

**A GROUNDED THEORY OF PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY DEVELOPMENT:
EXPERIENCES OF UNIVERSITY FACULTY MEMBERS IN VIETNAM**

A Dissertation

by

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ABSTRACT

Vietnamese faculty members teaching in public higher education institutions in Vietnam were the target of this dissertation study. The purpose was to explore their professional development experiences, focusing on their perceived professional development, their participation in various professional activities, factors influencing their experiences in this area, and outcomes of their professional development involvement. Despite the significant contribution of faculty members to the quality of education system and to the qualified national human resources in Vietnam, there is limited knowledge about their professional development experiences. To better support faculty members in improving their professional competency and performance, it is important to understand how they experience their professional development.

I conducted a qualitative research study, guided by a grounded theory methodology. I interviewed 14 Vietnamese faculty members who had at least nine years of work experience as faculty members in public universities in Vietnam. To ensure the credibility of the study, I followed the five-phase process of data collection and analysis process in the grounded theory method adapted from Corbin and Strauss (2014) and Pryor (2009).

As the result of constant comparing and contrasting of the professional development experiences of the participating Vietnamese faculty members, this study highlighted the significant professional development activities, including overseas Ph.D. programs, workplace learning, and disorienting dilemmas. The study also points out the

critical role of personal factors in shaping faculty's perceptions toward enablers and challenges that guided their professional development strategies. In this regard, taking ownership of professional development, together with balancing roles and learning, were the most important professional development strategies that this faculty used to react and interact with a limited supportive higher education system in Vietnam. Furthermore, the study findings provide evidence for the significant impact of overseas doctoral education experience on the participants' career development. Overseas doctoral holders tended to be more active and productive in the international professional community, thanks to their better mastery of professional competencies and self-efficacy. Given the context of barriers outweighing support, my findings showed that the competency and self-efficacy improvement and professional self-concept changes were the common outcomes of all participants' professional development.

Another significant contribution of this study is the newly developed conceptual framework of professional identity development for Vietnamese faculty members. The framework conceptualizes the development of professional identity as a process and outcomes. Based on these major findings and the conceptual framework, this study also has broad implications for practice, research, and theory.

DEDICATION

To Vietnamese faculty members

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Part of the review in Chapter II and Recommendation in Chapter V were conducted in part of Margaret Foster of the Texas A & M University Libraries. Part of the Chapter II incorporated the findings from the publication: Phuong, T. T., Duong, H. B., & McLean, G. N. (2015). Faculty development in Southeast Asian higher education: a review of literature. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 16(1), 107-117.

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NOMENCLATURE

ADB	Asian Development Bank
FD	Faculty Development
HEI	Higher Education Institution
HRD	Human Resource Development
MOET	Ministry of Education and Training
PD	Professional Development

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT	ii
DEDICATION	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
CONTRIBUTORS AND FUNDING SOURCES	vi
NOMENCLATURE.....	vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	viii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xii
LIST OF TABLES	xiii
CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION	1
Background of the Study.....	1
Research Context of Vietnamese Higher Education	4
Statement of the Problem	6
Purpose and Research Questions.....	8
Methodology and Methods.....	9
Significance of the Study	11
Theoretical Significance.....	11
Research Significance	12
Practical Significance	12
Boundary of the Study.....	13
Summary	14
CHAPTER II LITERATURE REVIEW.....	15
Research Context of Vietnam	16
National Context	16
Context of Higher Education System.....	18

	Page
A Brief History of International FD	26
Definition of Faculty Development.....	28
General Definitions of FD.....	28
Scope of FD.....	30
The Context of FD.....	30
Levels of FD.....	31
Faculty Roles and Responsibilities	32
Focus of FD.....	36
Classification of FD Activities	38
Approaches to FD Classification.....	38
FD Activities in Southeast Asian and Vietnamese Higher Education	42
Outcomes of Faculty Development.....	44
Evaluation Methods.....	44
Faculty Development Outcomes	47
Faculty Development Outcomes in Vietnam	50
Factors Affecting FD Activities	51
Factors Affecting FD Activities in General	51
Factors Affecting FD Activities in Vietnam	53
Summary and Gaps in the Literature.....	59
CHAPTER III METHODOLOGY	62
Constructivist Paradigm	62
Methodology: Grounded Theory.....	63
Methods.....	65
Population and Sampling	65
Recruitment Process	66
Data Analysis	76
Ensuring Quality	83
Positionality.....	85
Summary	87
CHAPTER IV FINDINGS.....	88
Overview	88
Methodology Summary.....	88
Study Participants.....	89
Educational Background	92
Work Experience.....	92
Findings.....	93

	Page
Overview of Concepts and Super Codes	94
Concept 1: Initial Self-Concept.....	95
Concept 2: Professional Development Participation.....	101
Concept 3: Influential Factors Affecting Faculty Development Experiences.....	120
Concept 4: Professional Development Strategies	149
Concept 5: Professional Development Outcomes	172
Summary	204
 CHAPTER V DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND CONCLUSION	 206
Summary of Findings	206
Discussion	209
Critical Role of Ph.D. Education in Professional Identity Development.....	209
Factors Influencing Professional Development	212
Professional Development Strategies.....	214
Integration of the Grounded Theory Model with Existing Literature.....	217
Recommendations for Practice.....	226
For Faculty Members	231
Theoretical Implications.....	232
Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research	234
Conclusion.....	236
 REFERENCES.....	 238
 APPENDIX A	 256
 APPENDIX B	 259
 APPENDIX C	 260
 APPENDIX D	 261
 APPENDIX E.....	 263
 APPENDIX F.....	 264

	Page
APPENDIX G	268
APPENDIX H	271
APPENDIX I	272
APPENDIX J	273
APPENDIX K	276
APPENDIX L	277
APPENDIX M	278

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1. The Context of Faculty Development in Vietnam	3
Figure 2. Data Collection and Data Analysis Process in the Grounded Theory Method.....	82
Figure 3. Summary of Findings	207
Figure 4. Conceptual Framework of Professional Identity Development for Vietnamese Faculty	218

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1. Time Averages According to Faculty Rank	35
Table 2. Outcomes Levels	46
Table 3. FD Outcomes using Kirkpatrick's Evaluation Framework	47
Table 4. Factors Affecting FD Activity Effectiveness	52
Table 5. Recruitment Process	67
Table 6. Participants' Profiles	90
Table 7. Categories and Properties.....	94
Table 8. Category 1: Initial Self-Perception	96
Table 9. Category 2: Professional Development Participation	102
Table 10. Professional Development Participation Relating to Professional Roles	103
Table 11. Category 3: Influential Factors	121
Table 12. Category 4: Professional Development Strategies	150
Table 13. Category 5: Professional Development Outcomes	173
Table 14. Relationship between the Sources and Evidence of Self-efficacy in Teaching	182
Table 15. Three Groups of Faculty Basing on Research Outcomes	191
Table 16. Stages of Professional Identity Development	222
Table 17. Professional Identity Patterns	224

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the background of the study, research context, and statement of the problem. The purpose and research questions, a brief overview of the methodology, and the methods that guide the study are also discussed. Finally, the significance and boundary of the study are addressed.

Background of the Study

Faculty members play a critical role in the development of any university, serving as “teachers and educators, leaders and managers, and researchers and scholars” (Steinert, 2014, p. 4). Faculty development (FD) or professional development (PD) for faculty initiatives is implemented to improve the quality of faculty’s performance in their multiple roles and prepare them for future responsibilities (Camblin & Steger, 2000; Millis, 2011; Steinert, 2000). FD can also be considered an organizational development strategy designed to ensure quality, create a supportive academic culture, and facilitate change at the organizational level (Caffarella & Zinn, 1999; Camblin & Steger, 2000; Jolly, 2014; Steinert, 2000; Wilkerson & Irby, 1998). Taking together, FD is commonly understood as a joint effort between individual faculty members and the HEIs, aiming to enhance faculty’s professional performance and develop the institutions (Phuong & McLean, 2016). Given its critical role in the past few decades, it is predicted that FD would evolve as a discipline with a growing body of successful practices, extensive research, and qualified professionals (Austin & Sorcinelli, 2013).

Faculty development is closely related to several bodies of knowledge. As faculty members are the most significant human resources in universities, FD can be viewed from the perspective of Human Resource Development (HRD) within the context of higher education. In addition, faculty can be seen as lifelong adult learners in their professional development, and educators of adults (King & Lawler, 2003). Viewing FD from the HRD and adult learning perspectives allows researchers and practitioners to apply key theories and practices of these two disciplines to their exploration of FD issues. Specifically, knowledge about learning and performance – the overlapping core values of these disciplines (Gaff & Simpson, 1994; Reio & Wiswell, 2000; Steinert, 2000) sheds light on FD experience of Vietnamese faculty, as well as the impact of FD experiences on faculty performance, student learning, and organizational development.

This study aims to understanding FD of Vietnamese faculty in the context of higher education in Vietnam that has undergone several significant reforms in recent history, and the system, as it is today, has been heavily influenced by foreign educational philosophies and models from China, France, Japan, Former Soviet Union, and the U.S (McCornac, 2008). Since 1986, Vietnamese higher education has been in transitional from the formal Soviet system to the Western system. However, the higher education system in Vietnam is among a few in the world that are highly centralized and controlled of the national government (Do & Ho, 2013). The characteristics of this unique context are likely to shape the FD experience of Vietnamese faculty differently, compared to faculty in other parts of the world.

The question of how Vietnamese faculty members experienced their FD - the focus of this study - was explored by drawing from international FD and Vietnamese higher education. While knowledge of the first body of literature has been derived primarily from advanced higher education systems, such as North America (Austin & Sorcinelli, 2013; Merriam, Caffarella & Baumgartner, 2012), the second shed light on some unique characteristics of higher education system and FD in Vietnam. The integration of knowledge from these different perspectives would inform Vietnamese educational leaders, faculty developers, researchers, and faculty members of new ideas and approaches developed abroad. At the same time, it would facilitate faculty's adaptation to the local conditions, traditional values, and national educational development strategy (Marginson & Tran, 2014). Figure 1 illustrates the integrative context within which Vietnamese faculty experience their professional development.



Figure 1. The Faculty Development in Vietnam

Research Context of Vietnamese Higher Education

In 1986, Vietnam began implementing an open-door policy – a major national reform – in order to overcome an economic crisis and catch up with the economic boom occurring in the rest of Southeast Asia (Do & Ho, 2013). Since then, Vietnam has made higher education development a top national priority and the foundation of future development of the country (Law on Higher Education, 2012). As a result, in the last 30 years Vietnam has enjoyed many significant educational achievements at the tertiary education level. Examples include a high level of enrollment and diversity of university types, more autonomy for the higher education institutions (HEIs), the establishment of national quality assurance system, and improvement of faculty qualifications (World Bank & Ministry of Planning and Investment [WB & MPI], 2016). Despite these impressive accomplishments in terms of the quality, higher education in Vietnam still suffers from the quality standpoint (WB & MPI, 2016). The most prominent evidence is that the educational system continues to fail to provide human resources to meet the needs of the country’s socio-economic development and improve the overall competitiveness of Vietnam, both regionally and globally (WB & MPI, 2016; Wright, 2013).

After 30 years of innovation, Vietnamese higher education is still in a “trial phase” undergoing many unexpected changes; moreover, it is experiencing a crisis of quality (Vallely & Wilkinson, 2008). Compared to other educational systems in the world, Vietnamese higher education lags far behind in quality; it was about two or even three decades behind as Overland noted back in 2006 (Overland, 2006). After over 10

years, the situation has not improved when recently in 2018; none of the Vietnamese universities are in the regional leading university list (Times Higher Education (THE) ranking). The goal of having a university in the top 200 in the world by 2020 seems unattainable for Vietnam given its current conditions (Do, 2014; Tierney, 2015).

The quality of Vietnamese faculty is also considered to be one of the key limitations of higher education in Vietnam (Tran, 2014; World Bank, 2008). According to Tran and Marginson (2014), Vietnamese higher education faces a critical shortage of qualified faculty who have (a) experience in high-quality doctoral training and professional development programs, (b) work experience outside of academia, and (c) competencies needed to engage in projects involving international collaboration. The quality of Vietnamese faculty was an unresolved issue when Nguyen (n.d.) noted that there was “a significant shortage in faculty training and development in Vietnam; [there was] neither a standardized system nor specific criteria used to evaluate Vietnamese faculty performance and development” (p. 1).

In Vietnam’s highly centralized higher education system, the government, specifically the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET), leads the effort to improve the quality of faculty. To address the shortage of high-quality faculty, MOET has sponsored a number of faculty members to participate in overseas graduate and professional development programs. However, it is not clear whether MOET’s efforts to enhance both the quality and quantity of FD programs in Vietnam have benefited the majority of faculty. Furthermore, the World Bank (2008) highlighted the lack of engagement of Vietnamese universities in FD. With limited external resources, self-

directed learning has become the dominant FD approach among Vietnamese faculty (Phuong & McLean, 2016). Faculty members' self-directed learning can be largely ineffective if they cannot access a variety of updated FD resources in English; such conditions prevent them from pursuing continuous FD activities at a higher level.

In short, the Vietnamese government has implemented a national FD strategy that focuses heavily on improving the quality of a small number of faculty, but the same has not been the case for the majority of Vietnamese faculty; this approach has proven to be of limited effectiveness. In addition, the lack of a collaborative and coherent approach to implementation by both the government and universities, led to little change in the quality of Vietnamese faculty (World Bank, 2008). Individual faculty members struggle with their own FD due to a lack of high-quality doctoral training and lack of adequate competencies in areas such as learning-to-learn, the English language, and internet usage in the larger context of significant shortages in training and development (Tran & Marginson, 2014).

Statement of the Problem

Over the last 50 years, FD has evolved into an emerging discipline with extensive research and strong practice (Steinert, 2014). However, there remain several gaps. First, there lacks deep understanding of the impacts of comprehensive FD activities have on faculty members' multiple role-based performances. Although formal professional development programs have proven to be widely effective in changing adverse faculty behaviors (Steinert, 2006), there is limited knowledge about the impacts of other types of FD, such as self-directed and organization-based learning. Self-directed

learning, for instance, has been highlighted as an effective means to faculty members' professional development (Steinert & Mann, 2006), but little research attention has been given to examine this relationship. Furthermore, few studies have been devoted to understanding how to meet faculty members' needs during the later stages of their careers (Sorcinelli et al., 2006). Thus, there remains a need for a holistic understanding of the impacts of different types of FD on faculty members' multiple-role performances across different career stages.

Second, a large number of studies have investigated the effectiveness of formal training programs from an "outcomes" perspective, with few efforts made to understand FD as a process based on faculty members' learning experiences (Webster-Wright, 2009). As Webster-Wright (2009) pointed out, without true learning experiences, few FD activities and programs resulted in the desired outcomes. Although there is a growing interest in viewing FD from the adult learning lens, the number of studies is still limited (King & Lawler, 2003) because faculty hardly view themselves as educators of adults (Cranton, 1996).

Furthermore, despite the years of development in FD research and practice, most FD interventions have not been well grounded in FD related theories and evidence (Leslie et al., 2013) related to adult learning, teaching and learning, and human resource development. Findings from such studies would inform evidence- and theory-based interventions, as well as future research.

Finally, faculty development plays a critical role in individual faculty's competency building and behaviors improvement (Steinert, 2014), contributing to

university change (Jolly, 2014), and student success (Gaff & Simpson, 1994). The FD role is even more important in the context of Vietnam where faculty quality directly impacts the national human resource competitiveness and socio-economic development. Nevertheless, faculty members in Vietnam continue to struggle to improve their performance and, in many cases, even under limited supportive and favorably academic environment (Do & Do 2014). There remains a limited understanding about faculty development experiences in the context of higher education in Vietnam due to the under-investigation and a low number of studies in this context.

Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to explore the perceptions and experiences of Vietnamese Senior faculty members regarding their professional development activities in which they have participated. To accomplish this goal, this study was guided by three research questions.

1. How do Vietnamese faculty members perceive their professional development in which they have participated?
2. How do Vietnamese faculty members experience with their professional development?
3. What influences Vietnamese faculty members' perceptions and experiences with professional development?
4. What are the outcomes of their professional development participation?

Methodology and Methods

I used the grounded theory methodology, a qualitative research approach to explore professional development experiences of Vietnamese faculty members. Qualitative research approaches allow me to explore multiple realities constructed through individual experiences, which happen in a specific context and unique to each person (Charmaz, 2006; Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Lincoln, Lynham & Guba, 2011). Grounded theory is a qualitative research methodology aiming to construct theory from a systematic data collection and analysis process (Corbin & Strauss, 2014). In this study, I used the grounded theory approach proposed by Corbin and Strauss (2014), which provides a tool to conceptualize the professional development process together in consideration of contextual complexity of the specific setting. In addition, the grounded theory approach contributes most when the phenomenon in a certain context has been under-investigated (Lawrence & Tar, 2013) and FD in Vietnam is such a phenomenon. Finally, grounded theory provides “explicit guidelines” (Charmaz, 2006, p. 3) that have been recommended for novice qualitative researchers (Charmaz, 2006; Hughes & Howcroft, 2000; Hussein, Hirst, Salyers & Qsuji, 2014).

The sample of this study consists of 14 Vietnamese senior faculty members who met the predetermined criteria in three key areas: responsibilities, education and training, and professional competencies under the Circulation No. 36/2014/ TTLT-BGDĐT-BNV (MOET, 2014b) issued by MOET. I used both criteria-based sampling and theoretical sampling to recruit participants for this study (Corbin & Strauss, 2014).

I conducted data analysis simultaneously with data collection. This can be described as an interactive cycle in which further data collection and analysis are derived from the previous data collection and comparison between results and new findings (Strauss & Corbin, 1990; Miles & Huberman, 1994). The process continued until data reaches the point of saturation or until no new or relevant data emerges (Corbin & Strauss, 2014).

I used semi-structured interviews to develop a theory grounded in participants' perspectives. To facilitate interview data collection, I developed three interview-related documents in English: Interview Protocol, Interview Probes, and Participant's Information Sheet. These documents were translated from English to Vietnamese by professional interpreters, using the interview protocol translation method proposed by Lee, Li, Arai, and Puntillo (2009).

The interview process consisted of three components: (a) pilot interview with two participants selected through criteria-based sampling, (b) interviews with three participants selected from criteria-based sampling, (c) interviews with participants from theoretical sampling. All interviews were conducted via SKYPE in Vietnamese, audio recorded, and lasted between 60 and 90 minutes. Then, I conducted member check interviews with six participants about tentative themes developed from each transcript, lasting between 10 and 30 minutes.

For data analysis, I followed five stages outlined by Corbin and Strauss, (2014). They are (1) open coding - identifying concepts; (2) developing concepts in terms of their properties and dimensions; (3) analyzing data for context; (4) bringing process into

the analysis; and (5) integrating categories. To assist data analysis, I constantly used five techniques: peer debriefing, diagraming, memoing, theoretical sensitivity, and reflective self-awareness, which I was discussed in detail in Chapter III.

Qualitative researchers adopted a variety of strategies to enhance trustworthiness of their studies, which are different from those for quantitative study (Lincoln & Guba, 1995; Shenton, 2004). The trustworthiness criteria involve addressing credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability (Lincoln & Guba 1985; Shenton, 2014), which I explained in depth in Chapter III.

Significance of the Study

Faculty members represent the most significant human resource in universities. In this study, professional development was elevated to a higher level of importance - to the national and international levels, which is informed by the national HRD approach that extends the individual and organizational levels of existing professional development research and practices. Furthermore, this attempted to understand faculty members, faculty developers, and educational leaders from the adult learning perspective with the belief that faculty are drawing from adult learners and educators of adults (Cranton, 1996; King & Lawler, 2003). Thus, rich resources from HRD and adult education, this study expanded our knowledge about professional development in terms of theory, research, and practice.

