared work with others within their professional communities. However, I would contend that this is not the case. With the same interview guide in the Japanese context, nearly all participants rejected the idea that shared work comprised a meaningful part of the development of their professional practice in research or teaching. Thus, I would contend that the Finnish participants could have answered in a similar way to the Japanese respondents, were it the case that working with others was not, in fact, a meaningful part of their professional learning.

Another possible limitation in the interviews is that although the interviews were semi-structured, leaving room for a range of topics and interactions during the different interviews, I used the word *development* rather than *learning* in asking the participants about their work. During the interviews, I asked the

participants to describe “developing” research, teaching and shared practices. To some extent, this word choice reflects my conceptual thinking at the time of the data collection. A related but further criticism could be that I did not ask the participants directly, ‘How do you learn?’ Instead, I asked them about their engagement within their professional communities to develop research, teaching, and other professional work. Based on the conceptualization of professional learning presented in this study, which theorizes workplace learning as embedded within practice, it can be proposed that it was not necessary to ask the participants about their learning directly in order to solicit relevant talk about professional learning. Furthermore, the findings are not based solely on descriptive accounts of what the teacher educators reported about their work, but on an interpretive analysis of implicit meanings within the participants’ talk. For example, identifying professional agency within the transcripts can be accomplished even though the term *agency* was not used to solicit responses about shared and individual work practices. However, were I to do this research again, I would phrase the questions to ask the participants directly about *learning*, in addition to asking about their professional development.

In both the Finnish and Japanese contexts, teacher educators were housed in various departments, institutes, and faculties. In the present study, I did not distinguish in the analysis between teacher educators who were employed, for example in the Japanese case, within the teacher training department and those employed within foreign language departments. The structural organization of teacher training within the university departments may have a significant impact on teacher educators’ perspectives about their colleagues being resources for their professional learning. The issue of departmental affiliation is not elaborated in the present research. In part, the choice to set aside departmental affiliation from the analysis was a matter of comparability of the Finnish and Japanese data. For concerns of anonymity, affiliations were not reported in the Finnish context. As such, I chose to also redact this information from the Japanese data for the sake of coherence. However, in both contexts teacher educators’ work is embedded within particular institutional structures, and these structures may be relevant to a more nuanced interpretation of teacher educators’ learning and agency in various sociocultural contexts.

As a final note, it is worth addressing the issue of data obsolescence. Data for this study were collected in 2011 and 2012, nearly eight years from the completion of this dissertation. A question may be raised to the relevance of this data to the current state of English language teacher education in both Finland and Japan, and the scholarly contribution which may not be representative of the current state-of-the-art. I find this criticism valid, at least in part, and I would respond thus: qualitative research which is based upon a constructivist ontology does not suppose the discovering of a fixed truth. The interviews represent fragments of construed realities; realities which are in flux, changing between times and interactional groups. The progress of time is not linear, nor does it proceed at a set tempo. It may be the case that the talk collected here is so radically different from the talk that would be generated if the interviews took

place today that these findings bear little relevance to the current situation, however I find no reason to believe that is the case, nor that it would necessarily be the case.

6.4 Practical implications for language teacher educators' professional development

This study seeks to contribute to discussions of the role of context in language teacher education through a small-scale, comparative and qualitative study. As such, the findings of this study cannot provide a basis for comprehensive recommendations for the development of language teacher education. However, some practical implications for the local development of ELTE's professional learning are here addressed. Practical implications are meant to suggest some ways that institutions or others can interpret the findings of this study in practice.

One implication is that official professional development programs may benefit from strategies which correspond to the ways that teacher educators themselves say that their individual professional learning is most meaningfully resourced. In both contexts, the continuing development of English pedagogy was a platform, reason, and space for professional learning. In the Finnish context, the subject-matter group was a support for individual learning as well as a factor in the development of collective agency which led to collaborative projects across units and institutions. Collective agency was often related to shared subject matter expertise. This echoes Edward's (A Edwards, 2005, 2011) suggestion that the development of relational agency is object-oriented and premised upon common knowledge. The importance of subject-matter has been indicated in previous studies in context of Finnish teacher education, in which subject-matter groups play a central role in supporting the professional learning of individuals (Hökkä, 2012).