Theoretical Significance

Using the grounded theory approach, this study us an effort toward professional development theory-building for higher education in developing countries. Given that

the theoretical foundation of FD has been built primarily for higher education in developed countries, this study added fresh and additional insights to the existing professional development theories. In addition, this study integrated theories from multiple disciplines (higher education, HRD and adult education) from the lens of organizational, career, and leadership development. Also, the grounded theoretical approach allowed for research findings that would advance HRD and professional development larger theory-building agenda (Egan, 2002). Finally, this study contributed to the current literature on cross-cultural and cross-disciplinary development.

Research Significance

Providing that most of the current conceptual and empirical research on professional development has been conducted in developed countries, this study provided a much-needed international culturally sensitive empirical evidence that can enrich professional development research. Given a lack of empirical research in the Vietnamese context social in general, and faculty development, adult learning, and HRD in particular, this grounded theory study provided an FD model for Vietnamese faculty that is grounded in the data collected from the experiences of Vietnamese faculty members. The proposed framework in this study lays a foundation for further professional development qualitative and quantitative research studies in other developing countries with similar characteristics as Vietnam.

Practical Significance

The practical significance of this study is twofold. The findings contributed to professional development practice across various disciplines by providing suggestions

for individual faculty members, faculty developers, and educational leaders seeking to implement collaborative FD programs to benefit all stakeholders. This study also shed light on the learning process of faculty members. Furthermore, the study proposed organizational development interventions that can be used to support professional development activities. The nature of FD at the organizational level is that it creates a learning environment that enhances faculty members' commitment to lifelong learning. From the organization development perspective, this study also illustrated ways to build learning organizations in universities in Vietnam where academic excellence has not been highly valued.

Boundary of the Study

This study has delimitations that set a clear boundary for the study. First, this study focused on the professional development experiences in Vietnam. Therefore, the perspectives of professional development from other stakeholders (e.g. human resources managers and faculty developers) were not captured. Second, I only recruited faculty members from public universities in Vietnam, where most of them are full time teaching staff while simultaneously serving as part-time or visiting lecturers in private universities. In addition, the study participants included only of senior faculty members (at least nine years of teaching) and excluded Junior or distinguished faculty members. junior faculty members are unlikely to provide as informative data as their senior counterparts, especially in terms of the professional development process and contextual factors. Distinguished faculty are likely to have experienced their professional development in the context of the substantial political, social, and educational reforms

during the last several decades, making their professional development perspectives of little practical value to the present circumstances in Vietnamese higher education.

Summary

Chapter I provided an overview of this professional development study. It started with the background introduction to Vietnamese faculty members' professional development experience, followed by a brief description of the research context of Vietnam higher education. This chapter identified the problems that this study addressed, followed by the research purpose and questions. A brief overview of methodology and methods that guided the study was also presented. The chapter concluded with the significance and the boundary of this dissertation study.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This Chapter was based on the findings of three papers where I am the first authors: Faculty development in Southeast Asian higher education: A Review of literature (Phuong, Duong, & McLean, 2015), The experiences of Vietnamese university faculty in relation to their professional development (Phuong & McLean, 2017), and an in-progress paper titled Faculty development: A review of review study conducted by Phuong and Foster. The two review studies were conducted in popular electronic educational databases including ERIC (EBSCO), Education Full Text, SpycINFO, and Academic Search Complete. The first search included empirical studies on FD conducted between 2003 and 2014 in Southeast Asian higher education; it provided a result of 30 eligible works. The second was for review studies on the topic of FD conducted between 1990 and 2015; the result was 11 eligible articles. In addition, a search for documents related to FD issues in Vietnam was conducted on Google and Google Scholar, and resulted in documented reports, governmental documents, empirical studies, newspaper articles, interviews, and books. Based on this comprehensive review, this Chapter provides an overall picture of FD since 1990, highlighting the appropriate overview of trends of FD in the world and Southeast Asian region, and offering a brief description of the context of Vietnamese higher education and FD within this specific setting.

This Chapter begins with a brief history of FD and follows with a description of Vietnam as the research context. The next section provides a definition of FD and its scope. That section is followed by a review of FD activities that faculty have undertaken, and their outcomes. The Chapter ends with an analysis of the various factors affecting FD. The Chapter is structured in a way that each of the above items is analyzed within a world context and the specific Vietnamese setting.

Research Context of Vietnam

As Vietnamese higher education system is considered highly centralized system, any changes or decision made at the top level has shaped how universities and individuals operate accordingly. Thus, in order to have a better understanding of FD at different levels, it is vital to have a broader knowledge about the national, system, and organizational context.

National Context

Since 1986, Vietnam implemented a profound socio-economic policy with the introduction of “Doi Moi” policy (Open Door Renovation). With the Doi Moi, Vietnam has taken the open-door policy, which was a fundamental process of shifting from a centrally planned economy to market-oriented economy having multiple sectors. Since then, Doi Moi led to impressive progress in terms of socio- economic development, political infrastructure, and internal and external relations and collaboration (Sheridan, 2010).

Doi Moi has significantly changed the national education system. Article 35 of the Constitution (amended in 1992) specifies: “Education is the first priority of the

national policy and the government has specifically stated that education and training play a very important part in the human resources development strategy” (p. 7). The authorities have demonstrated commitments to educational reforms in teaching and learning, quality evaluation, curriculum changes, and teacher training (Thanh, 2011). As a result, over the last 30 years, Vietnam has witnessed significant educational achievements, for example higher literacy rates in the population and substantial progress in the equity of education opportunities for student at all levels in the education system (WB & MP, 2016; Nguyen & Nguyen, 2008).

On the other side, unlike the noteworthy quantitative expansion, the national educational quality has been a big concern of not only government officials, education leaders, teachers but also the general public. Education experts point out the failure of the education system in supplying human resources to meet socio-economic development needs and to improve competitiveness of Vietnam in the region and global arena (Wright, 2013). This failure is a major challenge to the success of Vietnam’s innovation because advanced countries in the region, such as Korea and Singapore have proved a close relation between quality education and economic development. Thus, it is vital for the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) to put priorities on implementing suitable domestic policies and accelerating international collaboration that can help to improve the education system of Vietnam.

Context of Higher Education System

Reforms in higher education. The Vietnam higher education system provides a case of complex changes in its uncontinuity and unstable development process. The system has experienced the continuous adaptation to the influences of foreign educational philosophies and models during long years at war with China, France, Japan, and the U.S. (Nguyen, 2012). The Vietnam higher education as it is today contains complexity arisen from several major reforms in its history which I would discuss below

Vietnam's first national university, the temple of Literature, was founded in 1070 and dedicated to the Chinese philosopher Confucius. To some extent, the Confucius' philosophy influenced the higher education of Vietnam until the end of the 19th century when the French colonized Vietnam (Thanh, 2011). After that, the French-Vietnamese education system replaced Confucian- oriented education and existed in Vietnam until the first half of 20th century (*Education in Vietnam - Development history, Challenges and Solution*, n.d.). Primarily, the Vietnam higher education system was strongly influenced by both Chinese and French education systems, emphasizing memorization and passive learning attitudes and devaluing active learning and critical thinking (Thanh, 2011).

When Vietnam was reunified in 1975 after the US-Vietnam war, a comprehensive educational reform was launched to shift unified higher education system into a Soviet based model (Kelly, 2000). This model is characterized by (1) the domination of mono-disciplinary universities specialized in a particular field, (2) highly centralized control, and (3) lack of research in universities (Tong, 2013). As a result,

each small mono-disciplinary institution reports directly to either MOET or another “line ministry” in which the institution operates (WB & MPI, 2016).

Since 1986, the Vietnam higher education system, aligned with the Doi Moi policy, has gradually transformed from the Soviet model to adaptation of a Western style model (Harman, Hayden & Nghi, 2010; Thanh 2011). To that end, the Vietnamese government started restructuring its higher education system, aiming to increase students’ enrollments and diversity, apply new curricula and teaching methods, and enhance universities’ research capability with stronger link to business and industries (Harman et al., 2009). In 2005, the Vietnamese government initiated “Higher Education Reform Agenda” (HERA) (SRV, 2005) on significant reform of Vietnam’s tertiary education in the 2006-2020 period. The HERA focuses on an increase of participation rate and quality improvement in higher education, which requires huge investments in infrastructure, training and enhancing faculty’s competencies, research in universities, and improvement in university governance and research system at organizational and national levels.

With the understanding of the unfavorable context and recognition of the significant role of higher education in the economic innovation and human resource development, the Vietnamese government has made constant effort to reform the higher education system (Dang, 2009). As a result, Vietnamese higher education has achieved significant growth in the number of student enrollment and universities, as well as the demand for university (Dang, 2009; *Vietnam: Higher Education and Skills for Growth*, 2008). However, the Vietnamese higher education system, with its internal complexity

and pressure from external competition in global higher education, is still in the “trial phase,” experiencing many unexpected changes (*Vietnam: Higher Education and Skills for Growth*, 2008).

Structure of Vietnamese higher education system. Before the Doi Moi, Vietnamese higher education system adopted the Soviet Union model, which is highly centralized and dominated by specialized/mono-disciplinary institutions reporting to a line ministry (Kelly, 2000). When the higher education system was restructured, aiming to improve competitiveness and research of universities, a number of small and specialized universities were consolidated into some multiple disciplinary universities. Thus, the existing higher educational institutions consist of the following types: (1) community/ vocational school; (2) specialized/ mono-disciplinary universities and institutes (more narrowly focused on a single field); (3) multidisciplinary institutions offering a wide range of study areas, including two national universities, three regional universities), and (4) non-public universities (Brooks, 2010; Sheridan, 2010; SRV, 2012). Among the above types, specialized universities account for a majority of number.

The existing structure, compared to the previous one, has not changed significantly in terms of public university governance. The two national universities, Hanoi National University and Hochiminh National University, have a more autonomy than any other public universities, but are under the supervision of the Office of Prime Minister (interview, Do Duy Truyen, cited in Brooks, 2010). The other public universities are managed by MOET or their “line ministries”. All public universities

must follow specific MOET guidelines of curriculum standards, student enrollment, awarding degree, academic assessment, financial budgeting, and personnel management (Fry, 2009; SRV, 2012).

Higher education related key issues. The key issues occur in the Vietnamese higher education system can be categorized into four main groups: state management and implementation, quantity versus quality, higher education quality, and academic staff (faculty) quality and development.

State management and implementation. The first and foremost problem causing crisis in the higher education system is the highly centralized system of government control (Brooks, 2010; Ngo, 2006; Pham & Martin, 2015; Sheridan, 2010; Tong, 2013; Valley & Wilkinson, 2008). The government regulates the enrolment numbers, university budgeting, staff numbers, salaries and promotions, and research funding, that prevent universities from implementing intellectual freedom and creating an environment that supports academic excellences (Tong, 2013; Valley & Wilkinson, 2008). The situation is even worse when the government's management is delegated ineffectively to multiple line ministries and MOET, causing duplication, cumbersomeness, and inconsistency in management (Tong, 2013). It is concluded that "Vietnam's higher education system is extraordinary complex" and "the system as a whole does not conform consistently to any globally recognized qualification structure" (*Challenges in Vietnamese higher education contributing to demand for study abroad*, 2015, p. 1).

The centralized system of state management in the higher education strongly constrains the university governance. With limited power, universities become hampered between inefficient and duplicated management by ministries as well as the institutions' limited capability to exercise autonomy (Pham & Martin, 2015). Also, it is difficult for university leaders to hold accountability for outside stakeholders when they have limited autonomy in responding to the rapid changes in the social and economic environment and improve educational quality and competitiveness (Pham & Martin, 2015; Vallely & Wilkinson, 2008). For example, universities have to keep the outdated national curriculum framework for all programs in the system and the traditional teaching and assessment method approved by MOET (Hayden & Thiep, 2010; Pham & Martin, 2015; Sheridan, 2010). Moreover, university budgeting is heavily dependent upon the government because universities' incomes from enrolment quota and their expenditure practice are set by their line ministries (Hayden & Thiep, 2010). The government should give universities more flexibility and self-control in their governance in order to "encourage [their] self - reliance, initiative, transparency, accountability and efficiency" (Hayden & Thiep, 2010, p. 29).

The second concern is the ineffectiveness of in the higher education system in Vietnam. Besides the complexity of the system mentioned above, over-ambitious targets and the implication of government plans at the universities and individuals (Wilkinson & Chirot, 2010) have been unresolved issues. For example, in order to improve the quality and qualification of faculty, the government issues an ambitious goal targeting on 25% of university faculty holding a Ph.D. by 2020 (MOET, 2012). However, in such a state

dependent higher education system like Vietnam the one is, it is unlikely that the government's master plan can be implemented effectively at the university level when the government does not provide sufficiently guidelines and necessary resources (Sheridan, 2010). In addition, the target is regarded unrealistic in terms of high cost and inadequate capability of Vietnamese universities in providing Ph.D. programs (Sheridan, 2010; World Bank, 2008). As a result, many of the government's agenda or strategies start with ambitions but later on the slow pace of implementation or limited outcomes are reported.

Mismatch in fulfilling the social needs. The higher education system in Vietnam still faces a mismatch in fulfilling the needs for country's existing and future development. Specifically, the higher education has failed to provide highly qualified human resources needed for the country's social economic development (Kinh & Chi, 2008; World Bank & Ministry of Planning and Investment, 2016 [WB & MPI]). In other words, Vietnamese universities demonstrate the low ability to restore and transfer knowledge to the next generation and society as well as to generate new knowledge through faculty's research activities (Holten-Andersen, 2015). The bottom line is that the higher education gets confined with not enough qualified faculty, outdated national curriculum, and insufficient investment in education. In this context, it is a big challenge for the Vietnamese higher education and faculty to reframe their curricula in order to support graduating more students who are more productive and competitive in the economic modernization of Vietnam (Harman et al., 2010; Tong, 2013).

Quantity versus quality. Another challenge facing Vietnamese higher education is the paradox of expansion of quantity at the cost of quality (Ngo, 2009). Since Doi Moi, there has been a rapid growth of student enrollment in higher education while the number of faculty has increased at much slower pace much more slowly (Sheridan, 2010; Thanh, 2011). At the same time, the teaching workload has increased significantly due to more classes to teach at school and moonlight jobs, resulting in causing limited time and effort spent on class preparation and their FD participation (Ngo, 2006). In addition to the low job commitment, the shortage of faculty with doctoral degree and inadequate teaching and learning facilities have impeded both the quality of teaching and research of individual faculty and the higher education system (Hiep, 2006; Ngo, 2006; Sheridan, 2010).

Quality of faculty. Pham (2014) highlighted the biggest concerns in the quality of faculty in Vietnam is the shortage of faculty with high quality doctoral training and necessary competencies. As explained above, as Vietnamese faculty start their position with a bachelor's degree, attending advanced degree programs is the top priority FD activity. However, not all faculty members participate in further Ph.D. programs because doctoral degree is not required by the Law on Education (2005). Furthermore, below quality standard of domestic programs, including advanced degrees, does not add much value to the professional development of faculty because the quality of these training programs is not monitored (Nguyen, n.d.). The degrees and certificates are considered an administrative paperwork, rather than an evidence of faculty's competencies (Phuong & McLean, 2016). More seriously, the dialectical relationship of inadequate high-quality

faculty and low quality of domestic Ph.D. programs become a causality dilemma in the higher education, which can hardly be solved in the coming time

When faculty members receive limited support from external resources, such as formal training organizations, they “seemed to turn to other types of informal professional development with technology” (Dinh, 2009 p. 8). These types included consulting with colleagues, exchanging ideas with peers, and seeking assistance from their friends and colleagues. For example, participating in group learning with colleagues was reported to have positive impacts on faculty’s performance and students’ outcomes. (Vo & Nguyen, 2009). However, informal FD activities can help them to improve their teaching competencies and technical competencies but may not work support faculty with research performance, especially with those who do not have sufficient research training in the graduate programs.

In a review about FD conducted by Phuong, Duong, and McLean (2015), the findings show that FD activities in Vietnam focused on application of information and communication technology (ICT) in teaching, pedagogical enhancement, and material improvement. Similarly, Peeraer and van Petegem (2012) reported positive outcomes of a longitudinal development programs between a foreign partner and five teacher education institutes. The findings proved positive impacts of applying ICT on the faculty’s confidence, ICT knowledge, and teaching behaviors.

According to Ngo, (2014), an outstanding Vietnamese professor in a leading university in the U.S, FD in Vietnam should put top priority on improving faculty’s research capability. Ngo (2014) pointed out that, “Only those who live and breathe at the

front of human knowledge are able to understand and transfer basic knowledge and advanced knowledge to intellectual future workforce.” Ngo (2014) argues that research capability is the most critical factor to decide the quality of faculty scholarship, including deciding teaching and technical capabilities.

To conclude, I cited the key concerns and recommendations for higher education in Vietnam which was submitted to the MOET by a group of Vietnamese scholars. According to this group, the fundamental challenge that prevents the Vietnamese higher education system from developing for such a long time is the financial issue, including university governance in finance, financial shortage, and financial inequality in higher education, as the result of a highly centralized state control system (Ha, 2015). Thus, Vietnamese higher education should make a fundamental and radical reform in its philosophies and organizational regulations in order to give more autonomy for universities (Trung, 2015).

A Brief History of International FD

The earliest FD type is sabbatical leave initiated in Harvard University in 1810, aiming to support faculty members’ discipline expertise and research advancement (Gillespie & Robertson, 2010; Lewis, 1996). The sabbatical leaves were the FD standard support in the U.S. higher education until 1960s. Since then, FD evolved significantly and has become a newly established discipline which provides a wide range of activities and involves an increasing number of professional and dedicated faculty developers/practitioners (Austin & Sorcinelli, 2013; Gillespie & Robertson, 2010; Steinert, 2014).

For more than 50 years of evolution, FD as we understand today has experienced five significant stages. Sorcinelli et al (2006) described this evolution starting with the Age of Scholars (1950s – 1960s) in which scholarship supported activities, such as sabbatical leaves, were key to the FD practice. The Age of Teacher (late 1960s - 1970s) witnessed a significant shift of FD from scholarly support with practice to teaching and focusing effectiveness by enhancing teaching knowledge and skills (Centra, 1989). Besides, FD in this stage expanded the scope of FD to assist with faculty in their personal, professional, and academic development (Murray, 2005; Schuster, 1990). The Age of Developer (1980s) shifted the foci of FD research from investigating program types and participation to evaluation of program outcomes. Thus, FD became campus-based activities focusing on curriculum changes which required collaboration of individual faculty members within department and institutions (Gaff & Simpson, 1994). The Age of Learners (1990s) witnessed a shift in paradigm from being teacher - centered to learner- centered with the technology application in teaching and learning processes. Currently, the Age of Network (starting 2000) highlighted collaboration between and among all higher education stakeholders in order to meet the heightened expectations and pressure of educational reform. As a result of these various efforts of changes, FD has proved had significantly positive effects on faculty members and various related stakeholders. Recently, researchers acknowledged that FD becomes an emerging discipline with a growing literature in research and practice (Steinert, 2014).

Definition of Faculty Development

This section presents the definition of FD in both the general sense and within the context of Vietnamese higher education.

General Definitions of FD

Contemporary approaches to FD have been centered on individual faculty members' development, either in competencies (Wilkerson & Irby, 1998), validity (Clack, Corcoran & Lewis, 1986; Millis, 2001), or performance (Millis, 2001; Camblin & Steger, 2000; Steinert, 2000). However, role based-performance improvement, especially in teaching, has been the most popular focus of FD (Phuong & Foster, ongoing; Steinert, 2014). In addition, organizations are considered to play critical role in FD, either in form of FD strategy (Caffarella, & Zinn, 1999), organizational validity (Clack, Corcoran & Lewis, 1986), and organization culture and norms (Gaff & Simpson, 1994). Of critical importance, it can now be said that FD has become "anything and everything" (Riegle, 1978), providing a broad array of opportunities for both individuals' performance improvement and organizational development (Camblin & Steger, 2000). Most importantly, these improvements yield better outcomes for students (Steinart et al., 2006).

For this study, FD can be generally defined as any individual or joint effort made by related parties to assist a faculty member's performance improvement and benefit other stakeholders. By defining FD as either an *individual* or *joint* effort, I attempt to include anyone who initiates and/or implements FD activities. When FD aims to *assist* a faculty member's *performance improvement*, individual faculty members are at the

center of any FD effort designed to improve that faculty member's role-based performance. As a result, joint efforts produce beneficial effects in that they enhance faculty performance, maximize students' learning achievements, and contribute to institutional and social changes.

Definitions of FD in the Vietnamese Context

In Vietnam, there is discrepancy between definitions of FD in official documents and in practice. The first approach to define FD is by looking at the legal documents. Under the Higher Education Law (2005; 2012), one common faculty responsibility is participation in professional training and development that focus on developing high academic standards (or academic levels) including professional expertise, instructional methodologies, and research capacity. However, this legal approach to FD does not clarify the meaning of the term "standard" as it applies to the phrase "academic standard."

A second approach that is widely used by FD practitioners and researchers is one of competency development. For example, FD can be viewed as a process of creating learning opportunities for faculty, the goal of which is to equip, update, and improve faculty members' knowledge, skills, and attitudes so that they might better fulfill their job requirements and more adequately meet the needs of learners (Nguyen, 2012). Nguyen (n.d.) defines FD as competency development for faculty members. Relevant competencies for education management faculty include technical capabilities, teaching aptitude, the capacity to use technology related to scientific research, and proficiency in

consultancy services related to educational management (Pham). Nguyen (n.d.) divides faculty competencies into teaching, research, and discipline-related subgroups.

Compared to the definitions in the international literature of FD, FD definitions in Vietnam contains some unique features: (a) focusing on competencies, (b) lack of organizational support, and (c) being regulated by the Law of Higher Education and part of national education strategy. Thus, in this study, I define FD in Vietnamese higher education as professional activities that faculty members take aiming to improve their competencies related to their professional roles and responsibilities.

Scope of FD

The Context of FD

FD takes place in a complex environment. A university is a prominent setting where faculty members take most of their FD activities. Faculty members spend a larger amount of their time on campus activities, such as teaching and working with students, organizational leadership and management, and intellectual inquiries of their disciplines and teaching and learning. Another important context refers to academic and professional communities and associations locally or internationally where faculty members practise their professional and service role relating to their professional expertise. However, it is difficult to set a contextual boundary for FD as faculty members practice much of their FD in informal ways (Steiner, 2014) in a wide range of contexts. Despite the variation, FD activities must be responsive to changes in higher education and faculty roles and responsibilities, aligned with organizations' and communities' objectives.

Levels of FD

The FD levels deal with the question, “Who initiates and implements FD activities?” At the individual level, FD activities consists of formal and informal activities, in which self-directed learning and experiential and workplace learning play a critical role (Steinert, 2014). When being institutionalized, FD is defined as organizational planned activities, organizational development and leadership strategies, and organization collaboration (Bland et al., 1990; Gaff & Simpson, 2014; Steinert, 2000). FD can also be in forms of inter-organizational and international partnerships between universities or nations in joint projects. These projects provide FD opportunities for faculty members or assist universities to make academic improvements. FD at the national level, has been recognized in some developing countries, like Vietnam, where FD is a national strategy aiming to improve quality, quantity, and qualification of faculty members. Use Vietnam as an example, for the last 15 years, thousands of Vietnamese faculty members have been sponsored to participate in a variety of overseas faculty development programs.

However, it is hard to find FD activities happening at the regional level. For example, Southeast Asian region (SEA) attempts to build “a common space in higher education” allowing faculty members to learn from each other and collaborate to address national and regional challenges (Sirat & JanTan 2008, p. 2). The findings in the study conducted about FD in the region did not report any forms of FD collaboration *among* the SEA countries. The findings may suggest that FD has not been the focus of higher education collaboration at the regional level (Phuong, Duong, & McLean, 2015)

Faculty development activities happen at different levels, from individual to national. FD activities should be centrally positioned at the faculty level while intertwined in terms of efforts provided and benefits gained for related parties. Viewing FD from the level perspective enables related parties to realize the available resources and challenges affecting FD at each level in order to maximize collaborative FD activities.

Faculty Roles and Responsibilities

Faculty roles in general. To meet the changing demands of education and society, a faculty member's traditional roles of research, teaching, and service have become more complex, expanding to include all aspects of the profession (Nelson, 1983). These roles have been added over time by learners, advisors, academic leaders, networkers, program developers, and contributors to institutional decisions (Nelson, 1983). Recently, Steinert (2014) categorized faculty roles into three general domains: "teachers and educators, leaders and managers, and researchers and scholars in individual and organizational settings" (p. 4). Steiner's categories cover a wide range of possible roles and responsibilities that faculty members may assume, at both the individual and organizational levels. However, research on FD has found evidence of an over-emphasis by both faculty and organizations on improving faculty members' teaching performance (Leslie et al., 2013; Trowbridge et al., 2011).

Viewing faculty from the perspective of role categories has enabled researchers to investigate the responsibilities and expectations put upon faculty members as they progress in their careers (Steinert, 2014). Steiner's role categorization can help faculty

developers design and implement appropriate interventions focused on best meeting faculty members' needs and role requirements at different stages in their careers. The outcomes of these interventions also closely align with common human development strategies employed by academic organizations.

Faculty title rankings and responsibilities in Vietnam. From official documents issued by the Vietnamese government and published studies on FD, it can be concluded that the concept of faculty responsibility-based competencies is more widely used than that of faculty role-based performance. Thus, for this research it was necessary to understand faculty title rankings which cover the concepts of responsibilities and competencies, in the Vietnamese higher education system.

Faculty title ranking. Under the Circulation No. 36/2014/TTLT – BGĐT – BNV (MOET, 2014) which regulates job titles of faculty members teaching in public higher education institution, faculty ranking in public universities consists of three titles: distinguished faculty, senior faculty, and faculty. Under the University Law (2012), academic promotions are based on three criteria: responsibilities, education and training, and professional competencies. Depending on the ranking, the specific criteria vary but the core requirements remain the same. They are:

(1) Responsibilities: teaching, research and technology, engagement in educational/ research administration and organizational/community services, and training and development.

(2) Education and training: holding a master's degree or higher (applied to Senior and Distinguished faculty promotions) and a certificate in pedagogy for higher education

faculty; and mastering a foreign language and information technology, as required for each rank.

(3) Professional competencies: having knowledge of the courses assigned to be taught and related courses offered in the program; understanding the curricula, syllabi, and practical expectations of the courses assigned to be taught; able to conduct research studies or write textbooks or reference books; having a faculty appointment for at least three years as training faculty before being promoted to faculty, nine years as faculty before being promoted to senior faculty, and six years as senior faculty before being promoted to distinguished faculty.

Faculty responsibilities. The four key areas of faculty members ‘responsibilities’ are as follows:

1. Teaching: preparing class materials, leading classes (undergraduate and/or graduate), supervising student work (theses and field reports), assessing students’ assignments, and evaluating colleagues.
2. Research and technology: leading and/or participating in research and related projects, developing curricula and training programs, researching ways to improving instructional methods, writing textbooks and reference books, writing academic papers and presenting research studies at conferences and workshops, participating in organizational quality assurance, and participating in international projects on technology.
3. Educational/research administration and organizational/community services: participating in developing, implementing, and auditing colleagues’ teaching and

students' learning; administering university admission and recruitment programs; leading students during their probationary periods; administrating labs, research, and technology; and serving at the university and in the community.

4. Training and development: participating in continuous training and professional development activities to improve knowledge and competencies in disciplines, foreign languages, information technology, teaching, and management.

The amount of time spent on each area of responsibility varies depending on the faculty member's rank; teaching usually accounts for 50% (or 900 hour per year) of faculty time, regardless of a member's rank. Table 1 presents the average time spent per task, according to faculty rank.

Table 1 Time Averages According to Faculty Rank

(Unit: hour)

Title	Teaching	Research	Faculty development and service
Faculty	900	400	460
Senior faculty	900	500	360
Distinguished faculty	900	600	260

(MOET, 2014b)

As Vietnamese higher education is highly centralized under the control of the government, faculty appointments to public universities are regulated by the civil service system. Accordingly, appointment and promotion are primarily based on seniority (Hoang, 2009), and the requirements for each ranking are governed by the Higher

Education Law. Faculty salaries follow the salary structure for civil servants set by the Ministry of Home Affairs.

Focus of FD

There are three foci of FD activities discussed in the literature: competency improvement, performance improvement, and comprehensive outcomes. First, researchers have argued that FD activities should focus on faculty competencies or a combination of the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and behaviors necessary for a member to be successful in their duties (Milner, Gusic, & Thorndyke, 2011; Steinert, 2014). Based on the faculty member's responsibilities specific to their discipline, researchers, faculty development practitioners, and educational leaders have developed different sets of competency domains to accordingly inform their FD activities and assessment (Milner, Gusic, & Thorndyke, 2011). These broad competencies include teaching effectiveness, leadership development, research, career development, and organizational changes (Steiner, 2014). However, a very limited number of studies have investigated what specific competencies faculty might need to improve upon and ways to assess the related activities; exceptions are cases involving academic medicine and health, where faculty are expected to grow from trainees to experts in their respective areas of practice (Milner, Gusic, & Thorndyke, 2011).

Second, a large number of studies on FD have investigated the impacts of FD activities designed to help faculty members improve in their multiple roles, such as teacher and educator, researcher and scholar, and leader and manager (Bland et al., 1990; Steinert, 2014). Bligh (2005) argues that FD activities are expected to improve faculty

members' levels of performance, which affect related areas such as students' learning outcomes and organizational changes. However, a review of the current published studies on FD has shown that for the past 30 years, FD has been focused on improving teaching skills rather than addressing faculty members' multiple roles (Phuong & Foster, ongoing; Trowbridge et al., 2013). Thus, the literature indicates that FD activities are primarily designed to improve classroom teaching and learning effectiveness, develop and apply new teaching methods and evaluation techniques, enhance the process of curriculum development, understand the factors that influence the relationships formed between students and teachers, and enhance teachers' commitment to educational leadership (Steinert et al., 2006).

Third, a review of the literature indicates that Kirkpatrick's evaluation model has been widely used to investigate the impacts of FD outcomes (Phuong & Foster, ongoing). This model consists of four levels: reaction, learning, behavior, and results. The first three levels are commonly used to assess impacts on faculty, and the last level to assess the effects on other stakeholders. Sheets and Schwenk (1990) argued that FD should improve faculty competencies in areas considered essential to their performance, where performance is understood as the result of such competency improvement.

In the context of Southeast Asian higher education, the primary foci of FD activities have been competency and performance improvement in pedagogy, and technology applications in teaching and learning. For example, several studies have discussed educators' ICT applications, including integrating technology into teaching practices, implementing ontology-based e-learning systems, and the effects of using

ICTs on overall teaching performance (Hussin et al., 2009; Peeraer & van Petegem, 2012). The ultimate aim of most FD activities was shown to be the enhancement of instructional competencies infused in other FD foci such as program/syllabus development and collaborative teaching activities (Laws, Harbon, Nguyen, & Trinh, 2009; Miliszewska & Sztendur, 2011); program/syllabus evaluations were reported to be the emphasis of most FD initiatives (Luu, 2012; Miliszewska & Sztendur, 2011).

In Vietnam, competency enhancement has been the primary focus of FD activities. Under the Law on Higher Education (2012), faculty members are responsible for continuously improving the competencies that align with their professional ranks. Accordingly, Nguyen (n.d.) has pointed out that the priority of FD in Vietnam is to develop a set of basic professional competency domains, including technical, research and technology, and consultant and managerial competencies (Nguyen, n.d.). Among these domains, Vietnamese faculty have prioritized improvement in technical competencies, begun paying more attention to teaching competencies, and lagged behind in research and technology competencies (Nguyen, n.d.).

Classification of FD Activities

Approaches to FD Classification

The increasingly high demand placed upon faculty members and the complexity of their roles and responsibilities have put pressure on FD programs to become more comprehensive. There are different ways to classify FD activities. First, Centra (1987) has categorized 45 FD practices into five categories, based on a reviewed of the literature and discussion with faculty and administrators: “(a) workshops, seminars, or

similar presentations; (b) analysis or assessment procedures; (c) activities that involve media, technology, or course development; (d) institution-wide policies or practices such as sabbatical leaves or annual teaching rewards; and (e) a miscellaneous set of five practices” (p. 153). These FD categories primarily consist of structured or formal activities and programs implemented by organizations; they do not acknowledge the role of self-directed activities in the FD process.

Another commonly used method of classifying FD activities is based on FD objectives. Wilkerson and Irby (1998) and Steiner (2000) both proposed comprehensive FD programs that include development in areas such as the professional, instructional, educational scholarship and leadership, and organizational arenas. A specific series of FD activities were designed, based on the unique needs and requirements of faculty members’ roles and responsibilities during each stage of their careers.

A third classification system is based on outcomes instead of processes. Amundsen and Wilson (2012) critically reviewed the literature and categorized FD activities into outcome- and process-based clusters. The outcome category, which includes skills, methods, and institutional focus clusters, covers initiatives designed to support specific learning outcomes. The process category is located in reflection, disciplinary specificity, and action-oriented research. Although the differences in activities focused on outcomes versus processes can be useful when designing FD initiatives and investigating their effectiveness, an ideal FD program would be a multidimensional process targeting all aspects of the production of desired FD outcomes (Boyce et al., 2008).

Finally, Caffarella and Zinn (1999) recommended an FD model that categorizes the wide range of FD activities into three main domains: self-directed learning experiences, formal training programs, and organizational development. They further classified each FD type, in detail. Self-directed learning includes activities that are initiated, implemented, and evaluated primarily by individuals. These activities consist of class preparation and teaching, syllabus design and revision, the mentoring and supervision of students, research, and involvement in profession-related service functions. Formal professional development programs are initiated, implemented, and evaluated by different echelons, including those at the departmental, university, and university partnership levels. Examples of this type include professional meetings, workshops, conferences, formal mentoring programs, and collaborative projects. Organizational development strategies are known as planned change efforts, which target adjustments in organizational performance. Organizational development includes the implementation of quality management, and activities designed to improve cultural and organizational structures.

In short, the body of studies on FD provide suggestions for understanding the various dimensionalities of FD activities: (a) FD design focus: outcomes (*skills, methods, and institutions*) versus processes (*reflections, scholarly discussions and cliques, and action research and inquiries*); (b): activity formats: formal programs (*workshops, seminars, formal mentoring programs, and advanced degrees*) versus self-directed activities (*research and informal mentoring programs*); (c) FD cooperation: introspection (*self-taught activities, self-action research, self-reflections*) versus

interactivity (*communities of practice, cooperative reflections, and formal programs*); (d) learning-based theories (*behaviors, cognition, and socialization*) versus performance-based theories; (e) levels of development: individual (*self-improvement*) versus organizational (*organization's culture, structure, and quality of learning environment*); (f) voluntary versus compulsory; and (g) duration: short versus longitudinal activities.

Thus, when designing FD activities, it is vital to consider these dimensionalities. However, the degree of each faculty member's involvement is an essential prerequisite for the success of any FD activity. Less essential, but still critical, is the role of the organization in supporting FD activities. All in all, faculty members must find their FD participation beneficial to their competency improvement and recognize how such improvement will make them more effective as they perform their multiple roles (Ullian & Stritter, 1997).

Overview of FD Activities

The most common FD activities include formal training programs, comprehensive education classes, and self-directed learning. Researchers addressing self-learning approaches (Cook & Steniert, 2013; Izadinia, 2014; Kiffer & Tchibozo, 2013) have acknowledged that the faculty learning process plays a crucial role in professional development (Phuong, et al., 2015). However, the process depends upon individual learning, such as self-taught classes and learning on the job (Kiffer & Tchibozo, 2013), self-reflection (Amundsen & Wilson, 2012; Izadinia, 2014), and self-study (Amundsen & Wilson, 2012; Izadinia, 2014; Wilkerson & Irby, 1998); these tend to be integral to community practices (Amundsen & Wilson, 2012; Izadinia, 2014;

Kiffer & Tchibozo, 2013), reflective partnerships (Izadinia, 2014; Wilkerson & Irby, 1998), and collaborative research.

Cooperative reflection contributes significantly to the successful outcome of any faculty learning process, in ways that are challenged by faculty practices, problems, and beliefs (Wilkerson & Irby, 1998). Other research concentrates on FD via formal programs, including workshops, seminars, advanced degrees, formal mentoring systems (Leslie et al., 2013; Sorinola & Thistlethwaite, 2013; Steinert et al., 2006; Steinert, Naismith & Mann, 2012), and online programs (Cook & Steniert, 2013). Recently, formal programs have tended to be more longitudinal, lasting from one to two years; the majority is delivered as short training courses, workshops, and seminars. Finally, some researchers (Amundsen & Wilson, 2012; Phuong et al., 2015; Wilkerson & Irby, 1998) have investigated comprehensive FD programs that combine multiple types of activities, and gather together a variety of resources, organizational support, and forms of leadership.

FD Activities in Southeast Asian and Vietnamese Higher Education

Self-directed learning was found to be the most common FD activity, followed by informal professional activities such as group work, online collaborations, and idea exchanges (Phuong et al., 2015). FD in this area tended to focus primarily on teaching improvement, and especially on integrating information and communication technologies (ICTs) into teaching in order to improve teachers' level of pedagogy.

Similarly, self-directed learning and informal professional development has become more popular among Vietnamese faculty (Dinh, 2009; Phuong, et al., 2015). For

example, developmental relationships with colleagues, peers, and groups of friends were reported to have an overall positive effect on faculty performance, student outcomes, and the sense of professional community (Vo & Nguyen, 2009). It is noticeable that the majority of the studies on FD in Vietnam targeted teacher education faculty, especially faculty in English language instruction.

Formal professional and organizational development were analyzed less frequently, and many of the activities addressed overlapped to include both of these types (Amin, Khoo, Gwee, Tan, & Koh, 2006; Churchill, 2006; Laws, et al., 2009; Peeraer & van Petegem, 2012; Saito, Hawe, Hadiprawiroc, & Empedhe, 2008). Faculty in Southeast Asia reported on their experiences with formal training and development and their engagement in mentoring relationships. The majority of organizational activities addressed improvements in organizational quality (new programs, projects, and curriculum development) and quality management strategies.

There are several aspects of the existing formal training programs for faculty that are unique to Vietnam. First, advanced degrees, though not reported on in the empirical research, have become the most popular formal training programs (Phuong & McLean, 2016). As explained above, participating in an advanced degree program is an FD requirement because the majority of Vietnamese faculty members are hired with only a bachelor's degree. Second, faculty members have the opportunity to participate in cooperative programs between foreign partners and local universities. One example is the longitudinal development cooperative program comprised of five teacher education institutions in Vietnam (Peeraer & van Petegem, 2012); the program is designed to

improve faculty knowledge of ICTs and related teaching behaviors. However, Vietnamese faculty have acknowledged that while they have variety of opportunities to participate in formal programs, most are of low quality and considered insufficient to fully support their professional development (Hiep, 2006; Phuong & McLean, 2016).

In short, Vietnamese FD practices in the last 25 years have been targeted towards individual professional development via formal training and self-directed learning activities. While formal training programs, especially comprehensive courses, were more popular among faculty at North American universities, self-directed learning activities were more common among faculty in SEA region. These findings imply that faculty at North American universities have more opportunities to engage in formal training programs with support from their universities, and that universities play a more important role in individual faculty members' FD than they do for their Southeast Asian colleagues. Moreover, FD in Vietnam, while similar to FD in Southeast Asia, has certain unique characteristics.