Likewise, in the Japanese context teacher educators often leveled criticism at the university's formal Faculty Development programs for bringing together faculty from such a wide range of disciplines that it was difficult for language teacher educators to glean meaningful pedagogical insights from, for example, professors working in the natural sciences. Given that university teachers in Japan are relatively mobile between universities, and given that universities seek to maintain experts from a range of disciplines for the sake of institutional competitiveness and curricular requirements (i.e. experts in linguistics, literature, and pedagogy), support for national professional networks of language teacher educators that span universities may thus function to provide opportunities for language teacher educators to discuss the development of language teacher education. Further, the external nature of such societies can in some part by-pass internal micro-politics of the university or department which, as indicated in the present research, may become sites for professional embarrassment and the contestation of professional expertise. Vibrant national societies for English

teachers already exist in Japan, e.g. The Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT), The Japan Association of College English Teachers (JACET) and Japan Society of English Language Education (JASELE). These associations and societies may provide meaningful opportunities for teacher educators' professional learning. Teacher educators' professional development may also benefit from the strengthening of networks geared for language teacher educators.

6.5 Suggestions for future research

I here present some suggestions for future research. In Finland, further research could consider teacher educators' *shared repertoires* and the concept of *serendipity* in educational research. In Japan, future research could consider the professional learning, agency and identity of *senior professors*, *international staff* and the concept of *collective agency* in Japanese universities. Finally, from the findings of the comparative study I suggest future research relating to the role of *public discussion* in professional learning and professional agency in a range of international contexts.

In light of previous research, there are two findings from the Finnish context which may present possibilities for new research. First, English-language teacher educators in Finland described their understandings of both language education and their own professional practice in terms of *a shared body of theoretical and empirical research*. Across universities, departments and career stages, ELTEs in the Finnish context consistently described their professional practice in terms of sociocultural learning theories and teaching methods. Furthermore, they cited the same specific research studies and theorists to explain their orientations toward the development of their work.

Krokfors et al. (2011) also found that teacher educators in Finland are like-minded in their orientations toward their work. Whether this like-mindedness is a feature of particular departments or subject-matter groups in the Finnish context is a question for future research. Research about like-mindedness or shared repertoires in various contexts also may have relevance to conversations about faculty diversity and organizational learning. The present findings correspond to Wenger's (1998) assertion that communities of practice have a shared repertoire.

A second area for future Finnish research is that of serendipity in professional learning. The findings of the present study suggest that there are limits to ELTE's meaningful interpretation of institutional control. Further consideration of how teacher educators situate themselves and interpret their contexts as beneficial to their professional learning, while investigating the power dynamics from which particular constellations of events occur at the institutional level may illuminate the use of serendipity as a discursive tool for interpreting organizational change. Bringing together research on fortuity (Bandura, 1998) with research on serendipity (De Rond, 2014) may illuminate

discourses about perceptions of how that institutional power comes to bear on professional learning. Chance also emerges in discussions of Finland's international success on the PISA exams and the perceived quality of the current Finnish educational system in relation to past or other systems (e.g. Kansanen, 2012; Simola, 2015).

As a final note, the teacher educators in this study generally refrained from a critical problematization of English-language teacher education in Finland. Within their talk, politicization of the English language was not substantially related to the daily work of their professional practice. As such, critical consideration of the post-colonial and imperial legacy of English, tensions of domestic English-language education policy and its relation to globalization, were not represented thematically within the Finnish context. Given this absence, future studies which draw on critical theory, feminist theory, queer theory, postcolonial theory, or liberation theory may find an interesting context in Finnish education, considering that current discourse surrounding Finnish education internationally has focused on praising Finnish success. Indeed, most research on Finnish education internationally (the present study included) has avoided robust critical consideration of marginalization, exclusion and unequal power dynamics in the Finnish education system at all levels.

The data collected in Japan relied substantially on the talk of mid- and late career Japanese male tenure-track professors. Yet little has been written about the professional learning and agency of senior university professionals in Japan. Because university professors, particularly senior professors, occupy a unique position in the development of English language education, and also within the structural hierarchy of the Japanese educational system, more research about their professional learning, agency and role in the development of English language education in Japan is warranted. More broadly, the area of university English-language teachers' professional learning is a field open for studies on professional identity, gender, power dynamics, professional competence and expertise, lifelong learning, etc. Given the importance of the social hierarchy in professional learning suggested by the findings of this study, a more in-depth consideration of the professional learning of senior university staff in English education may give insight into the challenges and possibilities for the development of English-language education at the university level across Japan.

The present study was unable to give a robust account of the use of collective agency in the Japanese context. Further empirical study is therefore needed to understand the development and manifestation of relational and collective agency in the Japanese context, with consideration given to how public discussion and legitimization of knowledge are achieved within professional communities in Japan. Such research should look at distributed action and analyze situated, dynamic interactions and dialogue among work (Kumpulainen & Wray, 2003; Lipponen & Kumpulainen, 2011). Such research should include a deeper consideration of the purposes of professional agency and professional learning in Japan.