Outcomes of Faculty Development

Evaluation Methods

Faculty development evaluation and assessment processes have not been adequately analyzed in the literature. In this study, FD is defined as a specific educational effort; however, it is difficult to accurately evaluate all of the various forms of FD effort. First, though faculty members have acknowledged the critical role of self-directed learning in their FD, it is not considered a criterion of formal faculty assessment. Second, the desired outcomes of FD efforts can be ambiguous and

complicated, depending upon the individual faculty member and specific job description. Third, it is difficult to accurately assess FD outcomes solely from self-reporting and student evaluations, as opposed to more objective assessment methods. Finally, many FD efforts are not quantitatively measured, such as class preparation, collaborative reflection activities, and student mentoring. As a result, FD evaluation has been found either to not be integral to the FD process or to act solely as a means of evaluating participant satisfaction, rather than as a way to address any tangible improvement in faculty performance, student learning, or organizational development. In addition, FD assessment has not been rigorously conducted according to a triangulation approach, and instead has relied heavily on participants to self-report (Phuong, et al., 2015; Steinert, 2000).

In the context of addressing the importance of the impacts of FD on multiple stakeholders, several researchers, especially in the health and medical fields, used the Kirkpatrick's evaluation model to conduct literature reviews designed to identify the outcomes of FD activities. The leading study laying a foundation for this type of FD review was conducted by Steinert in 2006. Specifically, the research conducted by Phuong and Foster (ongoing) reviewed studies on FD between 1990 and 2015; this work found that seven out of the 12 studies across various disciplines have imitated Steiner's process in an effort to comprehensively assess the outcomes of FD activities. Thus, in recognizing the commonalities among the various review studies and the popularity of Kirkpatrick's framework, Holton (1996) and Aluko (2014) employed the Kirkpatrick's

framework (1998) as a general guideline for classifying and synthesizing the FD outcomes extracted from the existing reviews.

The table 2 describes Kirkpatrick’s training framework, as adapted from Leslie and colleagues (2013), including 4 levels: Reaction, Learning, Behavior, and Results. Each level may comprise of sub-levels and focus on evaluating different types of outcomes.

Table 2. Outcomes Levels

Level	Evaluation Types	Descriptions
Level 1a	Reaction	Measuring faculty satisfaction with their participation
Level 1b		Measuring faculty motivation or desire to take further action relating to their FD participation in their profession
Level 2a	Learning	Measure faculty changes in attitudes or perceptions towards their profession
Level 2b		Measure faculty’s acquisitions of their profession-related knowledge and skills
Level 3	Behavior	Application of what faculty learn in the FD activities to their workplace
Level 4a	Results	Measuring changes in faculty related workplace (e.g., department/university academic culture, FD programs and quality assurance)
Level 4b		Measuring changes in students’ activities or performance
Level 4c		Measuring changes in other stakeholders (e.g., community of practice, social communities, and business)

Faculty Development Outcomes

Table 3 explains the outcomes of FD activities in detail. Although positive changes in learning and behaviors relating of faculty's roles were recorded, improvement in teaching, learning, and instruction were highlighted as the most commonly reported outcomes. Other changes in research, leadership, and relationship with organizations, colleagues and students were also mentioned in these reviews.

Table 3 FD Outcomes Using Kirkpatrick's Evaluation Framework

Level of Outcomes	Evaluation Methods	Examples
Level 1: Participants' reactions Measuring participants' satisfaction with FD activities, and motivation	- primarily self-reported data: post-program surveys, several interviews	(a) Satisfaction with: - usefulness for participants' personal and professional needs and objectives (e.g. Hueppchen et al., 2011; Leslie et al., 2013) - contents relevant to their practice (e.g. Izadinia, 2014; Steinert et al., 2012) - opportunities for networking (e.g. Cook & Steinert, 2013; Steinert et al., 2012) - valuable experiences (e.g. Cook and Steinert, 2013; Phuong et al., 2015) - flexible online learning (Cook & Steinert, 2013) (b) Motivation to adopt new instructional methods (Phuong et al., 2015) (c) Less satisfaction with short activities, such as a single workshop considered to be unsuccessful (Phuong et al., 2015)

Table 3 Continued

Level of Outcomes	Evaluation Methods	Examples
<p>Level 2: Participants' learning</p>		
<p><i>Level 2a:</i> Measuring participants' changes in attitude or perceptions</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - primarily self-reported data - more frequent use of non-participants' observations, surveys, and interviews - few comparative studies or pre- and post-surveys 	<p>Changes in faculty members' attitudes/perceptions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - acknowledgement of the important role of the learning process in contributing to their professional development (e.g. Amundsen and Wilson, 2012), personal development (Steinert et al., 2006), professional identity (Steinert et al., 2006) and leadership capabilities (Steinert et al., 2012) - appreciation for their own organization or workplace (Izadinia, 2014), benefits of FD (Steinert et al., 2006), and networking (Steinert et al., 2012)
<p><i>Level 2b:</i> Measuring participants' skills and knowledge acquisition</p>		<p>Knowledge improvement relating:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - teaching and learning (e.g. Kiffer & Tchibozo, 2013; Rodríguez et al., 2014) - specific disciplines (Amundsen & Wilson, 2012; Steinert et al., 2006) - their organizations and expectations of fellow professionals (Phuong et al., 2015) - their self-awareness, such as strengths and limitations (Sorinola & Thistlethwaite, 2013; Steinert et al., 2006) - sense of professional identity (Izadinia, 2014), and leadership (Steinert et al., 2012) - pedagogical competencies (e.g. Cook & Steinert, 2013; Hueppchen et al., 2011) - network skills (Rodríguez et al., 2014), leadership competencies (Steinert et al., 2012), and cooperative practice (Phuong et al., 2015) - no significant difference in knowledge

Table 3 Continued

Level of Outcomes	Evaluation Methods	Examples
<p>Level 3: Changes in job behavior/performance Measuring how participants apply their learning in workplace</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - primarily self-reported surveys, interviews, and narrations - several nonparticipants' observations, control groups, analyses of curriculum vitae or online data searches, and students' ratings 	<p>gain between pre- and post-test scores addressing a short activity (Sorinola & Thistlethwaite, 2013)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - significant difference in knowledge gain in extensive activities (series of workshops and one-or-two-year programs) (Phuong et al., 2015) <p>Changes in behavior/performance:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - application of new teaching techniques and assessment methods, and reinforcement of teaching skills (e.g. Amundsen & Wilson, 2012; Hueppchen et al., 2011) - research performance through research productivity, publications, classroom research, and grant writing (e.g. Leslie et al., 2013; Rodríguez et al., 2014) - improved relationships with colleagues, better interpersonal relationships with students, and more supportive engagement with longitudinal program structures (Sorinola & Thistlethwaite, 2013) - new levels of initiation in teaching design, adaptation to emerging leadership roles, and the creation of innovative forms of collaboration and networks (Steinert et al., 2006)

Table 3 Continued

Level of Outcomes	Evaluation Methods	Examples
<p>Level 4: Results <i>Level 4a:</i> Measuring changes in department/university education programs, and system of quality assurance</p>	<p>- participants' self-reported surveys and progress reports - non-participants' surveys, observations, and experiments.</p>	<p>- positive changes in the retention and recruitment of faculty (e.g. Leslie et al., 2013; Sorinola & Thistlethwaite, 2013) - education innovation, recognition of teaching effort, designing and implementing faculty programs and networks (e.g. Rodríguez et al., 2014) - higher faculty involvement in educational activities and cultural changes (e.g. Steinert et al., 2006)</p>
<p><i>Level 4b:</i> Measuring changes in student learning and performance as the result of participants' changes</p>		<p>- better student engagement, improved student performance, satisfaction with new programs and pedagogical practices, and better interpersonal relationships (Steinert et al., 2006)</p>
<p><i>Level 4c:</i> Measuring changes in other stakeholders</p>		<p>- impacts on colleagues engaged in cooperative research, knowledge transfer, and networking (e.g. Rodríguez et al., 2014) - impacts on patients through improved quality of medical care (Leslie et al., 2013)</p>

Faculty Development Outcomes in Vietnam

Faculty development outcomes in Vietnam are similar to FD outcomes in greater Southeast Asia, but there are also several unique aspects. Although very few studies in Vietnam have provided evidence of Vietnamese FD outcomes, in all of those outcomes there is a dilemma. On the one hand, the high standards set by overseas advanced degree

programs and foreign-based institutional programs have a positive impact on faculty members' pedagogical improvement and research capabilities (Napier & Mai, 2003; McCornac, 2008; Phuong & McLean, 2016). For example, international publications in English are regarded as the outcome of self-directed learning experiences when Vietnamese authors join with international scholars to conduct research. On the other hand, the majority of faculty participating in domestic programs reported that the impacts of these programs on their FD are limited, due to questionable levels of quality (McCornac & Chi, 2005).

However, regardless of the type of FD program and whether it was of local or international origin, as long as the program was considered to be of good quality, faculty members acknowledged the experience's positive impact on their satisfaction, learning, and performance. This was especially true for experience gained from participating in high quality FD activities; such exercises were found to strongly affect not only faculty members' knowledge of and skills in pedagogy but also performance (McCornac, 2005). Also, self-directed or "workplace" learning (such as participating in group learning with colleagues) was reported to have a positive impact on faculty performance (Vo & Nguyen, 2009).

Factors Affecting FD Activities

Factors Affecting FD Activities in General

Influential factors that affect FD activity effectiveness, which are categorized into three key domains: individual involvement, the program itself, and organizational support. Table 4 describes them in detail.

Table 4 Factors Affecting FD Activity Effectiveness

Domains	Supporting factors	Impeding factors
Participant involvement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - experiential learning (e.g. Kiffer & Tchibozo, 2013) - reflective practice (Izadinia, 2014) - cooperative practice (e.g., Sorinola & Thistlethwaite, 2013) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - time constraints (Cook and Steinert, 2013) - lack of faculty engagement (Cook & Steinert, 2013), - pressure to balance multiple roles (Phuong et al., 2015).
Activity/ program itself	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - needs assessment at the outset (Steinert et al., 2006) - the use of multiple instructional methods (e.g. Sorinola & Thistlethwaite, 2013) - evaluation of the FD effectiveness (e.g. Hueppchen et al., 2011). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - short interventions, insufficient time (Cook & Steinert, 2013) - inappropriate topics (Cook & Steinert, 2013) - missing evaluation of outcomes (Phuong et al., 2015) - lack of ongoing support (Izadinia, 2014).
Organizational support	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - creating an organizational culture, supportive work environment, and reward system for changes (Steinert, 2006) - providing financial support for FD opportunities and professional networking (Rodríguez et al., 2014; Sorinola & Thistlethwaite, 2013) - establishing inter-organizational and international cooperation (Phuong et al., 2015). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - lack of leaders' strategic development (Phuong et al, 2015) - limited funding (Rodríguez et al., 2014)

Coincidentally, the findings show reflection from the support side of the domains to the impending side. The domains presented in each side are aligned, including participant involvement, the activities/ program themselves, and the organization support. The core influence of all three domains that helps or hinders success of FD interventions is the endured effort, requiring time and commitment of various parties.

For instant, faculty members involve in experiential learning or cooperative reflection in an FD activity, which should align with organizational strategic development and funding. Combination of all these factors definitely enhances the effectiveness of FD interventions, while too little or lack of involvement of these factors may impede the impacts.

Factors Affecting FD Activities in Vietnam

To enhance the capacity of the Vietnamese higher education system and move the overall quality of the outcomes closer to the international standard, it is vital for educational leaders at all levels to make FD a priority (Brooks, 2010). Factors related to this enhancement are presented below, under the sub-headings of opportunities and challenges.

Opportunities. Once improving the quality of FD has become the government's top priority as a part of a comprehensive body of higher education reform, FD opportunities includes a variety of activities. Currently, with the financial support provided by the government and other resources, Vietnamese faculty members have the opportunity to participate in a number of formal training programs. Every year, more than a thousand faculty members are sponsored in their pursuit of quality advanced degree programs overseas. The sponsorships are included in the Vietnamese government's budget; there are also country-specific projects such as the Vietnam Exchange Fellowship (VEF), Fulbright, Australian Aid (Ausaid), and Japanese and German scholarships (DAAD). However, only a small number of faculty can take advantage of these opportunities; a majority of faculty members choose to engage in FD

training in Vietnam with financial support, either full or partial, from the government or their particular university. These programs are either partnerships between a Vietnamese university or an overseas institution of higher education, or local advanced degree programs. Local advanced degree programs are growing rapidly, despite their problem with quality (Phuong & McLean, 2016).

In addition, faculty members also have the opportunity to engage in other types of FD. They can join joint cooperative programs that allow them to take part in short-term training programs. In addition, with their improved English proficiency and internet usage, many faculty members are now able to access areas of advanced knowledge in their disciplines, co-teach with foreign professors, and participate in international collaborative research.

Next, holders of international doctorate degrees who subsequently return home become agents of change for domestic FD quality improvement. In recent years, an increasing number of faculty members with international doctoral degrees have returned to their Vietnamese universities to teach; they contribute to the enhancement of quality FD programs at their home universities and through international involvement (Albach, 2003). Their connection to international academic resources such as research, systems of pedagogy, ideas, and colleagues, provide a general foundation for faculty to improve the quality of their FD. Their influence is even more impactful because when many arrive home, they are promoted to serve as leaders in their institutions of higher education. They become agents of internal FD reform.

Additionally, globalization in higher education has contributed significantly to FD quality and faculty motivation. When higher education programs are cosmopolitanized through international cooperation and links to training and research, faculty members are better able to receive and access advanced and updated professional knowledge and information. Also, academic leaders and managers can gain regional and international experience in implementing successful FD interventions (Hanman, Hayden & Nghi, 2010; Nguyen & Tran, 2013).

Finally, faculty members' intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction with teaching in Vietnam have inspired them to work harder on their personal professional development. In a study conducted by Pham (2012), among 799 faculty members surveyed, approximately two thirds expressed high to very high levels of satisfaction; only 4.4% expressed dissatisfaction with their jobs. Findings by another qualitative research study conducted by Phuong and McLean (2016) indicated that faculty members' love for their jobs, improvements to their self-image, and their students' achievements all served as intrinsic motivators for further FD. Luot's study (2012) shared similar findings and confirmed that to Vietnamese faculty, students' success and professional development were prominent motivators.

Challenges. Higher education in Vietnam also poses several challenges to proper faculty development. Many such challenges are subject to issues both structural and systemic to higher education, and that are beyond the control of the faculty and the organization's' leaders.

Researchers and faculty members agree that the biggest challenge to developing a qualified faculty workforce is providing a sufficient salary (Chau, n.d. cited in Phuong, n.d. 2015; World Bank, 2008), a problem that is generalized as the “salary/income paradox” by Professor Hoang Tuy (n.d.) A majority of faculty members have to “moonlight excessively to support themselves” and “dedicate all their intellect and talent to the pursuit of non-salary income” (p. 9) (Hoang, cited in Vallely & Wilkinson, 2008). Consequently, this insufficiency of income drains away time and energy that could be dedicated to further faculty development engagement (Phuong & McLean, 2016).

Consequently, many faculty members are unable to make time for self-directed learning activities – such as autonomous learning and peer learning (Hiep, 2006) – because of their heavy workloads and extra off-campus jobs. Many faculty members recognize this low level of commitment to scholarship and professional development, calling themselves “teaching workers” (Phuong & McLean, 2016) or “teaching machines” (Hiep, 2006), However, the real challenges to quality FD do not come from a low level of commitment, but rather from insufficient salaries; this is an error in the system that has no solution in the existing social and governmental structure.

Vietnamese universities are not likely to be actively engaged in their faculty’s FD (World Bank, 2008). FD is considered to be an individual activity and dependent upon organizational development (Phuong & McLean, 2016). Very few universities provide campus-wide FD activities to support faculty in their teaching instruction and research capabilities (Nguyen, n.d.; World Bank, 2008). Similarly, departments have played only a minor role in developing individual faculty, but they have the primary role

in managing faculty members' work (Hiep, 2006). Limited support from organizations also challenges the effectiveness of individual FD plans and their alignment with organizational development.

Another challenge is that many Vietnamese faculty members are not equipped with core competencies sufficient to ensure the effectiveness of their self-directed learning. These competencies include learning-to-learn, English language proficiency, and internet usage (Peeraer & van Petegem, 2012). This is a major obstacle for faculty hoping to access professional resources and participate in FD activities conducted in English in order “to continue acquiring new skills, develop new mindsets and practices and expand their knowledge bases throughout their career” (Kay Harman, cited in Sheridan, 2010). The longer they remain unable to master fundamental competencies, the more significant the performance gap between the Vietnamese faculty member and their peers in other countries.

An additional challenge to Vietnamese FD is comprised of unfavorable delivery mechanisms and cumbersome administrative structures. Beyond the insufficiency of the average salary, unattractive incentives and lack of recognition, the prevalence of seniority-based promotions, and inadequate infrastructure all demotivate faculty from striving further in their careers (Vallely & Wilkinson, 2008). Faculty members face major obstacles to conducting research, especially when universities cannot create constructive environments that support research, such as research institutes that are kept separate from the rest of the university system (World Bank, 2008; Tong, 2013). Moreover, faculty often reference school administration as a key de-motivating factor

impeding their career improvement (Phuong & McLean, 2016). Specifically, they suffer from a stagnant and conservative administrative system, which leads to dissatisfaction and the destruction of creativity. Such an environment not only negatively affects the motivation of existing faculty, but also causes a “brain drain” of the best faculty to foreign institutions (Phuong & McLean, 2016; Vallely & Wilkinson, 2008).

The final challenge facing FD is educational leaders who are unprepared to lead and manage their various roles in Vietnamese higher education reform. While the poorly-developed Vietnamese higher education system is in urgent need of “exceptional leaders with not only first-class educational backgrounds but also excellent managerial skills” (Nguyen, 2012, p. 313), academic leaders are underprepared due to a shortage of high-quality leadership training programs. Without adequate preparation, it is very difficult to implement significant changes in educational policies affecting organizational human resource development in general, and individual FD in particular.

In sum, the challenges facing FD in Vietnam far outweigh the positive attributes. A majority of these challenges result from the many complex and difficult problems with the structure and management of the higher education system. Although these external demotivators have presented significant obstacles, intrinsic motivators keep them in their present careers; but this comes at a price. In order to improve both the quality and quantity of FD activities, important interventions should be made based on the efforts of individual faculty members, universities, and the macro-policies of the government.

Summary and Gaps in the Literature

The major summary of this literature review were derived from an examination of three categories of resources: (1) a systematic literature review on FD (from 1990 to 2015), (2) a systematic literature review on FD in Southeast Asia (from 2003 to 2014), and (3) extensive documents and empirical research on FD in Vietnam. While the focus of FD in both regions is on teaching and pedagogical improvement, FD was more often addressed by health and medical researchers in North America and teacher educators on English language teaching and technology application researchers in Southeast Asia. FD in Vietnam shared many of the characteristics of FD in other Southeast Asian countries.

Second, findings from two reviews revealed certain general commonalities and differences in FD types in Southeast Asia. Both pieces reported that short-term FD activities, formal short-term training programs in North America, and self-directed single events in Southeast Asia were all popular types of FD. However, while North American self-directed learning programs tended to be more collaborative, addressing issues such as the community of practices, collaborative reflection, and collaborative research, FD in Southeast Asia tended to be more individual. Furthermore, formal training activities such as workshops, seminars, and formal mentoring programs were reported in North America at a higher level of frequency than in Southeast Asia. Thus, FD has become a personal effort in Southeast Asia, rather than a collaborative or organizational intervention. FD in Vietnam shared characteristics with FD in Southeast Asia.

The third finding was related to the methods used by empirical studies evaluating FD activities. Not all of the researchers reported how their data were collected, indicating that evaluation has not been a critical element of FD intervention. A majority of the studies relied on participants' self-assessments via questionnaires and interviews related to their satisfaction, improvement in their knowledge and skills, and any changes in their behavior. Thus, some researchers raised issues of validity and reliability with regards to the tools used to evaluate FD outcomes.

Fourth, although not all studies reported on the outcomes of FD activities, the literature review indicated that Kirkpatrick's training evaluation taxonomy (1998) was more popular than any other evaluation models or frameworks. Both studies pointed out those FD interventions most affected faculty members' improvement in knowledge and skills (level 2). Following was changes in behavior (level 3) among North American faculty, and satisfaction (level 1) among teachers in Southeast Asia. FD's impact on student learning and organizational changes (level 4) in both regions were reported with the least frequency. In short, the literature review indicated that FD most influenced faculty members' learning and behavioral changes, primarily in teaching, but how these changes benefited others was not thoroughly investigated in research studies. In Vietnam, the FD outcomes were primarily one of two extremes. The high impact of foreign programs, especially advanced degree programs, was reported with regards to faculty teaching, research, and career development; while there were limited outcomes from domestic programs on faculty teaching.

However, the findings here may not necessarily reflect the real situation for the following reasons. First, I only reviewed studies published in English in peer reviewed journals during a certain time window. The findings did not reflect the FD practices discussed in whiter papers, conference proceedings, dissertations, and reports, either in English or in other languages. Second, regarding to the review study on the international FD, I only conducted a review of review studies, rather than empirical studies. Finally, the two systematic literature reviews examined here focused only on synthesizing information in order to answer key research questions; these questions focused on FD activities, evaluation methods, and FD outcomes, rather than single studies.

The above comprehensive review of the literature indicated several research gaps. First, FD studies conducted in North American universities dominated the literature; much less has been learned about FD in the Vietnamese context where FD practices have been conducted in a governmentally-centralized higher education system in a developing country. Second, while, many of the studies assess the FD outcomes, little empirical effort has been made to investigate the comprehensive impact of different types of FD activities on the diverse aspects of faculty members' professional changes, student learning, and organizational development. Finally, none of the studies conducted in Vietnam attempted to build a model or theory grounded in data by integrating the factors of local contexts and typical FD processes. This method could enable a researcher to capture the relationships among FD categories into a model that is both process and context-based.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter begins with an explanation of constructivist paradigm and the reason why this paradigm best fits this study. Following is a brief description of grounded theory methodology. The method section includes procedures for sampling, data collection, data analysis, and ensuring study quality. The chapter ends with a section describing the researcher's positionality.

Constructivist Paradigm

The purpose of this study is to explore the perceptions and experiences of Vietnamese Senior faculty regarding the FD activities in which they have participated. For that aim, in this study, I chose the constructivist paradigm, which is congruent with my beliefs about the nature of FD in Vietnam. As a researcher, I believed that faculty members construct individual realities about their FD when interacting with different people and with various contexts. Therefore, the constructivist paradigm provides foundational beliefs that are helpful in understanding the complexity and multidimensionality of FD experiences as a human phenomenon.

This study also reflected my ontological and epistemological beliefs in working within the constructivist paradigm. Ontologically, I believed in multiple realities that are constructed by individual experiences and happen in their specific context (Charmaz, 2006; Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba, 2011). Thus, realities in constructivism are “socially and experiential based” and unique to an individual person or group (Guba & Lincoln,

1994, p.110). Epistemologically, I understood that research findings or knowledge acquisition are created from the interactions between me, as the researcher, and participants in the research process (Creswell, 2012; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). As the human instrument in the research process, I explored, expanded, and processed the multiple realities presented by the participants (see Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Patton, 1990). In addition, as part of co-constructing realities with participants, I utilized grounded theory, a qualitative methodology, along with interview methods to collect and analyze the data to propose a framework of professional development for Vietnamese faculty members.

Methodology: Grounded Theory

Grounded theory methodology widely used across social science disciplines, (Lawrence & Tar, 2013), can be defined as a qualitative research methodology that aims to construct theory from a systematic data collection and analysis process (Corbin & Strauss, 2014). Grounded theory methodology uses “a systematized set of procedures” to develop a theory grounded on data (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, p. 24). These procedures consist of simultaneously collecting and analyzing data while constantly comparing and contrasting codes and data (Corbin & Strauss, 2014). By using the constant comparative method, researchers are able to generate concepts from data and conceptualize an emergent pattern, which contributes to the theory development (Glaser, 2011). At the same time, memoing is used to record the researchers’ reflections at every stage of the process and assists them with the constant comparative analysis (Corbin & Strauss, 2014; Hussein, et al. 2014). Grounded theory methodology provides rigorous and direct

guidelines that support trustworthiness in developing theory grounded in data (Charmaz, 2006).

In this study, I decided to use the grounded theory approach proposed by Corbin and Strauss (2014) for the following reasons. First, as the purpose of this study was to explore FD experiences of Vietnamese university faculty members, grounded theory provide a tool to conceptualize FD process together with the contextual complexity of the specific setting. By bringing process and context into the data analysis, it was more likely for me to capture the linkages of FD - related categories that potentially form different patterns of FD in Vietnam. Second, grounded theory most contributes when the phenomenon in a certain context has been under-investigated (Lawrence & Tar, 2013) and FD in Vietnam is such a phenomenon. A theory developed using data from interviews with Vietnamese faculty members laid a foundation for further studies using quantitative measures and practical recommendations for FD improvement in Vietnam. Finally, grounded theory provides “explicit guidelines” (Charmaz, 2006, p. 3) or a “useful template” (Hughes & Howcroft, 2000) that has been strongly suggested for novice qualitative researchers (Charmaz, 2006; Hughes & Howcroft, 2000; Hussein et al., 2014), such is the case in the present study.

The term “theory” in the terminology “grounded theory” can be presented in the format of a hypothesis, narrative, or story (Hussein, et al. 2014). However, regardless of its forms, a “grounded theory” must identify a core category, which is the essence of the phenomenon being study, which then enables all the other categories and concepts to be integrated around it. The resulting theory thus forms an explanation of why and how

things happen in a specific social context (Corbin & Strauss, 2014; Hussein et al., 2014). Corbin and Strauss (2014) acknowledge that if researchers conduct the grounded theory rigorously, following the whole process to the last step of category integration, a grounded theory can be developed.

Methods

In this part, I presented procedure for sampling, data collection, data analysis, and techniques to ensure the study quality.

Population and Sampling

In this study, Senior Faculty members were chosen as the targeted sample. Under the Circulation No. 36/2014/ TTLT-BGDDT-BNV (MOET, 2014) issued by the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) and Ministry of Internal Affairs of Vietnam, faculty ranking consists of three levels: Faculty, Senior Faculty, and Distinguished Faculty. Senior Faculty must meet the requirements classified into three key criteria, as followed:

1. Responsibilities: teach undergraduates and graduates; supervise graduation thesis and field reports; participate in tasks relating to research studies, curriculum design, and education quality assurance; write textbooks and present research studies at conferences and workshops; participate in professional development; mentor junior faculty; and participate in administrative work.

2. Education and training: hold Master's' degree or higher and a certificate in pedagogy for higher education faculty; master a foreign language or information technology, as required.

3. Professional competencies: solid knowledge about the courses assigned to teach and related courses in the program; good understanding of curriculum, syllabus, and practical expectations with the courses assigned to teach; conduct at least one research study, write at least one text book, or have at least three conference presentations; hold faculty appointment for at least nine years.

Meeting all the above requirements, participating Senior Faculty members in this study provided rich data for the following reasons. First, in order to meet the above requirements, Senior Faculty experienced a breadth and variety of FD activities which assisted in identifying FD processes. Also, about the length of years of FD experiences Senior Faculty had within Vietnamese universities was helpful in understanding contextual influences on their FD processes. Finally, participants were able to reflect on their own FD decisions and changes in outcomes of their FD upon their professional performance across career stages

Recruitment Process

I used both criteria-based sampling and theoretical sampling to recruit participants for this study. I used different recruitment methods to access several potential participant pools, aiming to recruit faculty members with diverse backgrounds. Vietnamese was the language of communication in the recruitment and data collection in this study. I sent the recruitment letter to potential participants via personal or professional emails. Anyone who replied with willingness to participate was screened further to make sure that they were eligible for this study. Table 5 briefly described the recruitment process. In the table, in each step of the process, I listed sources of potential

participants, methods of recruitment, number of people I accessed, number of replies from potential participants, number of participants recruited, and the follow-up actions I took after each step.

Table 5 Recruitment Process

Steps	Sources	Methods of recruitment	No. of people accessed	No. of replies	No. of recruited	Follow up actions
Pilot interview	personal contacts	emails	2	2	2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - asked for comments from interviewees - reflected on interview protocol and interview skills - revised documents used in the data collection process
Interviews with criteria-based sampling	personal contacts	emails and phones	5	4	3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - transcribed the recorded interviews - used transcripts in the data analysis process and theoretical criteria-based sampling recruitment - reflected on interview protocol and interview skills

Noticeably, I had believed that my educational background and experience as a faculty member for almost 20 years in a Vietnamese public university, it would not be difficult for me to recruit faculty members for this study from alumni communities, professional circles, and online professional networks of which I was also part. In fact, I had to struggle, which was out of my expectation, when trying to recruit Senior Faculty members with diverse profiles for the following reasons.

First, I used emails as the main means of communication with potential participants, which was not considered effective way to initiate new contact, compared to phone, in the context of Vietnam. Second, participation in a research, especially voluntary, has not been a norm among faculty members in Vietnam academic environment. Third, compliance with research process and documents approved by IRB at Texas A&M University might cause troublesome for many Vietnamese faculty members who wanted to participate this in study but were not familiar with this process. Fourth, my personal and professional networks are limited to faculty members in high ranking universities in big cities who have some experiences with overseas education and training; they account for a small portion of the faculty population in Vietnam. Thus, it was a challenge for me when I wanted to include participants with diverse profiles in terms of their education background, professional development experiences, discipline, university ranking and location, and gender.

For the above reasons, although I could access to thousands of faculty members registered in professional networks in social media, from which I could recruit only four out of 14 participants for my study. The other ten participants, I recruited from my

personal and professional networking and snowball method. Later, in their interviews, they all acknowledged that they were either interested in the topic or just wanted to help me to collect data due to their similar struggle in their research studies.

Criteria-based sampling. Criteria-based sampling in grounded theory was the initial step to reach to a theoretical sampling, which is one of the characterizations of grounded theory (Sbaraini & Carter, 2011). However, as Corbin & Strauss (2014) did not provide a guideline for criteria-based sampling, I used criteria-based sampling for the two pilot interviews. I decided to conduct two pilot interviews because I wanted to get in to the data and to see whether the proposed interview protocol and the data collected could actually investigate the phenomenon of FD. With the pilot interviews, I focused on sorting out problems with wording of questions, initial data analysis, bias deduction, and matching between my research questions and available data before deciding participants for theoretical sampling. Pilot interviews also helped me to practice and improve my interviewing skills. For those reason, I did not code or use the pilot interviews in the data analysis process.

I used the same recruitment process for both criteria-based and theoretical sampling. Specifically, the criteria for selecting Senior Faculty members to participate for this study included: (a) having been promoted by the MOET to Senior Faculty status or having at least nine years of teaching in a public university in Vietnam, (b) holding a full-time appointment, and (c) spending no less than 25% of their weekly schedule teaching, and no more than 25% of their schedule with administration work (*Faculty Job Regulation, 2013*).

Theoretical sampling. According to Corbin and Strauss (2014), theoretical sampling is a data collection method particular to grounded theory. Following this method, “the basis for sampling is concepts not persons” (p.135), thus I allowed the concepts and categories derived from the data analysis to guide the data collection process. Specifically, during the data collection and analysis process, I allowed my preliminary findings to dictate which interviews or other data to collect next in order to maximize the potential for discovering further properties and dimensions of the emerging concepts (Corbin & Strauss, 2014). As part of the process, I also determined when the categories have become saturated through analysis and description of their properties and dimensions.

Sample size. In grounded theory, categorical saturation is the most important principle shared by researchers in deciding sample size (Lincoln and Guba, 1995; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). According to Strauss and Corbin (1998), data saturation occurs when “(a) no new or relevant data seem to emerge regarding categories; (b) the category is well developed in terms of its properties and dimensions demonstrating variation, and (c) the relationship among categories are well established and validated” (p. 212). As such, most grounded theorists agree that sample size cannot be predetermined.

However, some grounded theory methodologist researchers have suggested general guidelines for sample sizes. Charmaz (2006) has suggested that “25 [participants are] adequate for smaller projects” (p.144) and Starks & Trinidad (2007) stated that “typical grounded theory studies report sample sizes ranging from 10 to 60 persons” (p. 5). Of these studies, over a third (34%) used samples between 20 and 30 (also suggested

by Creswell, 2013), while 11 studies (or 22%) used samples in over 30 (as suggested by Morse, 1994). In this study, I proposed an estimated range of 10 to 30 participants for interviews, and I conducted 14 interviews with eligible participants.

Data Collection

In the grounded theory method, as the data collection and data analysis are not separated processes but an ongoing process (Charmaz, 2012; Corbin & Strauss, 2014), I conducted data analysis simultaneously with the data collection. This can be described as an interactive cycle in which further data collection and analysis are derived from the previous data collection and comparison between results and new findings (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Thus, in the process of code and category development and identification, code and categories were initiated by the participants. I further developed and conceptualized these ongoing emerged categories throughout the data collection and analysis process until data reached to the point of saturation or until no new or relevant data emerges (Corbin & Strauss, 2014).

Interviews. In this study, I used semi-structured interviews to develop a theory grounded in participants' perspectives. In a grounded theory, the interviews play the central role and is one of the most popular methods of data collection (Creswell, 2013; Corbin and Strauss, 2014). Compared to unstructured and structured interviews, semi-structured interviews questions provide a tool “to maintain some consistency over the concepts that are covered in each interview” (Corbin & Strauss, 2014, p. 39), while “to develop deeply into social context and personal development” (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006, p. 2). To facilitate the interview process, I developed three interview

related documents in English: interview protocol, interview probes, and participant's sheet.

Interview protocol. Semi-structured interview questions “must be sufficiently general to cover a wide range of experiences as well as narrow enough to elicit and explore the participants' specific experience” (Charmaz, 2001, p. 9). I developed an interview protocol with questions focusing on exploring faculty's perceptions of their FD and their experiences. Interview questions were grouped under sequential three parts: *initial open-ended questions, intermediate questions, and ending questions* (Charmaz, 2014) (Appendix D). I intentionally created verbal overlaps among the three parts when asking the questions, aiming “to go back to an earlier thread to gain more information to winnow unnecessary or potentially uncomfortable questions” (Charmaz, 2001, p. 12). However, consistent with grounded theory methodology, as my study progressed, I revised and adjusted these interview questions depending on my ongoing analysis of concepts arising from the data (Corbin & Strauss, 2014). The interview protocol was first written in English and then translated into Vietnamese; Vietnamese language, the researcher's and interviewees' mother tongue, was used as the language of communication in this study.

Interview probes. I also generated and used a list of probes together with the interview questions. The probes allowed me to gain more detail or elaboration about specific events. Examples of prompts are: *Tell me more....; Can you give me an example? Can you please clarify your meaning? You mentioned...tell me what that was like for you. You mentioned...describe that in more detail.*

Participant profile. I utilized a participant sheet to track the data collection process I did with an individual participant. The participant sheet contains individual participant profile, record of communication between me and each participant, interview notes, and follow up activities (Appendix E).

Interview protocol translation. The interview protocol was translated from English into Vietnamese. The translation work was done by certified translators between Vietnamese and English, who were also faculty members at Vietnamese universities. I adopted the back-translation procedure proposed Lee, Li, Arai, & Puntillo (2009):

(1) first translator translated the original English interview protocol into Vietnamese (English Version 1 to Vietnamese Version 1);

(2) second translator back translated Vietnamese Version 1 to English Version 2, without having prior knowledge of the original interview protocol;

(3) the English Version 2 back translation was compared with the original interview protocol by both translators in order to identify discrepancies. The Vietnamese Version 1 was then revised to produce Vietnamese Version 2 of the interview protocol;

(4) two bilingual Vietnamese translators reviewed the Vietnamese Version 2 and independently provided feedbacks on the Vietnamese Version 2;

(5) the third translator then back translated the Vietnamese Version 2 into English Version 3;

(6) the first and second translators compared the English Version 3 with the original document and discussed the discrepancies or ambiguous questions identified by the two bilingual Vietnamese translators. The Vietnamese Version 3 was produced at this stage.

(7) If all discrepancies or ambiguous questions were solved by translators, Vietnamese Version 3 was the final version used for pilot interview.

The consensus for validating the interview protocol was based primarily on conceptual equivalence, similar meaning between English and Vietnamese in terms of semantic meaning, formulation of questions, and concepts (Quittner et al, 2000).

Interview process. I conducted all 16 interviews, in which two pilot interviews and another three with participants of criteria-based sampling, followed by 11 interviews with the participants using theoretical sampling. I proposed a waiver for consent form from IRB for the Skype interviews regarding to difficulty obtaining participants' signed consent forms when I conducted this research away from Vietnam. Followed was the interview process I applied to all interviews.

Pre-interview. I sent the Information Sheet (Appendix A) and Recruitment Letter (see Appendix B) to the potential participants as attached files via email before the interviews. Once potential participants replied and agreed with the content in the above documents, interviews were scheduled.

Interviews with participants of criteria-based sampling. First, I conducted pilot interviews with two participants in Vietnamese via Skype or phone lasting between 60 and 90 minutes. All these interviews were recorded with participants' permission. I took field notes throughout each pilot interview. I did not analyze the data collected from pilot interviews for the study, but for the purpose of improving interview questions and my interview skills. I repeated the interview process with other three participants of criteria-based sampling whose interviews were used in the data analysis.

Interviews with participants of theoretical sampling. As part of the IRB submission, I included a wide range of possible interview questions exploring FD experience. I repeated the interview process that I did with participants of criteria-based sampling to conduct interviews with participants of the theoretical sampling.

Member check of transcriptions. I assigned each interview audio recording a code and then transcribed it as soon as each interview was completed, which is as part of the process of “passing from the original oral form into written forms” (Polkinghorne, 2005, p. 142). Then, I sent each transcript to an individual participant via email for the purpose of member checks and requested them to return their edited transcription (if they made some changes) within one week of receipt. Changes or edits to the transcripts were discussed between me as the researcher and participants via emails or SKYPE. If no reply about participants’ transcripts within one week, I assumed there were no changes or additional information to be included in the transcripts. Then, I used the information as it was in the transcripts for the data analysis.

Member Check of Initial Themes. I also conducted member checking with each participant. After transcribing, I analyzed each transcript and developed tentative themes and story line that were sent to each participant via email with an invitation to participate in a short follow up interview. I planned to conduct follow up interviews with all 14 participants, but in reality, I could make only eight interviews. In each follow-up interview, the participant had an opportunity to provide feedback on the themes, elaborate their ideas relating to the themes, and share more about their FD experiences. Each interview lasted between 10 and 15 minutes and I took notes during the interview. I

included information collected from the member checking in the data analysis (Appendix F).

Data Analysis

I collected demographic information as part of participants' profiles, which was an important for the data analysis. The collected demographic information includes age, gender, highest academic degree, years of teaching experience, professional roles and responsibilities, and types and location of universities participants taught at the time of interviews.

I applied five-stage data analysis guided by Corbin and Strauss (2014), including (1) open coding; (2) developing concepts in terms of their properties and dimensions; (3) analyzing data for context; (4) bringing process into the analysis; and (5) integrating categories. Noticeably, to assist the data analysis, I constantly used the techniques of peer debriefing, diagraming, memoing, theoretical sensitivity, and reflective self-awareness. I would explain these techniques in detail in the following sections.

Phase 1: Open coding. Codes are identified by using the open code procedure of “breaking data apart and delaminating concepts to stand for interpreted meaning of raw data” (Corbin and Strauss, 2014, p. 239). In this process, concepts are “closely examined, compared for similarities and differences, and questions are asked about the phenomena reflected in the data” (LaRossa, 2005, p. 841). In the procedure of code identification proposed by Corbin and Strauss (2014), I used two levels of coding techniques: initial coding and focused coding. I used ATLAS.ti, software supporting the qualitative research for the open coding stage.