Distinctions between the use of public and private talk for professional learning in different cultural contexts warrants further consideration. In a related vein, considerations of the use of hierarchical relations to resource professional learning in various cultural contexts is also needed. I suggest that comparative studies of professional learning and agency be carried out in other geographic regions.

YHTEENVETO

Väitöskirjassa tutkitaan englannin kielen opettajakouluttajien ammatillista oppimista Suomessa (F-ELTE) ja Japanissa (J-ELTE). Väitöskirjassa keskitytään opettajankouluttajien ammatilliseen toimijuuteen kollegiaalisissa yhteisöissä. Väitöskirjan tarkoituksena on edistää tietämystä resursseista ja ammatillisen oppimisen esteistä tutkimalla, miten kieltenopettajien kouluttajat harjoittavat ammatillista toimijuutta työnsä kehittämisessä. Näin väitöskirjassa pyritään saamaan parempi käsitys siitä, miten ELTEt (English language teacher educators) kehittyvät ammattilaisiksi vastaamaan englannin kielen opettajankoulutuksen nykyisiin haasteisiin. Tutkimus perustuu kahdeksan englannin kielen opettajankouluttajan haastatteluun kahdessa yliopistossa Suomessa ja 16 englannin kielen opettajankouluttajan haastatteluun 11 yliopistossa Japanissa. Tiedot analysoitiin käyttäen temaattista analyysiä, joka kohdistui ammatillisen oppimisen, sen resurssien ja rajoitusten sekä ammatillisen toimijuuden harjoittamiseen työssä. Lisäksi tehtiin vertaileva temaattinen analyysi kahden kontekstin tulosten vertailemiseksi.

Väitöskirjassa on vertaileva lähestymistapa englannin kielen opettajankouluttajien ammatillisen oppimisen tutkimukseen sosiokulttuurisessa kontekstissa. Väitöskirjassa viitataan Welchin (2013) kehoitukseen keskittyä vertailevassa tutkimuksessa yksilöön sekä teoreettisesta että metodologisesta näkökulmasta. Ammatillinen oppiminen ymmärretään niin, että se käsittää sekä sisäisen mentaalisen että välitteisen sosiaalisen prosessin (Borko, 2004; Lave & Wenger, 1991). Ammatillisen oppimisen keskipisteessä on opettajien ammatillinen käytäntö työpaikalla. Ammatillista toimijuutta pidetään tarkoituksellisena, aktiivisena ja diskursiivisena prosessina, jossa yksilöt ja yhteisöt kehittävät työmenetelmiä tavalla, jota pidetään merkittävänä (Hökkä et al., 2017; Pappa et al., 2017). Ammatillinen toimijuus ymmärretään toiminnaksi, jossa ammattilaiset käyttävät vaikutusvaltaa, tekevät valintoja ja ottavat kantaa tavalla, joka vaikuttaa heidän työhönsä ja ammatilliseen identiteettiinsä (Eteläpelto et al., 2013; Hökkä et al., 2017). Tässä tutkimuksessa käytetty kollektiivisen toimijuuden käsite perustuu suurelta osin Banduran työhön (2001, 2002, 2006). Bandura (2002) kuvaa kollektiivista toimijuutta sellaiseksi, jossa ihmiset toimivat yhdessä tulevaisuuden muokkaamiseksi. Kun kollektiivisen toimijuuden käsitettä analysoidaan tässä tutkimuksessa, olen ottanut käyttöön Pelencin et al. (2015) tutkimuksen, joka osoittaa kollektiivisen toiminnan kehittämisprosessissa olevan ratkaisevia vaiheita, kuten julkinen vuoropuhelu, kohdentaminen ja yhteiset tavoitteet, jotka valitaan ja joihin pyritään yhteisillä toimilla.

Tämän tutkimuksen tulokset osoittavat, että välittömien ammattiyhteisöjen erityisiin mikropoliittisiin yhteyksiin vaikuttavat englannin kielen opettajankouluttajien tulkinnat ammatillisista oppimisesta ja toimijuudesta. Lisäksi, opettajankouluttajien keskusteluissa on samoja tunnistettavia temaattisia elementtejä eri instituutioissa, samassa kansallisessa kontekstissa. Tässä tutkimuksessa selvitetään erityisesti, missä määrin englannin kielen

opettajankouluttajat eri kansallisissa sosiokulttuurisissa yhteyksissä kuvaavat heidän ammatillista oppimistaan sosiaalseksi ja dialogiseksi. Ammatillisen oppimisen vaikutukset ymmärretään ensisijaisesti dialogisina ja sosiaalisina pyrkimyksinä tai yksilön omana prosessina.

Tärkein havainto suomalaisesta kontekstista on se, että ammatillisen oppimisen kuvataan sisältävän merkittäviä sosiaalisia ja dialogisia näkökohtia. Ammatillisen oppimisen sosiaaliset näkökohdat näkyivät suomalaisessa kontekstissa tärkeimmissä ammatillisen oppimisen muodoissa eli tutkimuksen ja identiteetin oppimisessa. Suomalaiset ELTEt painottivat kollegojensa asiantuntemusta ja pyrkivät oman ammatillisen osaamisensa vahvistamiseen ja lisäämiseen vuoropuhelussa kollegojen kanssa. Suomalaisessa kontekstissa yksilöllinen ja kollektiivinen ammatillinen toimijuus olivat merkittävä osa ELTE:n ammatillisen oppimisen välittämistä. Opettajankouluttajat pystyivät paitsi vaikuttamaan omaan työhönsä myös johtamaan ja osallistumaan muutoksiin, jotka liittyivät englannin kielen koulutuksen kehittämiseen useilla tasoilla.

Tärkeimmät havainnot Japanin kontekstista osoittavat, että ammatillista oppimista kuvataan ensisijaisesti yksilön pyrkimyksenä. J-ELTE otti henkilökohtaisen vastuun oman tutkimuksensa, opetuksensa ja ammatillisten velvoitteidensa onnistuneesta toteuttamisesta. Ammatillisen oppimisen autonomisuuden keskeisyys Japanin kontekstissa ilmeni ammatillisen oppimisen tärkeimmässä muodossa eli kriittisessä itsearvioinnissa. Lisäksi merkittävin ammatillisen oppimisen voimavara oli rahoitus, jota opettajankouluttajat voivat oman harkintansa mukaan myöntää. Japanilaiset ELTEt kuvasivat vuorovaikutusta välittömässä ammatillisessa vertaisyhteisössä monin tavoin ammatillisen oppimisen rajoittamiseksi. Tulokset osoittavat kuitenkin senkin, että opettajankouluttajat käyttivät erityisiä sosiaalisia suhteita ammatillisen oppimisen voimavarana, erityisesti niiden kanssa, jotka toimivat ylemmissä, alemmissa tai ulkoisissa tehtävissä ja joiden kanssa heillä oli oppilaitostason sidoksia. Opettajankouluttajien ammatillinen toimijuus yksilönä oli vahvin tutkimuksen ja opetuksen kehittämisessä, mutta kollektiivisen toimijuuden kehittäminen oli rajallista. Kollektiivista toimijuutta ilmeni, kun J-ELTEt olivat itse johtotehtävissä. Kollektiivisesta toimijuudesta puhuttaessa johtamisen merkitys liittyi hierarkkisiin ammatillisiin suhteisiin työpaikalla, mikä oli voimavara ammatilliselle oppimiselle.

Vertailevan analyysin havainnot osoittavat eron käsityksissä julkisen vuoropuhelun roolista ammatillisessa oppimisessa. Suomalaisen kontekstin havainnot osoittavat avoimen julkisen dialogin olevan merkittävää ammatillisessa oppimisessa, kun taas japanilaisen kontekstin havainnot osoittavat julkisen monologin ja yksityisen dialogin olevan tärkeämpää englannin kielen opettajankouluttajien ammatillisen oppimisen kuvauksissa. Se, että Japanin kontekstista puuttuvat avoimet julkiset kollegojen väliset keskustelut tutkimus- ja opetustoiminnan kehittämisestä, perustuu jännitteisiin, jotka liittyvät kollegiaaliseen asiantuntemukseen, kasvojen menettämiseen, kilpailuun ja konfliktien välttämiseen. Parempi ymmärrys julkisen

vuoropuhelun roolista ehkä selittää, millaisia jo hyvin tiedossa olevia vaikeuksia englannin kielen opettajakouluttajilla on kommunikoivan kielenopetuksen käytännön toteuttamisessa Japanissa. Tutkimustulosten vertailu paljasti myös eroja ELTEjen käsityksissä kollegoista mahdollisina ammatillisen oppimisen resursseina ja siitä, miten käsitys vaikuttaa yksilön ja kollektiivisen toimijuuden käyttöönottoon. Tutkimuksen tulokset auttavat ymmärtämään, että käsitykset oppimisesta ja sosiaalisen vuorovaikutuksen dynamiikasta vaikuttavat tapoihin, joilla opettajankouluttajat tulkitsevat ammatillista oppimista ja toimijuutta työssään kahdessa erilaisessa sosiokulttuurisessa ympäristössä.