Initial coding. In this study, I used initial coding technique to code the transcripts of criteria-based sampling and theoretical sampling. I read every transcript three times at different time and taking notes on the margin. While reading these transcripts, I focused more on the professional development patterns and relationship between significant events in their career path, rather than on the details of their experience. Then I uploaded transcripts to the ATLAS.ti for further analysis. I decided to use thought unit by thought unit coding technique. I focused on coding for actions and meanings of these actions and labelled codes in gerunds (Charmez, 2012) (Appendix H). I tried to keep interacting with data by asking questions, an important technique to explore the meanings underneath of the data by writing memo (Appendix I)

Focused coding. Based on the initial codes derived from the first three criteria-based sampling, which were recorded in the ATLAS.ti, I used focused coding technique with which I started identifying and developing concepts with their properties. Through focused coding, I had to move across interviews and compare participants' experiences, actions, and perceptions. At the end of this stage, I could develop an initial list of concepts that provided guidance for theoretical sampling data collection (Appendix J).

At the same time, I kept writing memos along with the coding process to record reflections of my analysis. I wrote a memo for each piece of raw data on ATLAS.ti. I used memos as part of the constant comparative method while coding. I continually compared data between units of thought in an interview and between interviews throughout the analysis process and asking comparative questions (Charmez, 2006; Glasser & Strauss, 1967). In addition, memos assisted the analytical process in

developing concepts and in guiding my decisions on which data I needed to further collect as part of the theoretical sampling process.

Phase 2: Developing concepts/ categories in terms of their properties/ super codes. I repeated the coding process used in the Phase 1 with the remaining interviews. Remaining interview transcripts were compared with previous coding completed at the conceptual level. I coded the data with the same conceptual names if the data in the new interviews were similar to that in the first three interviews. I developed each concept with properties that explained the concepts (Appendix G & J). I kept memos about the new emergent concepts.

Phase 3: Bring context to analysis. In Phase 3, axial coding or coding around a concept was conducted. Once concepts or categories were developed, I explored how concepts were located and integrated within a larger context, given a variety of conditions and anticipated consequences. I then analyzed how conditions function as precursors to the concepts. Specifically, I determined explanations or reasons (conditions) that persons feel, think, and react (action-interaction) in response to the situations or events (in this case, FD) that occurred in their lives. In this phase, I also examined the linkage between the concepts I developed and the context of larger social, political, and historical conditions which were unique to that concept (Appendix K).

Phase 4: Bringing process to analysis. This phase aims to identify the “action-interactive strategies” taken to adapt to changes in conditions. I focused on the strategies described by individual faculty members while they shared their own professional development experiences. By continuously comparing and contrasting

various cases for similarities and differences, I was able to add additional super codes to the existing concepts. Also, I identified the components of the process that appeared to transcend all participants as well as components that were unique to certain subgroups. Memoing in this phase focused on describing the process of action-integration changes under different conditions and contexts and how strategies connected to outcomes or consequences. (Appendix L)

Phase 5: Integrating categories. According to Strauss and Corbin (2014), category integration, the most important but the most difficult step, is the final step in the process of grounded theory construction. Phase 5 includes the following steps. First, I reviewed all memos and diagrams that I made during the research process and reflected on the main ideas in these memos. Then, I sorted out the memos by similar concepts to decide a core category, determine the major categories, and verify their development and saturation in terms of their properties. I determined that data collected and analyzed from the interview 13 were saturated because categories were well differentiated as well as clearly defined in terms of their properties and dimension ranges. Nevertheless, I decided to conduct the last interview with theoretical sampling, the 14th, to make sure that there were not any important emerging codes. Also, at the same time, I carefully review categories to see if any of them did not meet these requirements, I filled in these underdeveloped categories by either looking for at the previously collected data and memos.

Second, after having determined a core category, the major categories, and a tentative integration of these categories, I developed a story that fitted the data. At this

point, debriefing with my professors and peers was critical as they assisted in creating a logical and coherent story by asking me questions, challenging my ideas and findings, and pushing me to analyze further (Appendixes N and P). At the end of this stage, I wrote a summary memo in which the main descriptive story covering the main skeleton of my ideas was developed from the data. I also drew a diagram to illustrate how the categories were coming together. Then, I kept reworking this diagram until the core category and major categories fit together logically in a tentative conceptual framework.

Fourth, when once a tentative framework was developed, I refined it through three sub-steps. I sent the tentative framework to my professor and a peer for peer feedback. Their feedback helped me to revise the tentative framework until no major gaps found. Then, I used memos, which had been sorted and arranged under categories, to fill in the tentative framework with details. These details brought in variation by describing the various situations in different contexts and strategies used by faculty members. Finally, I validated the tentative framework to ensure that it was grounded from the data by discussing the major findings and the framework with participants via SKYPE (Appendix M).

Corbin & Strauss (2014) remind researchers about research sensitivity, which is contrast to objectivity, in doing qualitative research. Sensitivity means “the ability to carefully listen and respect both participants and the data they provide” (p. 77) which requires researchers to take the role of participants, recognize the meaning of participants’ words and behaviors, and to interpret correctly what the participants convey. I used my professional knowledge and analytical experience over the course of

this research to enhance my sensitivity in investigating the data and discern connections between concepts and categories. I expanded this point in the positionality section.

In sum, the grounded theory process described by Corbin and Strauss (2014) was used in five steps, starting with identifying codes, developing codes with dimensionalities and properties, bringing context and process into the analysis, and ending with category integration and theory construction. Throughout the theory construction, the constant comparative method and memo writing acted as fundamental processes to assist me identify categorizing and defining the conditions. Through integration of categories assisted by memos, I was then able to generate a theory grounded in data (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007). Chart 2 demonstrates the data collection and data analysis in the grounded theory method which is adapted from Corbin and Strauss (2014) and Pryor (2009).

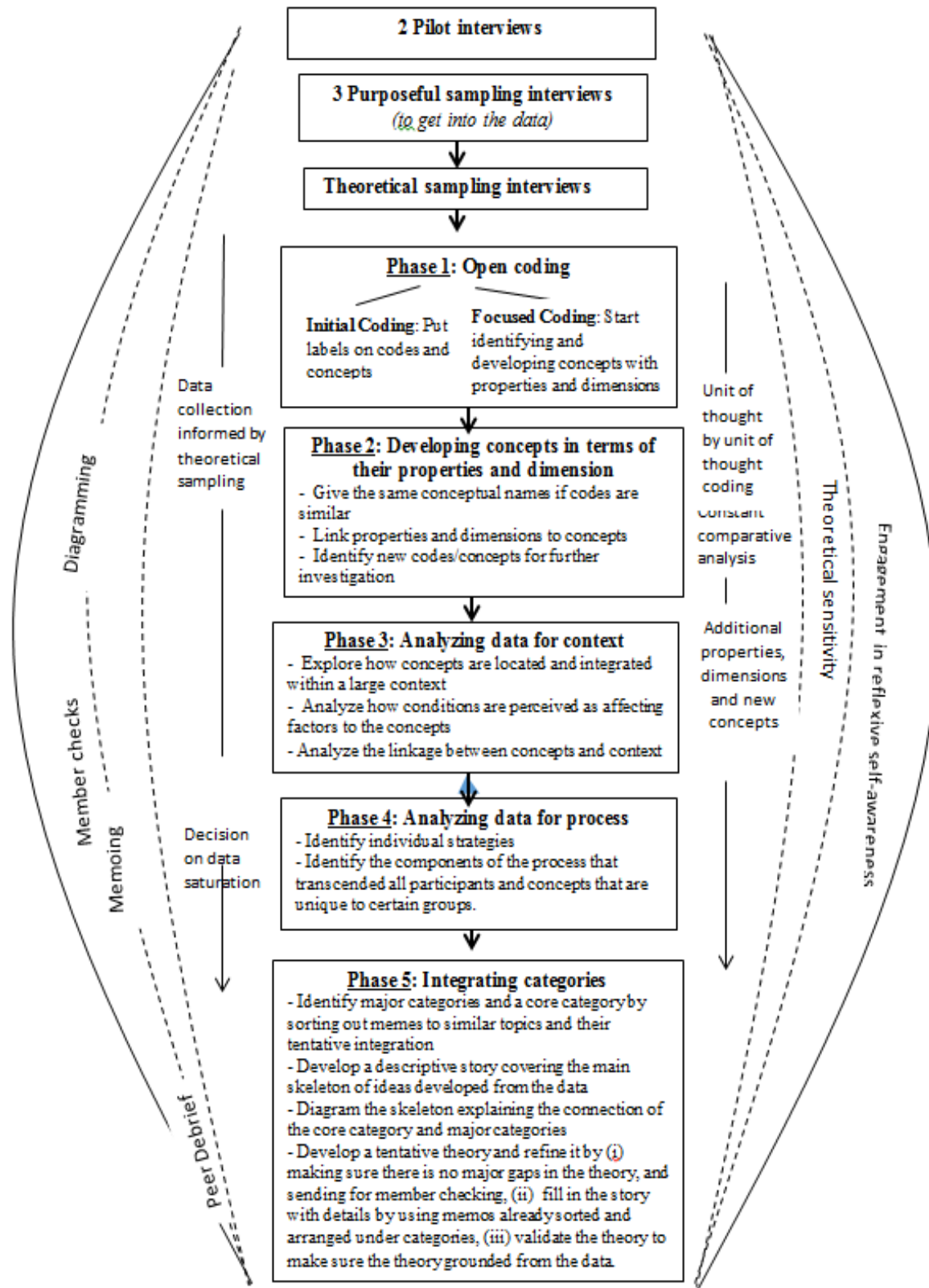


Figure 2. Data Collection and Data Analysis Process in the Grounded Theory Method - adapted from Corbin and Strauss (2014) and Pryor (2009)

Ensuring Quality

Qualitative researchers have proposed various techniques that deal with issues of trustworthiness of studies, which cannot be addressed in the same way as is in quantitative studies (Lincoln and Guba, 1995; Shenton, 2004). The trustworthiness criteria involve addressing credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability (Lincoln and Guba 1985; Shenton, 2014).

Credibility. Lincoln and Guba (1985) argue that ensuring credibility is one of the most important factors in establishing trustworthiness of the findings. I used three strategies to address credibility in this study.

Triangulation. I collected data from individual interviews, follow up interviews, and field notes, together with memos and documents during the data analysis. I used follow-up interviews to check validity of categories extracted from transcripts and field notes to keep credibility of the data. I also used memoing to record my impression and construction development during the entire research process (Corbin & Strauss, 2014; Guba & Lincoln, 1989). Furthermore, I applied the site triangulation by trying to recruit participants from different universities located nationwide.

Member checking. According to Guba and Lincoln (1989), member checking is an important method to strengthen the credibility. The purpose of member checking is to make sure that the words in transcripts match accurately with what participants intend to express (Shenton, 2004). I sent individual participants their interview transcripts and core categories so that they had opportunities to make edits, comments, and clarifications. This technique added the value to credibility of the study.

Frequent debriefing with advisors and peers. I frequently debriefed with my chair, committee members, and colleagues in Vietnam as I believed that their expertise assisted in increasing the quality of the analysis. Our discussion provided feedback and different perspectives that enabled insights into my findings, strengthened arguments, considered alternatives, and challenged assumptions relating to the topic.

Background, qualification, and experience of the researcher. My credibility as the researcher and primary human instrument in the data collection, data analysis, and finding presentation is vital contributing to the credibility of the study (Patton, 1990). Thus, my background, qualification, and experiences described in detail in the section of positionality added value to study credibility.

Transferability. According to Merriam (2009), transferability refers to the applicability of findings of one study to other settings. To strengthen the transferability of the study, Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggest researchers provide sufficient contextual information. As described above, Phase 3 in the data analysis process, I brought the context of higher education in Vietnam to the analysis as an integral part of the data analysis and theory formation (Corbin & Strauss, 2014). In addition, diversity in participants' profiles in different settings contributed to comparison between faculty development experiences among faculty members nationwide (Sherbton, 2004).

Conformability. Conformability refers to the degree of objectivity of the study's findings that are the results of the experiences and ideas of the participants, rather than the subjectivity of the researcher (Patton, 1990). I used several methodological techniques to ensure conformability, including a well-established

research design for grounded theory, a statement of positionality, ongoing memoing, member checks of transcripts, and continuous debriefing with advisors and peers.

Positionality

Positionality is “determined by where one stands in relation to ‘the other’” (Merriam et al., 2001, p. 411). Conducting quality research studies, the researchers act as the research instrument (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Merriam, 2009; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Therefore, how researchers view their positionality in relation to the researched groups both affects how they conduct the research process and how they interpret results.

With respect to the research process in this study, I view myself as having “multiple overlapping identities” (Kezar, 2002, p. 6). My first identity is as a Senior Faculty member and as mid-level administrator at a university in Vietnam. My own struggles as a developing faculty member and knowledge of similar stories shared by my faculty colleagues led to my interest in developing an in-depth understanding of how individuals learn to become faculty members within the Vietnamese higher education system. My second identity is a doctoral student at Texas A&M University who has the privilege to be educated in an advanced academic environment. This experience has inspired me to work towards benefiting Vietnamese faculty by investigating and considering the adaptation of several programs in the U.S universities to Vietnam higher education. This transformation from a *me-perspective* to an *us-perspective* gave me a sense of a new identity - as a faculty developer, an emerging career title in Vietnam-

who acts as an agent of change for professional development practice at both individual and organizational levels.

The above intertwined identities that have emerged through my professional development journey have also helped me to study faculty development issues as both an insider and outsider. As a faculty member in Vietnam, I tended to base my FD practice and significant decisions on my intuition; while being a researcher in a U.S. university, I strongly believed in the critical role of theories, especially adult learning theories, in shaping FD practices. By bringing FD from my background to the foreground of my attention in different academic contexts, I realized the FD experience of each individual is unique, but that learning was an integral element in becoming a successful faculty. Thus, my role while conducting this study was to co-construct knowledge about FD with my colleagues in Vietnam, while simultaneously developing a feasible FD model that is appropriate for Vietnamese universities.

I understood that as the primary research instrument in this qualitative study, my own subjectivity influenced how I explained participants' experiences, analyzed their meaning making of their experiences, and reported the findings. The following were several of my assumptions I hold at the initiation of this study and how I reflected on them in order to bracket them. First, I believed that Vietnamese universities do not offer a sufficiently supportive academic environment for faculty members. Second, I perceived a significant gap in the quality of FD programs offered by Vietnamese universities and those receiving support from overseas institutions. Finally, I strongly believed in the applicability and practicability of several university-wide FD

interventions I have observed in use at U.S. universities to the context of Vietnam higher education system. While attempting to acknowledge and minimize my own preconceptions, I strived to approach the research field with an open mind, but not a blank head.

As I was aware and mindful of the influence of my positionality that had on the qualitative research process, I applied several techniques to enhance my objectivity. The first technique was to continuously reflect on my assumptions during the research process. Reflection with my professors and colleagues assisted me in being cautious with my subjectivities. Another technique I used was peer debriefing with my committee members and former colleagues. These debriefers provided different perspectives and challenged my perceptions on the meaning of data, conceptualization of concepts, and construction of theory in this grounded theory study (Barber & Walzak, 2009). Keeping reflexive journals and memos was an important technique to both record my analytical process and to resolve different opinions about my findings (Barber & Walszak, 2009, p. 5). Each of these techniques tempered subjectivity in the research process and assist in increasing credibility.

Summary

Chapter 3 elaborated how this study was conducted. It started with a brief description how I viewed myself as the researcher and the constructivist paradigm which I used for this study. A detail description of research design for this study was guided from Corbin and Strauss' (2014). The chapter ends with the positionality statement explaining my self-awareness as the researcher.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

Overview

The previous chapter described the methodology applied in this study, including the research design, sampling strategy, data collection and data analysis methods. Chapter IV presents major findings related to the research questions. The chapter begins with the methodology summary, followed by a description of the study participants, and overall presentation of the concepts and super codes that emerged from the data analysis. The most important part of the chapter was the analysis of these concepts in detail supported with participants' direct quotes. The chapter concludes with a summary of the major findings.

Methodology Summary

The purpose of this dissertation was to explore the professional experiences of Vietnamese Senior Faculty working in the Vietnam higher education system. The study adopted the grounded theory methodology guided by Corbin and Strauss (2014). Through the theoretical sampling methods using inclusion and exclusion criteria, 14 Vietnamese Senior Faculty working in public universities in Vietnam were identified and interviewed for this study. Participants shared their experiences since being novice faculty members, ongoing development, and becoming a faculty as they were at the time of the interviews. I applied the grounded theory methodology guided by Corbin and Strauss (2014) to analyse the data analysis process, which consists of five steps:

identifying codes, developing codes with dimensionalities and properties, bringing context into the analysis, bringing process into the analysis, and integrating and constructing theory. Through integration of categories assisted by memos, I could then generate a theory grounded in data (Corbin & Strauss, 2014).

Study Participants

This section describes participants' demographic characteristics, educational backgrounds, and work experience.

Fourteen Vietnamese Senior Faculty working in different universities in Vietnam participated in my study, including none females and five males. I included in the study Senior Faculty Members whose administrative work did not account for more than 25% of their work time because larger than that portion caused less time spent on the core faculty work of teaching and research. It was hard for me to recruit participants from a variety of locations because my personal and professional networking was rather limited in large cities; thus, 11 participants were from universities in large cities and three from smaller cities. Table 6 presents the profile of each participant.

Table 6 Participants' Profiles

No.	Name	M/F	Type of University	University location	Major	Years of Teaching	Position	Educational background	
								VN	Overseas
1	Le	F	Mono-disciplinary	Large city	Education	17	Faculty Division Head	BA	MA
2	Nguyen	F	Mono-disciplinary	Large city	Architecture	15	Faculty, Department Head	BA, MA, Ph.D. (on going)	
3	Dang	M	Multiple disciplinary - research	Large city	Engineering	15	Faculty	MSc & Ph.D.	BSc, Ph.D
4	Phuong	F	Multiple disciplinary - regional Uni	Smaller city	Education	18	Faculty	BA, MA	
5	Luong	F	Multiple disciplinary - National Uni - Research	Large city	Linguistics	14	Faculty	BA, MA, & Ph.D. (on going)	
6	Ngoc	M	Mono-disciplinary	Large city	Business	15	Faculty	BA, MBA	
7	Duong	F	Mono-disciplinary	Large city	Education	13	Faculty	BA	MA
8	Thanh	F	Multiple disciplinary - Research	Large city	Information technology	16	Faculty, Department Head	BSc, MSc, & Ph.D.	
9	Trong	M	Multiple disciplinary - Regional university	Smaller city	Information technology	15	Faculty, Department Head	BSc	MSc & Ph.D.
10	Hai	F	Mono-disciplinary	Large city	Medical	27	Faculty, Department Head	BA, MA	Ph.D.
11	Tran	F	Mono-disciplinary	Large city	Business	18	Faculty, research project leader	BA, MA	Ph.D.

Table 6 Continued

No.	Name	M/F	Type of University	University location	Major	Years of Teaching	Position	Educational background	
								VN	Overseas
12	Hong	F	Mono-disciplinary	Large city	Public health	15	Faculty		BA, MA, Ph.D.
13	Pham	F	Mono-disciplinary	Large city	Pharmacy	17	Faculty, Department Head	BSc, MSc, Ph.D.	
14	Dao	M	Mono-disciplinary	Large city	Engineering	9	Faculty	BSc, MSc	

Educational Background

The educational background of the Vietnamese participants varied depending on their graduate degree (Master's or Ph.D.) and institution by which those degrees were awarded (local or overseas). Nine participants held doctoral degrees, among whom four received their degrees from foreign countries (Australia, Thailand, and U.K.), three matriculated from local universities, one transferred from overseas to a local program, and one was enrolled in a local program. Half of the participants received their degrees solely from local universities. The other half had at least one degree from a foreign university; among them two received M.A.s, four held doctoral degrees, and one received fellowships for both college and graduate education in Australia.