Lopuksi vertailevassa analyysissä kartoitetaan temaattiset erot, joissa kontekstin havainnot ilmenevät. Löydetyt neljä temaattista eroa saattavat viitata eroihin englannin kielen opettajankouluttajien välillä olevissa ontologisissa tai diskursiivisissa käytännöissä suomalaisissa ja japanilaisissa konteksteissa. Kolme ensimmäistä suomalaisen kontekstin temaattista piirrettä olivat seuraavat: 1) oppiminen on neuvottelua muutoksista itsessä ja yhteiskunnassa (muutos); 2) toimijuus on merkityksellisintä, kun merkittävät muutokset ovat pysyviä ympäristössä tai käytännössä (pysyvyys); 3) oppiminen ja opettaminen liittyvät yhteiskunnan tulevaisuuteen ja ennakoivat mielekkäitä vastauksia tulevaisuuden epävarmuuteen sekä pedagogiassa että tutkimuksessa (suuntaus tulevaisuuteen). Näitä voidaan pitää tavanomaisena diskurssina länsimaisessa ajattelussa. Japanilaisen kontekstin ensimmäiset kolme alateemaa olivat seuraavat: 1) oppiminen on tehtävä, joka kypsytää, hallitsee ja täydentää itseä (transsendenssi); 2) yksilön erillinen toiminta muiden ja maailman välillä on rajoitettu ajallisesti ja kehollisesti (väliaikaisuus); 3) nykyiset opetusolosuhteet ovat sidoksissa kaikkialla olevan menneisyyden syvälliseen arvostukseen eivätkä ole ymmärrettävissä ilman sitä) (historiallinen suuntaus). Nämä teemat ovat tunnistettavissa Itä-Aasian filosofian perinteisissä linjoissa. (Ichijo & Nonaka, 2007; Li, 2016b; Nakamura, 1991; Nonaka & Toyama, 2003; Nonaka et al., 2000). Lisäksi suomalaisen kontekstin neljäs osa-alue, sattumanvaraisuus, ja japanilaisen kontekstin neljäs osa-alue, kiitollisuus, voivat edustaa erottamiskykyisiä tapoja sijoittaa itsensä suhteessa institutionaalisiin konteksteihin, mikä luo rauhanomaisen ratkaisun työpaikan sisäisiin valtakonflikteihin. Koska institutionaalinen vallan dynamiikka on monimutkainen, yksilön voi olla vaikeaa tai ehkä mahdotonta jäsentää tarkasti sisäistä politiikkaa, joka vaikuttaa ammatilliseen tilanteeseen. Sattumanvaraisuus ja kiitollisuus edustavat siten ammatillisen oppimisen tilanteiden tulkintoja suhteessa työpaikan rakenteelliseen vallan dynamiikkaan. Tällaisia tulkintoja voidaan pitää diskursiivisina strategioina, jotka tarjoavat mahdollisuuden ammatilliseen hyvinvointiin. Nämä aihekohtaiset erot eivät viittaa radikaaleihin eroihin opettajankouluttajien ammatillisen oppimisen välillä Suomessa ja Japanissa, vaan pikemminkin tarkentavat vivahteita tiettyjen diskurssien suuntaan englannin kielen oppimisen kehittämisessä ja opettajankoulutuksessa. Nämä erot heijastavat jossain määrin käytännön asioita, esimerkiksi tulkintoja julkisen vuoropuhelun roolista ammatillisessa oppimisessa. Vielä enemmän ne edustavat hienovaraisia käännteitä ELTEjen

tulkinnoissa toimijuudessa, ajallisuudesta ja rakenteesta. Nämä erot antavat jonkin verran viitteitä siitä, mitä kielen tai diskurssien erityisiä näkökohtia ELTEt käyttävät työkaluina erilaisten maailmojen rakentamisessa.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Invitation to participate in the study

Dear Teacher Educator,

My name is Crystal Green and I am a doctoral student in the Department of Education at the University of Jyvaskyla. I would like to invite you to participate in my dissertation research as an interviewee. My dissertation topic is Collaborative and Academic Discourses in Teacher Education: a comparative study of Finland and Japan. My research is a qualitative case study of English language teacher educators in Finland and Japan.

If you can participate, you and I would meet for one to two hours at a mutually agreed upon time and place for an open discussion. The interview would be conducted in English and voice recorded for later transcription and analysis. Our discussion would touch on the following topics: your work and teaching, collaboration with colleagues, workplace, etc.

Your participation is voluntary and confidential. Data gathered in the interviews will be analyzed and reported in such a way as to guarantee your anonymity.

I would be very grateful if you would be able to participate in this study. It would be my pleasure to discuss your work. It is my hope that this discussion would assist you as well in your professional development. If you have any questions please feel free to contact me. If you are interested in participating, please reply to this email and I will be in touch with you with further information.

Thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,

Crystal Green

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Appendix 2: Informed consent form



Information Sheet for Interviewee

Aim of Study

This study will be conducted as a part of a doctoral dissertation at the University of Jyväskylä. You were invited to participate in an interview that aims to explore your collaboration with colleagues your identity as an academic. You were selected for this study because you have experience as an English language teacher educator.

Participation to Study

If you agree to participate in this study, you will be interviewed with questions based on aims of this study. Up to two 1-2 hour open-ended, face-to face interviews will be conducted. Your answers will be voice recorded and the written form of the interview will be sent to you to prevent misunderstanding. You may also provide supplementary written or other documentation to the researcher at your discretion. All information obtained during the interview process will be kept confidential. You are free to withdraw from the interview at any time. Participation in the interview is voluntary and you are free not to answer any question if you do not feel comfortable. Papers resulting from your interview will be available to you before publication for review.

If you would like to have any more information concerning this study, please do not hesitate to contact me. Thank you.

This letter is yours to keep



JYVÄSKYLÄN YLIOPISTO

Consent Form

Collaborative and Academic Discourses in Teacher Education: a comparative study of Finland and Japan

I, _____, have read and understood the accompanying information sheet and discussed the investigation with the interviewer. I agree to take part in the study with the knowledge that I can withdraw at any time without giving reason.

Signature Date

Place

Appendix 3: Semi-structured interview guide

Interview Questions Guide
Data Collection
Crystal Green

I) General Information

Tell me about yourself, where you are from, where you studied and how long you have been working here.

II) Academic Work

1. Tell me about the (academic) responsibilities that are integral to your work.
2. Please describe your role as a teacher educator within the teacher education department.
3. What do you see is the role of your research in your work?
4. What do you think is your role as an English language expert within the teacher education department?
5. Do you feel that you are more strongly an educator, an expert or a researcher?
6. How have you seen your roles change since coming to this university, with respect to teaching and/or research?
7. What is your position in the faculty?
8. If you were to give yourself an unofficial title that really captures the essence of what it is you actually do on a day-to-day basis, what would it be?
9. What are some of the obstacles you face in developing your research?
10. What are some of the supports you have in developing your research?
11. What are some of the obstacles you face in developing your teaching?
12. What are some of the supports you have in developing your teaching?

III) Collaboration

1. Draw the communities of which you are a part. Who are your most important collaborators?
2. What sorts of things did you work on together? For how long?
3. What are some of the successes you've had in your collaboration? Are you continuing that collaboration?
4. Can you tell about a time when you had a lot of support in your collaboration?
5. Can you tell about some of the obstacles you have faced in your collaboration?
6. Are you satisfied with your collaboration?
7. Who are some of your collaborators outside of the department?
8. Have you seen an evolution in your collaboration?
9. How do hope your work will develop in the future?
10. What would be your dream role in your dream job?

Additional Questions

1. Please describe the impact of the Juliet program within the university?
2. Tell me about a time when you were really happy with the collaborative process.
3. Tell me about a time when you were really happy with the outcome of your collaboration?
4. What do you see as avenues for development of English language teacher education?
5. How have your role or your responsibilities changed since coming to this university, with respect to collaboration with your colleagues?
6. How would you describe the evolution of the program in terms of collaboration?
7. Have you been involved in any international collaboration?
8. What does it mean to you in your collaboration that your colleagues in the department are all women?
9. Can you specify what are the most important elements of your background that impact your collaboration?
10. What does it mean to you in your collaboration that your colleagues are of different ages?
11. How free are you to initiate new ideas in the department?
12. How do you feel about your international experiences with respect to your role as a foreign language teacher educator?
13. What are some of the challenges that you are trying to prepare your students for when they enter the classroom as English teachers?
14. What are some of the supports that are given to you as you prepare your students to face these obstacles?
15. What do you see as the source of your expertise?
16. Do you think collaboration is important or necessary?
17. What does it mean to you when you have the opportunity to collaborate?
18. What does it mean to you when you have the obligation to collaborate?
19. What do you think is the meaning of collaboration?

Appendix 4: Detailed interview guide

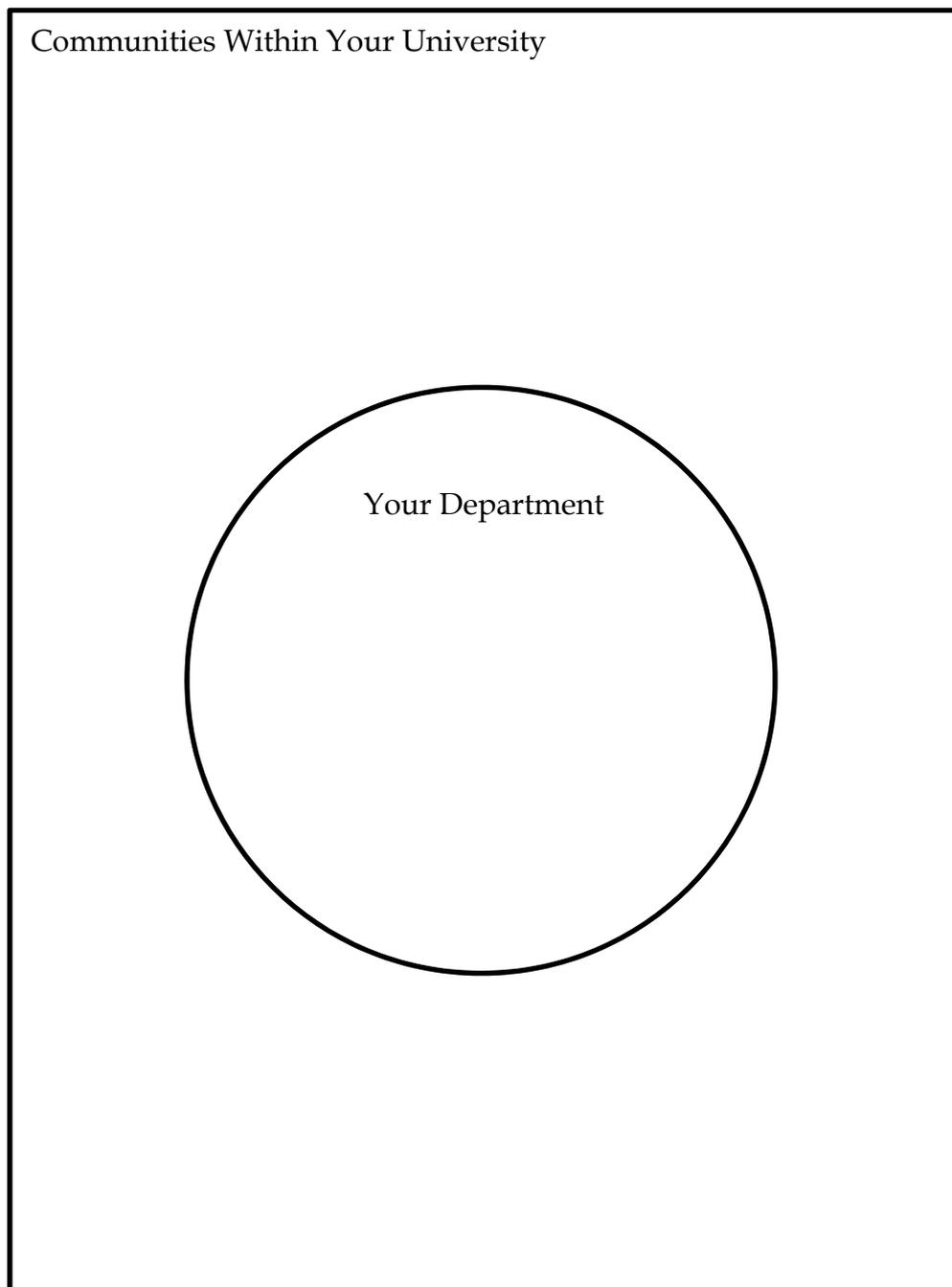
Academic Discourse (Identity)		Collaborative Discourse	
Tell me about yourself, where you are from, where you studied and how long you have been working here.		Draw the communities you are a part of. Who are your most important collaborators?	
	- self-perception as a professional, perception of important background factors and preparation for being a teacher educator		- Mapping relationships between groups, sense of importance or closeness in working groups
Tell me about your (academic) responsibilities that are integral to your work.		What sorts of things did you work on together? For how long?	
	- academic identity as prioritization of certain tasks over others, the key role as an academic		- nature of collaboration, length of collaboration
What do you think is your role as a teacher educator within the teacher education department?		What are some of the successes you've had in your collaboration? Are you continuing that collaboration?	
	academic identity as an educator.		positive experiences, supports for collaboration -sustained collaboration
What do you see is the role of your research in your work?		What are some of the successes you have had in your collaboration?	
	identity as a researcher		positive experiences with collaboration
What do you think is your role as an English language expert within the teacher education department?		Can you tell about a time when you had a lot of support in your collaboration?	
	identity as a content expert		emotional or structural supports for collaboration
What do you see as the source of your expertise?		Can you tell about some of the obstacles you have faced in your collaboration?	
	reinforcements for the academic identity from past experience		emotional or structural barriers to collaboration