Work Experience

The study participants each had with at least nine years of teaching in public higher education in Vietnam, as required by the Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training for the Senior Faculty title. Participants' years of experience ranged from nine to 27 years (10 participants had between 15 and 18 years of experience). Eight participants held department-level administrative roles in addition to faculty responsibilities. A majority of participants ($n = 11$) assumed their faculty positions immediately after receiving their bachelor's degrees and were teaching at the same universities from which they graduated. Among the participants, four were Engineering and Information Technology majors, three in Education, three in Health and Medical, two in Business, and two in Social Sciences. Nine participants were teaching in mono-disciplinary universities (such as Pharmacy, Public Health, Construction, Foreign Trade,

Information Technology, and Architecture) while the other five were employed by multi-disciplinary universities. The mono-disciplinary universities were practice - or application-oriented, and the multi-disciplinary universities were research-oriented.

An analysis of the brief profiles of the Vietnamese faculty members who participated in this study demonstrated several commonalities in their experience. First, a majority of the participants were in their early 20s when they assumed their appointments, which were in the same department as their undergraduate programs. This was described as “a smooth transition from student life to faculty life” (Nguyen). Second, a master’s degree was required for faculty members in Vietnam; a doctoral degree was considered a personal option and a means of professional development. Half of the participants had overseas educational experience from English-speaking countries, while the other half obtained their degrees from Vietnam universities. Finally, all participants prioritized teaching in undergraduate programs. Therefore, their degree of engagement with research varied. Some faculty members had no or only limited experience with research, while others have published their research locally and internationally.

Findings

This section presents the key findings of this study. It starts with a description of overview of concepts and super codes, followed by detail analysis of these concepts and super codes. The section ends with an explanation of an integration of these concepts.

Overview of Concepts and Super Codes

This section describes the concepts and super codes that I identified from data analysis. The five concepts and 17 super codes described in this section are summarized in Table 7. In the following sections, I described each super code in detail, along with direct quotes from the participants.

Table 7 Categories and Properties

Concepts	Properties
Initial self-concept	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Self-image• Self -value• Self-ideal
Professional development participation	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Experiences in formal education• Workplace learning• Disorientation dilemma
Influential factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Macro level• Meso level• Personal level
Professional development strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Taking ownership• Managing multiple roles• Continuous Learning
Professional development outcomes	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Expertise improvement• Personal development• Teaching improvement• Research improvement• Improvements in other areas

Concept 1: Initial Self-Concept

The first main concept was **initial self-concept** which refers to individual perceptions of each participant's personal traits, values, and competencies when first assuming their faculty appointments in their early 20s, immediately after earning their bachelor's degrees. When asked about how they began their teaching careers, a majority of the participants recalled their initial individual self-concept in relation to their role as instructor in a university. The concept of initial self-concept included three properties: *self-image*, *self-value*, and *self-ideal*. These properties were features of how junior faculty members engaged in this initial stage of their profession. The initial self-concept was formed from the conditions of individual prior experiences, others' expectations, and the profession itself. Table 8 illustrates the concept of initial self-perception, properties, their definitions, and typical codes.

Table 8 Category 1: Initial Self-Perception

Definition	Properties	Definition	Typical codes
Initial self-percept: individual perceptions of each participant's personal traits, values, and competencies when first assuming their faculty appointments	Self-image	how individuals first view themselves in relation to their teaching career	While a student, I taught English for Vietnamese and Vietnamese for foreigners.... I felt I was suitable for the job and could do well in teaching. After each class, my love for the job seemed to strengthen, and when it became possible, I ... decided to become a teacher without thinking twice.
	Self-value	a set of standards that participants assemble from their self-perception and others' expectations	I was said to be suitable for a teaching job because I am eloquent and able to find an easy way to explain a difficult concept.
	Self-ideal	what individuals felt of becoming a faculty member would allow them to become in their future careers	Our first mentors strongly impacted my teaching. Their strengths in teaching, such as blackboard presentation and teaching methods, are what I need to learn from my mentors. I also found that a sense of humor can create an effective learning environment. Teachers' strong devotion and engagement in teaching are criteria of ... effective teaching ... These merits have become a set of professional standards guiding my professional development

The first property, *initial self-image*, refers to how individuals first view themselves in relation to their teaching career. Several participants assumed their faculty appointments with a thorough understanding of their personal traits and the appropriateness of their assumption with their teaching positions. For example, Duong

recalled why she became a university teacher after several years of exposure to another job:

I felt I was suitable for a teaching job, which gives me great autonomy. In my teaching, I am my boss and I am independent in my job. I am independent in each of my decisions and I find myself in the teaching.

Similarly, some participants pursued a teaching career with a clear awareness of their personality and interests, which were derived from their pre-service experiences working as private tutors or part-time teachers. Their exposure to teaching offered them the opportunity to explore who they were and who they would become in their future careers, which led them to make an appropriate decision. Pham told her story:

While a student, I taught English for Vietnamese and Vietnamese for foreigners.... I felt I was suitable for the job and could do well in teaching. After each class, my love for the job seemed to strengthen, and when it became possible, I decided to become a teacher without thinking twice.

Unlike Duong and Pham who could identify the exact personal traits that attracted them to teaching, many participants viewed themselves and the job from more of an institutional perspective. They accepted their appointments believing they were attracted to the position because of an alignment between their inborn personalities and the particular teaching responsibilities: “Before accepting the job, I believed my personality to be appropriate for teaching and the academic environment” (Tran). Similarly, other participants began their teaching careers with a childhood dream of

becoming a teacher. Phuong explained, “I went straight to my teaching job without considering others; it seemed I belonged to the job since I was a kid.”

The second property, *self-value*, refers to a set of standards that participants assemble from their self-perception and others’ expectations. These individual standards and others’ expectations guided how they act in response to what they value or should value in their careers. Several participants assumed their teaching roles with clear standards that they derived from either positive or negative prior experiences. In particular, from their negative educational experiences, the participants expressed that they wanted to “... at least teach the subject better than I was taught” (Pham), and “... not repeat the boring lecturing method we suffered from throughout my student life” (Phuong). Conversely, other faculty members seemed to be anchored by solid learning experiences that they wanted to pass on in their teaching. In particular, three participants who had the opportunity to conduct research under faculty instruction understood early on in their careers that it was important to teach research skills and expressed this as a part of their teaching philosophy. Tran explained:

I was a student in the advanced class; doing research was one of the important tasks that my teachers asked us to do in my undergraduate program. So, I thought that when being a teacher, besides imparting knowledge, helping students to do research would be an important inclusive factor in my teaching philosophy.

Similarly, Le explained how her prior experiences with teaching helped shape her value for teaching when she was a junior faculty member: “pre-service teaching experiences

gave me an idea of how to help others to learn by understanding their needs and using different strategies together to help them to meet their needs.”

In addition to what the participants expressed about their own professional values, other people’s expectations also provided a frame of reference for junior faculty to form their beliefs and values in relation to their professional roles. In particular, some participants referenced faculty members or mentors’ positive comments when discussing their personal values. Pham recalled a memory of applying for a teaching job. Learners in her tutoring classes “said that I am a good teacher because I know how to make them love the subject.” Ngoc mentioned his teachers’ comments: “I was said to be suitable for a teaching job because I am eloquent and able to find an easy way to explain a difficult concept.” Parents’ perceptions of teaching strongly affected how the participants shaped their self-images early in their careers. Four participants told similar stories of how their parents oriented them towards teaching because they strongly believed that they would “have more time for family when being a teacher” (Tran) or “being a good teacher would mean being a potentially good mother” (Duong). Their parents’ view of teaching as a means of assuming a mother’s role influenced some participants’ career choices.

The third property, *self-ideal*, refers to what individuals felt of becoming a faculty member would allow them to become in their future careers. At the early career stage, the self-ideal of junior faculty members was developed by their role models from whom they had met and the opportunity to learn from and work with. Le described a teacher, who she considered a role model: “... the way the teacher designed various learning activities that engaged us in learning is a lesson I won’t forget in my entire

teaching life.” In addition, mentors who were considered important frames of reference played critical roles in helping junior faculty establish images of their ideal professional selves:

Our first mentors strongly impacted my teaching. Their strengths in teaching, such as blackboard presentation and teaching methods, are what I need to learn from my mentors. I also found that a sense of humor can create an effective learning environment. Teachers’ strong devotion and engagement in teaching are criteria of effective teaching ... These merits have become a set of professional standards guiding my professional development (Thanh).

While some participants identified a person they were striving to become, others did not mention anyone who served as a role model for them when they assumed their faculty appointments. In other words, all of the participants had an ideal self in mind at the time they began work as faculty members. Duong clarified his lack of a professional role model this way, “... with anyone I meet and talk to, I can find out many things I can learn ... Having a role model means restricting yourself to one person while every experience I have could change me in some way.”

In short, participants’ initial self-concept in relation to the profession was strongly influenced by their self-perception, self-value, and self-ideal. This self-concept was rooted in response to participants’ prior educational and pre-service experiences, existing formal education, on-the-job learning, and experiences in the profession. The initial self-concept laid a foundation for the participants’ professional appointment and future development. A deep understanding of their self-concept at the early career stage

provided a reference that guides their personal and professional qualities, beliefs, values, and behaviors in the following years. However, the initial self-concept typically changed over time because every experience alters individuals in some way. These accumulated shifts led to an evolution in their self-concept.

Concept 2: Professional Development Participation

Professional development participation refers to experiences associated with faculty members' participation in various types of professional development activities. These experiences are a key element of faculty development. Only by taking part in profession-related learning do faculty members have the opportunities to grow in their professional roles. This concept includes three properties: *experiences in formal education, workplace learning, and disorientation dilemma*. These properties identify the means by which faculty members possessed and gained experience from their participation. Table 9 presents the concept of professional development participation, its properties, their definitions, and typical codes. Table 10 presents the number of participants who took part in different professional development activities and how these activities related to their professional roles.

Table 9 Concept 2: Professional Development Participation

Concept	Properties	Definition	Typical codes
<p>Professional development participation: refers to experiences that faculty members' participation in various types of professional development activities</p>	<p>Experiences in formal education</p>	<p>taking part in degree-seeking programs and professional enhancement courses</p>	<p>I did not have a positive experience with my master's program because of outdated teaching and learning methods, such as the domination of the traditional lecturing method and [my] lack of commitment due to a heavy workload and multiple roles [i.e., being a full-time lecturer, part-time student, mother of a baby, daughter-in-law, etc.]. In the end, I [earned] a degree, a required certification for the career, regardless of the very limited benefit that I could gain from the program.</p>
	<p>Workplace learning - <i>personal learning</i> - <i>collaborative learning</i> - <i>extra work</i> - <i>learning in training program</i></p>	<p>happening while fulfilling professional roles; this learning incorporates learning for, at, and from particular work.</p>	<p>I learned to improve my teaching from observing students' reactions in class, analyzing their performance via assignments and test results, and seeking their feedback. I adjust my teaching methods when I feel that something does not work well.</p>
	<p>Disorientation dilemma</p>	<p>occurring when participants felt lost or stuck in their career path and could only resolve the situation by changing their perspective</p>	<p>There was a challenging time in my profession. I got lost; I did not see my career destination and career path. I applied for jobs in business. The moment I almost quitted teaching and accepted a new job offer, I suddenly realized that teaching is not only my job but my lifetime career. That moment acted as a driving force for me to go through burnout period and become devoted to teaching again.</p>

Table 10 Professional Development Participation Relating to Professional Roles

Types of professional experiences			Responsibilities				
			Teaching/ instruction/ advising	Research	Leadership	Training	Mentoring
Experience in formal program	Degree- seeking programs		14	9			
Workplace learning	Personal learning	by doing the work	14	9	6	2	3
		from student feedback	5				
		from Web and documents	5	9	1	3	1
	Collaborative learning	with mentors/ role model	8	3			1
		with peers	4	4	4		1
		in teams	2	6	5		

Table 10 Continued

Types of professional experiences		Responsibilities				
		Teaching/ instruction/ advising	Research	Leadership	Training	Mentoring
	Doing extra jobs	9	9	3	1	1
	Learning from training programs	14	3			
Disorienting Dilemma		5	2			

Experiences in formal programs. Experiences in formal programs include involvement in degree-seeking programs and professional enhancement courses. Participation in graduate programs was the most common professional experience for these Vietnamese faculty members, given that all of them began their lectureship in their early 20s, with a bachelor's degree. They explained that a master's degree is required for a faculty appointment, and a doctoral degree was a personal option. In particular, some faculty members viewed a Ph.D. program as optional, arguing that such endeavors were "a tradeoff of time" (Nguyen), "a career goal when having time" (Phuong), or "a way to release oneself from stagnation in the bureaucratic administration" (Ngoc). Nevertheless, they all expressed a desire to pursue a doctoral degree when possible and time allowed. For example, Nguyen considered a Ph.D. a driving force for her career development:

I had not seen the value of a Ph.D. degree. I used to think it would be enough if I ... committed my time and effort to my teaching and students' learning and was responsible for what I was doing. But when conducting research and attending workshops and conferences, I felt a master's degree was not 'enough' because many of my colleagues are Ph.D.-holders. I felt I was below the standard quality, although my work quality and workload were not worse than others. I have just enrolled in a Ph.D. program for my research career.

However, participants' experiences depended largely on the level of their engagement in the learning process. The more engaged participants were in their learning, the more likely they were to be motivated to learn and progress in their program. The degree of engagement depended on several factors including, but was not

limited to, the types of training program, program quality, and participants' learning objectives.

The types and quality of training programs are interrelated in their level of effect on participant engagement. All participants with experience in overseas degree programs acknowledged a significant amount of learning they gained; the findings tended to show the opposite experience with domestic programs. Phuong attributed low level of engagement in her master's program to the program's low quality, her heavy workload as a full-time faculty member, and the graduate program requirements:

I did not have a positive experience with my master's program because of outdated teaching and learning methods, such as the domination of the traditional lecturing method and my lack of commitment due to a heavy workload and multiple roles (i.e., being a full-time lecturer, part-time student, mother of a baby, and daughter-in-law). In the end, I earned a degree, a required certification for the career, regardless of the very limited benefit that I gained from the program.

Conversely, when studying abroad in graduate programs, participants stepped outside of their academic responsibilities on a full-time basis, which allowed them to become fully engaged in learning. In addition, a doctoral-level education embedded in a strong academic and research culture exposed participants to various professional and personal development opportunities and networks. Tran reflected on her significant learning experience in the doctoral program in a U.K. university:

In my Ph.D. program, I took many courses relating to professional development, such as team building, intellectual property, and so on. I recognized that these

courses aimed to prepare doctoral graduates for careers in an international context.

I was fully engaged and devoted to these courses, one after another, which I felt were extremely effective.

Regardless of the program quality, several participants highlighted the critical role of having clear learning objectives beyond mere professional qualifications, which impacted the degree of their learning engagement and the quality of their educational experience. Duong explained how having an objective in the program made her experience significant, “To me, meeting great and respected people in the master’s program was even more important than program contents; so, I learned a lot from these dialogues.” Similarly, Dao identified the practical benefits he received from a domestic master’s degree program as a result of a clear objective in mind, “I could identify which teaching strategies were effective for me as a learner. From a lecturer’s perspective, I could catch up quickly with teaching techniques and adopt them in my teaching for undergraduate students.”

In short, participants’ experiences with formal programs, including degree-seeking programs and short training courses, shared several characteristics. First, degree-seeking programs were mandatory for faculty members. Second, the quality of learning experience varied contingent upon individual participants’ situations. A high-quality program and full-time enrollment status allowed participants to fully engage in the learning process, while a lower-quality program and part-time enrollment at times prevented participants’ from gaining significant learning. Finally, the degree of

engagement also depended on the participant's personal learning objectives in their respective programs.

Workplace learning. All participants described their workplace learning or learning on the job as an ongoing process accessed through professional experience. Workplace learning happens when faculty members fulfill their multiple professional roles in different settings. This learning derived from learning for, during, and from particular tasks, and varied among these individuals. Workplace learning occurred in various forms for the participants (such as in solo and collaborative context), while they assumed multiple core responsibilities (teaching and research) and additional tasks (e.g. leadership, mentoring, training, consulting, off-campus applied research) in a wide variety of settings (on or off campus).

As workplace learning took many forms for the different participants, it is important to define each type. First, personal learning was resulted from daily task-based individual activities such as doing actual work, using web and document-based resources, and providing and receiving feedback. Next, collaborative learning occurred when participants interacted with others, such as mentors and role models, peers, and members of teams. Learning from training programs, the third type of workplace learning, involved formal training organized by participants' home institutions. In addition, learning from practical experience gained by working with businesses and organizations played an important role in their learning. Finally, learning from seminars and conferences involved gaining information and experience from public sources where faculty members accessed professional associations or communities of practice.

The findings show several overall trends in workplace learning as described by the participants. First, workplace learning was embedded in faculty members' core practices and experiences (i.e., teaching and research), rather than in their extra responsibilities (e.g., leadership, training, consulting, and mentoring). Second, workplace learning supported teaching responsibilities more effectively than it did to other tasks. Third, self-learning was reported as the most popular means to learning, compared with others (such as collaborative learning and learning from external sources). Thus, the data shows that learning by doing was the most prominent workplace learning experience for the study participants.

The following section explains how different types of workplace learning were embedded in participants' core professional roles. As all participants acknowledged that as faculty members workplace learning was critical in helping them to fulfill their responsibilities and achieve professional growth. Workplace learning was more often reported in the form of self-learning than in other types, including collaborative learning, structured training programs, off-campus jobs, and conferences and seminars.

Self-learning. The data show that self-learning was the most common professional experience for participants in developing their teaching (n = 14) and research (n = 9) competencies. Participants' workplace learning experiences varied, depending on the content of their learning (knowledge or skill), academic major (education or non-education), and career stage (early or advanced).

Self-learning to teach was considered an ongoing experience in which participants focused on improving their knowledge and skills in teaching and

research. All of the participants expressed that they learned to teach from personal experience and student feedback; this self-adjustment process improved their teaching behavior to better meet students' needs and course objectives. Nguyen, a faculty member in architecture, explained how she continuously adjusted her teaching strategies from her teaching practice:

At first, I focused on lecturing and tried to convey as much information as possible in class. I utilized PowerPoint and lots of visual and sound effects. In class, we were all happy because students were so impressed with the movies they watched. But then I noticed that students could not apply their knowledge to solve problems in assignments and tests. After that, I changed my teaching by reducing lectures and applying a problem-based approach. I learned to improve my teaching from observing students' reactions in class, analyzing their performance via assignments and test results, and seeking their feedback. I adjust my teaching methods when I feel that something does not work well.

While all participants confirmed that they learned how to teach by trial and error, only five faculty members invested time in gaining new pedagogical knowledge on their own. Duong, a faculty member with bachelor and master's degrees in foreign language instruction, described her experience with self-learning how to teach from a pedagogical approach:

I keep asking these questions: who my students are, who I am as a teacher in this class, what the learning outcomes are, and which teaching techniques I need to apply to achieve the outcomes in this specific context. The internet has become

a useful resource for me to explore answers to those questions. Based on that, I now understand more about teaching itself, which gradually contributes to my knowledge and performance improvement in my daily teaching and student learning.

Improvement in content knowledge is another aspect of self-learning to teach. At the early stage of their careers, a majority of participants felt that this learning helped them to fill a gap in the knowledge they needed. In particular, they described experiences with “self-studying, relearning the knowledge, intensively and extensively reading documents, and doing homework” (Thanh), and “spending much time and effort on digging deep into all teaching contents covered in the textbooks via online resources” (Phuong). At the more advanced stages of their careers, the participants made an effort to update their discipline-based knowledge by learning from different sources such as textbooks and online materials, which is a regular professional development activity for all participants. For example, Hai explained, “updating knowledge and teaching content are what I often do”; Nguyen added, “advising student research and theses requires faculty to keep reading and learning new knowledge in the major.”