Do you feel that you are more strongly an educator, an expert or a researcher?		Are you satisfied with your collaboration?	
	academic orientation		feelings about collaboration,
How do you feel about your international experiences with respect to your role as a Foreign language teacher educator?		When you were really satisfied with the process of the collaboration?	
	identity as it relates to teacher education in a global world		collaboration as a process
		When was a time that you were really satisfied with the outcome of collaboration?	
			the result of collaboration
What are some of the challenges that you are trying to prepare you students for when they enter the classroom as English teachers?		Who are some of your collaborators outside of the department?	
	identity as a teacher educator, emphasis on pedagogy and/or content		
→		What are some of the supports that are given to you as you prepare you students to face these obstacles?	
			collaboration to assist students in preparation
How do hope your work will develop in the future?			
	future development		
Additional Questions, Time Permitting			
How has your role changed since coming to this university, with respect to teaching and/or research?		How have your role or your responsibilities changed since coming to this university, with respect to collaboration with your colleagues?	
	development of academic identity over time		development of collaboration over time
What is your position in the faculty?		Have you seen an evolution in your collaboration with colleagues?	
	formal roles		development of collaboration over time

From your experience, what is the main impact of the Juliet program within the university?		How would you describe the evolution of the program in terms of collaboration?	
	academic identity in context of program within the wider university system		collaboration in context over time
What are some of the obstacles you face in developing your research?		Have you been involved in any international collaboration?	
	limitations of research identity		nature of collaboration
What are some of the obstacles you face in developing your teaching?		What does it mean to you in your collaboration that your colleagues in the department are all women?	
	limitations in teaching identity		gender and collaboration
What do you see as avenues for development of English language teacher education?		Can you specify what are the most important elements of your background that impact your collaboration?	
	future development from their academic perspective		impact of background on collaboration
		What does it mean to you in your collaboration that your colleagues are of different ages?	
			age and collaboration
		How free are you to initiate new ideas in the department?	
			power in collaboration

Appendix 5: Sample of drawing activity

Communities Outside your University



Appendix 6: Sample of denaturalization of Finnish transcripts

Original Transcription	Denaturalized Text
<p>R04: Well, well, um actually the number of hours allocated for that is very small. So, so - in fact I would sort of prefer having a bit more time with the students who are doing the teaching practice, but money's a concern, so, so... That's - the number of hours allocated tends to be very small. and of course they have teachers who supervise their practice, um, over at the school, those - the teachers who teach there.</p>	<p>R04: Well, actually the number of hours allocated for that is very small. So, in fact I would sort of prefer having a bit more time with the students who are doing the teaching practice, but money's a concern, so the number of hours allocated tends to be very small. and of course they have teachers who supervise their practice over at the school, those - the teachers who teach there.</p>
<p>I: and are you working with those teachers?</p>	<p>I: and are you working with those teachers?</p>
<p>[timestamp 4:32]</p>	<p>[timestamp 4:32]</p>
<p>R04: Yes, w-we, we work together, yeah. So, so, um, with an, an individual student, or with a student group, um, who are doing the um teaching practice, I usually meet them with- uh, well I usually meet with them as a group, um, a couple of times - and then, individually about twice during the practice-</p>	<p>R04: Yes, we work together, yeah. So, with an individual student, or with a student group who are doing the teaching practice, I usually meet them with- well I usually meet with them as a group a couple of times - and then individually about twice during the practice-</p>
<p>I: With the students?</p>	<p>I: With the students?</p>
<p>R04: With the students. and usually there, um, the teacher, the school teacher, will, will join the meetings - the individual meetings. 'cuz they're usually- what happens is that the - I will go and observe a class that a trainee is giving and, and then, then sort of have a session, a feedback session, afterwards. and the, uh, the teacher will join, join in those sessions as well.</p>	<p>R04: With the students. and usually the school teacher will join the meetings - the individual meetings. Because usually what happens is that I will go and observe a class that a trainee is giving and then sort of have a session, a feedback session, afterwards. and the teacher will join in those sessions as well.</p>
<p>I: So how would you describe your work with the other teacher?</p>	<p>I: So how would you describe your work with the other teacher?</p>
<p>R04: Very smooth. And, and I - yeah, it's... I think we sort of nicely complement each other. Her work is, you know, very- very practical and she's been there in that position for a number of years. Um, so she knows the practical side really.... thoroughly. And what I try to do - I sort of try to you know bring some theory into the discussion as well.</p>	<p>R04: Very smooth. And I - yeah, it's... I think we sort of nicely complement each other. Her work is, you know, very- very practical and she's been there in that position for a number of years. So she knows the practical side really.... thoroughly. And what I try to do - I sort of try to you know bring some theory into the discussion as well.</p>