All participants agreed that self-learning was their most prominent type of professional experience, but only five participants stated that they used this learning to develop their research competency. As these participants had to learn to conduct research on their own, they struggled because they were not well-equipped with the research knowledge and skills in graduate programs. According to Tran, a faculty member who pursued a Ph.D. program in Vietnam:

In my doctoral program, we learned some research methods, such as materialism and historical materialism, but later in my career, I found I didn't know how to apply them in my research. So, I had to learn research on my own by reading published papers and I tried to imitate their research methods in my study. To be honest, I feel like I struggled, was confused, and lost.

Collaborative learning. Collaborative learning refers to participants learning at work by interacting with mentors and peers. While multiple informal mentoring experiences represented the most popular type of workplace learning for these participants when they were in the early career stage ($n = 8$), these experiences became less common as they progressed in their careers. Many faculty members remembered when they were novice faculty they acknowledged the value to informal mentoring, which contributed to initial satisfaction and success in their academic environment. For example, they shared how senior faculty members “spent time on answering my questions about the content knowledge needed for my class teaching or helped me to solve math problems” (Thanh), or “gave me books and encouraged me to read more about the course contents” (Hai). Others commented that her mentors “allowed [her] to audit their classes” (Nguyen), and “pushed and encouraged me to complete my Ph.D. ... which I had never thought I could do” (Thanh).

However, these individuals did not report that it was common to have peer collaboration or learning from coworkers, which directly led to improvements in their teaching and research performance. Only a few participants acknowledged infrequent and informal opportunities to share with their colleagues about their teaching

experiences. For example, they shared that “I rarely discuss with colleagues about our teaching; if I did, I only talked with very close colleagues in small groups” (Le) or “sharing how to teach is not something we often do in our dialogues even at workplace” (Phuong). Similar, Nguyen described how she learned about her colleagues’ teaching indirectly through student feedback:

I asked my advisees to comment on other teachers’ teaching methods and what they, as students, liked most and least, and why. Through discussion with students, I sometimes learn new teaching methods that may offer new ideas for some changes in my teaching practice.

To explain this phenomenon, Trong described a lack of professional collaboration among the faculty members in Vietnam:

Sharing and exchanging ideas is not common in Vietnamese academia where the practice of sharing has not been a part of the culture. Maybe it is because sharing resources or experiences with others may provide opportunities for others to be better than us; or sometimes the authors do not want to share their research studies due to a lack of confidence in the quality of their research.

When collaborative experiences were reported, they mostly involved research projects (n = 9), with either colleagues or students. In terms of productivity and satisfaction, faculty members who were members of research teams learned more and experienced fewer struggles, compared to those who tried to conduct research on their own. Luong repeatedly expressed her disappointment with her “research path and not having a clear idea about how to interact with researchers in my field who were from

other universities in Vietnam and other regions, or have opportunities to learn from them." Unlike Tran, Hong had more positive experiences working as a part of a research team:

I was involved in a research team of five members. We implemented a research project relating to dioxin, the first project implemented in Vietnam. We had to self-study and self-explore together, learn with and from each other. We all learned a lot in the process. Luckily, we could present and publish our study internationally.

Toward later stage in their career, collaborative experiences on research teams became more common among participants once they assumed the role of the team leaders responsible for engaging others in their research. However, there was little evidence from my study regarding how the participants experienced being team leaders and what they learned from this process. In brief, collaborative learning in the workplace occurred most often in teaching, in the form of mentorship during the early career stage. Collaborative research was more common form of collaborative learning; however, there was a lack of collaborative learning opportunities regarding teaching when they reached a more advanced career stage or when they became research team leaders.

Extra work. A majority of participants (n = 10) reported having at least one extra off-campus job. While some faculty members taught extra in-service classes for their university or other schools, others joined research projects and worked as consultants for businesses. Although teaching in-service classes was popular with most participants at an early career stage, none could identify any professional value beyond financial

benefits. Later in their careers, most participants chose not to each extra classes because they believed "it is the fastest way to destroy the profession" (Trong).

Otherwise, all the participants agreed that off-campus jobs gave them opportunities to experience various practical contexts. Participants acknowledged that they acquired useful knowledge and skills while working with businesses. Ngoc, a faculty member in business, expressed his opinion about the value of practical experience for his teaching:

Besides knowledge in textbooks, access to businesses, working with them and helping them to work out business strategies assist my teaching. Teaching business also means helping students understand and be able to do business. I think there is a gap between knowledge we teach at school and what we need to do in the real business world, which I should share with my students.

Pham agreed with Ngoc and added, "working as a consultant in a pharmacy firm keeps me up to date with knowledge, information, and technology. The updates are regular input I need to prepare students for their job readiness." Nevertheless, later in their careers, several participants shifted their focus from practical research to academic work once they realized the importance of becoming scholar researchers. According to them, academic research was based on theories and models that they could only learn from formal education. Thus, Nguyen said:

... the most challenging and critical task for me now is to become an intellectual in academia. I see that knowledge gained from working with businesses was

useful, but it was not enough. Enrolling in a Ph.D. program is an option, explaining why I have just enrolled in one.

Experiences with off-campus work not only contributed to their professional competence and confidence, but also the formation and growth of their professional self-concept.

Learning in training programs. All of the faculty members acknowledged their participation in some form of training in the workplace, including in-house workshops, seminars, and short training courses. Most institution-based training activities focused on the major role of teaching (n = 14), and only a few addressed improving research competency (n = 4). All of the faculty members described participating in required college classroom teaching for certification that was organized by the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET); they also agreed that this was not a positive experience. On the other hand, several participants (n = 5) highly rated their experiences in programs with similar contents, either on campus or conducted by foreign scholars. Dang, who had learning experiences with both foreign and Vietnamese instructors, explained how his experiences differed:

We all were required to take part in a pedagogical training course offered by the MOET for a certificate. I decided to take the course seriously because I am curious about how similar contents can be delivered in a local program and overseas. Finally, I saw a disturbing picture: the overwhelming feeling of ineffectiveness, boredom, and uselessness derived from the local programs, versus to the satisfaction with the practicality, applicability, and inspiration from overseas courses. The local instructors relied heavily on lecturing as the

primary method of instruction, which is so dogmatic in transferring knowledge from teacher to learners.

Most participants agreed on the value of training programs abroad and local partnership programs, explaining that they added to their experience. In particular, these values included “consolidating teaching techniques I often use in class” (Dang), access to “the research community of my professional field that I didn't even know about” (Hai), and “changing my perspectives on improving learning skills necessary for being an effective educator” (Ngoc). Nevertheless, some faculty members believed short overseas training courses added only little value to their future development. For example, Pham reflected that her experiences “added some flavor to the main course that was well-cooked,” because “they only confirmed what I have already done for years.”

Disorientation dilemma. The disorientation dilemma occurred when many of the study participants found them lost or stuck in their career path and could only resolve the situation by changing their perspective. Most of the time, the moment when participants realized they urgently needed or wanted to make significant changes in their job or career became the starting point of a new phase in their professional development. The trigger moments happened as the result of an internal drive for continuous self-improvement. For example, Phuong shared how she experienced a significant change in her perspective of her teaching career:

There was a challenging time in my profession. I got lost; I did not see my career destination and career path. I applied for jobs in business. The moment I almost quitted teaching and accepted a new job offer, I suddenly realized that teaching is

not only my job but my lifetime career. That moment acted as a driving force for me to go through burnout period and become devoted to teaching again.

In another case, Tran reflected on her internal process and career aspirations that she had not noticed before. The new realization brought her a strong sense of her self-concept that strongly motivated her to move forward:

When realizing that what I was doing as a teacher of English was below my capacity and not exactly what I wanted to be in my career, I found I needed to unleash my potential. I decided to get exposure to other disciplines and the professional network of financial experts. Gradually, I found that Corporate Social Responsibility is where I want to be. And since then, I have an aspiration to pursue and complete the Ph.D. program in CSR.

In short, these Vietnamese faculty members shared both common and conflicting experiences in their professional development. As all assumed their faculty positions without graduate degrees, pursuing master's education was required but Ph.D. programs were optional. Moreover, all participants had the opportunity to participate in several types of training activities, but their experiences varied depending on the type and quality of the training programs. Additionally, ongoing workplace learning for teaching and research played a critical role in the progress of these individuals' professional development. Self-learning was the most common type, compared to other form of workplace learning. Extra job duties related to professional expertise contributed to the professional development of a majority of the participants. Most of their professional development centered on teaching; research also contributed to the quality of their

teaching. There was little evidence of individual research while collaborative research in teams was more popular. Finally, the disorientation dilemma, a transformational experience, acted as an internal motive for changing participants' perspective on the profession.

Nevertheless, participation in professional development activities did not always contribute to meaningful learning; such learning depended on participants' engagement, which was determined by the quality and nature of the professional development programs and individuals' learning intentions. Foreign involvement activities such as study abroad programs or classes conducted by foreign professors or experts offered significant learning experiences to participants. Faculty members who took part in these high-quality programs built stronger academic foundations than those who had not, due to the significance of the learning experiences these programs offered. All types of significant experiences offered support in faculty members' ongoing learning process. Le's remark sums up the participants' professional development experience:

Professional development experience is an integrative process of self-study, self-exploration, participation in formal programs, and self-adjustment. The 'self' activities were done within the individual. But with the formal training under professionals' instruction, teaching will be improved to a higher level of knowledge and skill. The improvement will result in effectiveness in performance and a high degree of intrinsic motivation.

Concept 3: Influential Factors Affecting Faculty Development Experiences

A consideration of the personal and contextual factors would shed light on the influence of these factors on the nature and process of these participants' professional development. These **influential factors** were recognized at different levels and in numerous forms, including systemic factors at the macro level, institutional and group factors at the meso level, and personal factors at the individual level. In addition, these factors have also been categorized into sources of support and barriers. More importantly, the interrelationships among these factors were analyzed as an important part of this study. Table 11 describes the concept of influential factors, its properties, their definitions, and typical codes.

Table 11 Concept 3: Influential Factors

Concept	Properties	Definition	Typical codes
Influential factors: influence of factors at the macro, meso, and individual levels on the nature and process of these participants' professional development	Influences at the macro level - <i>national faculty development strategy</i> - <i>compensation and benefit system</i> - <i>higher education environment</i>	elements existing or deriving from the centrally-controlled higher education system in Vietnam affect professional development	Vietnamese faculty are underpaid for their multiple roles and overworked at school. Administrators cannot require them to continuously care about their teaching contents and pedagogy, among tons of other things. In fact, engagement in faculty development activities is the tradeoff for extra earnings that are needed to cover family expenses. It totally depends on individual faculty members 'self-determination and is voluntary.
	Influences at the meso level: - <i>institutional factors</i> - <i>group factors</i>	influences at institutional and groups impacts on faculty development	For the last 17 years of teaching at this university, I have received no support from the university except approval for me to take part in training programs I could find on my own. They did not care about the quality and content of the programs; the only thing they care about is meeting the target of the number of faculty members having graduate degrees given by the Ministry of Education and Training
	Personal factors: - <i>perceived professional development</i> - <i>motivation</i> - <i>multiple roles</i> - <i>education background</i> - <i>other factors</i>	personal factors, related to professional development, contribute to individual reactions to contextual elements and shaping of their experiences.	I can earn a lot of money by providing consultations for non-government organizations, but if I devoted too much to this extra job, I wouldn't have enough time for me to build my long-term professional success. So I decided not to work for NGOs [Non-governmental Organization] and put priority on building a strong foundation for my career development.

Influential factors at the macro level (systemic factors). Systemic factors in this study refer to elements existing within or derived from the centrally-controlled higher education system in Vietnam. Although only a few participants explicitly mentioned influential factors at the macro level, these factors had profound impacts on every institution and individual in this system. Systemic factors created a legal structure for public universities' regulations and practices, which in turn strongly impacted individual professional development. In light of the importance of the central higher education system in Vietnam, all public universities and faculty members were treated under the civil servant mechanism. These system-based factors included national faculty development strategies, compensation and benefit system, and the general higher education environment.

National faculty development strategy. This is a government-sponsored strategy to improve faculty quality and qualifications by sending individuals to overseas degree-seeking programs. Other than these programs, in the study data, there was no evidence of any other professional development strategy at the national level. According to Trong, “only a few faculty members can benefit from a few overseas training programs, and I have not heard any plan initiated by the government targeting the general faculty pool.”

The compensation and benefits system. The compensation and benefit system received the most complaints from a majority of the participants. In Vietnam's current centralized higher education system, faculty members at public universities are placed on the civil-servant salary scale. Several participants said that their official starting salary, from eight to ten million Vietnam Dong (around 400 to 500 US dollars) per

month, could cover only a portion of their family's expenses. Dang noted, "a low and insufficient salary system error that in return strongly impacts the whole system."

Thus, insufficient salary was a key impeding factor in the Vietnamese faculty members' professional development. Except for a few participants who received financial support from their families, a majority of the participants acknowledged that their workload from official responsibilities and 'moonlighting' jobs prevented them from committing themselves to their professional development. Furthermore, since institutions were trapped in this "underpaid salary system" (Tran), it was very difficult for schools to require faculty members to do more than their basic responsibilities, including engagement with individual professional development. Dang described this dilemma:

Vietnamese faculty are underpaid for their multiple roles and overworked at school. Administrators cannot require them to continuously care about their teaching contents and pedagogy, among and tons of other things. In fact, engagement in faculty development activities is the tradeoff for extra earnings that are needed to cover family expenses. It totally depends on individual faculty members' self-determination and is voluntary.

The impact of this poor salary system on professional development engagement varied among different participants. The faculty members who received financial support from their family members were not significantly affected by the low salary they received. They were able to pursue their professional development as they wished. However, for those whose low income was a substantial financial challenge, they

acknowledged “not having enough time and commitment to spend on professional development” (Tran). The officially low incomes made these participants struggle between their desire for professional development and needs for basic survival. The final group, including those who frequently mentioned their low incomes in their interviews, highlighted how they had overcome these financial challenges. This group of participants was able to balance professional development engagement and the need for extra incomes by utilizing their expertise outside work.

Higher education environment. The unfavorable higher education environment in Vietnam was perceived as a negative factor that diminished individual professional development efforts. Important factors include an unsupportive research environment, low quality of the graduate programs, and lack of an evaluation system in education. In particular, the unsupportive research environment was evidenced in the lack of resources, such as “hard to find available data from official databases and reference materials in Vietnamese and English, and limited funding from the government for research” (Nguyen). Furthermore, several researchers expressed their disappointment with outdated research methodologies and ideologies imposed by a number of leading researchers in their institutions, which prevented new researchers from applying novel research methods (Ngoc, Luong, and Phuong). Also, the low quality of local graduate programs was mentioned with concern by several faculty members. Duong pointed out a drawback of these programs:

The quality of those programs was complained for not providing the strong foundational academic and research competencies needed for faculty members to

better perform their responsibilities. They were more for the purpose of meeting the target of faculty members having Master's or doctoral degrees; the target is proposed by the Ministry of Education and Training.

Another counterproductive element of this system was the lack of an evaluation process for all areas of higher education. Without such a system, it is very difficult to assess the quality of faculty performance, causing an unfair and non-transparent reward and benefit practice in the higher education environment (Dang & Duong). This factor strongly impacted faculty members' motivation and the organizational enforcement of professional development on individuals.

In short, the negative influential factors outweighed the positive ones at the micro level with regards to faculty development. Dang concluded that the negative factors were "the system errors that are unlikely to be resolved in the context of Vietnamese higher education at this moment." Nevertheless, different individuals with their varied educational backgrounds, professional development strategies, and personalities reacted differently and consequently saw different results in their performance.

Influences at the meso level. This section provides an analysis of influential factors at the meso level (meso level comprises of institutional and group aspects) on faculty development in the context of the centralized higher education system in Vietnam. The domination of unfavorable systemic factors relating to a lack of faculty development strategies, an insufficient salary and benefit system, and outdated higher education system, strongly shaped the operation of higher education institutions and other related groups. This, in turn, impacted the professional development of individual

faculty members. Nevertheless, the degree of impact of these systemic factors on institutions was not evenly disbursed, and thus had different effects on individuals, as well.

Institutional factors. Most participants (n = 10) pointed out the near absence of their institutions in individual professional development. Generally speaking, participants agreed that their institutions, rather than investing in professional development as a key human resource, only maintained an administrative role in relation to the faculty.

In particular, participants emphasized that none but one of the participating institutions (n = 8) had human resource development strategies or offered regular professional development opportunities to their faculty members. Dang explained the leaders' indifferent attitudes towards institutional support for individual faculty development:

When faculty members are recruited by an institution, administrators take it for granted that they are qualified to teach. To the administrators, it is not the institution's responsibility to further enhance individuals' competency. It is the individual faculty members' responsibility to develop themselves in terms of what, how, and how far they want to go. If any of the faculty members don't want to do anything to improve them, it is fine.

A majority of the participants agreed with Dang's assessment on the independence of their institutions with individual professional development. Le expressed disappointment with the absentee role of her university in her professional growth:

For the last 17 years of teaching at this university, I have received no support from the university except approval for me to take part in training programs I could find on my own. They did not care about the quality and content of the programs; the only thing they care about is meeting the target of the number of faculty members having graduate degrees given by the Ministry of Education and Training.

Duong added a further complaint:

The Administration Department provided several ad hoc training programs when they had money they needed to distribute or when they were short of faculty members who were able to teach certain subjects. The training did not come from the learning needs of individual faculty, but rather from the organization's ridiculous reasons. These opportunities were provided for me but made little sense to me; it wasted huge resources.

The absence of institutions with regards to individual professional development was also evidenced by the poor working conditions that schools provided for the faculty members. It was difficult for faculty members to base their professional development on institutions with "poor working conditions where there is no private working space for individual faculty, no collaborative opportunities between universities, and limited technology application in teaching" (Nguyen). In addition, the significantly low incomes made it difficult for institutions to require faculty to go beyond the basic responsibilities of teaching (Dang and Trong). In other words, faculty incomes were outside of institutional control, which prevented universities from exercising their power to

improve faculty quality. In addition, bureaucratic management at several institutions (four out of ten participating institutions) was described as a barrier, keeping schools from caring about their faculty's professional needs and supporting them as they endeavored to meet those needs.

Nevertheless, a few faculty members did acknowledge some institutional support in their career development, in a variety of forms. For example, only two participants expressed their appreciation for being included in research projects early on in their careers. These initial experiences “open a career path with further research opportunities, networking, and basic knowledge and skills in research.” Also, among the ten participating institutions, only two started initiating faculty development activities, highlighting institutions' accountability and presence in their individual faculty development process. Hai explained the approach that his university applied as a faculty development strategy:

Currently, leaders have started viewing faculty development as an institutional strategy, together with the Individual Development Plan. I think the university leaders are doing a good job when trying to offer opportunities for faculty to increase their incomes. When faculty members have stable and reasonable incomes, then they are able to think of investing in their professional development. Although the strategy has not yet been well-established, it is radical in Vietnamese universities. I am confident that my institution is among the leading group in terms of changing attitudes toward the value of training and development for faculty.

Group factors. At the meso level, a majority of influential factors were based in institutions, and a few were derived from other sources such as family, research teams, and education organizations. Five faculty members acknowledged that family support, especially in terms of finances, significantly lifted the burden of financial responsibilities off their shoulder and allowed them to concentrate on their professional development.

Pham shared:

The salary is too low. It can only cover my own expenses, but not my family. I don't need to care about it. I get financial support from my parents and my husband so that I don't have to earn additional money from extra jobs, I can devote my time to research regardless of its financial rewards.

Emotional and spiritual support from family was also acknowledged by several faculty members. They considered these supports as motivation for them to pursue their teaching careers:

My parents always respected my decision, which made me courageous to grasp all learning opportunities that I wanted. My husband understands the challenges I have to face in teaching and my professional values and standards that I have in my job. I am a lucky person.

(Duong)

The absence of the institution from faculty development also resulted in an institutional environment that did not support academic excellence. Except for the initial stage where they sought internal mentors, as they advanced in their careers, high performers tended to collaborate with research teams outside their institutional

boundaries. Research teams played a significant role in faculty members' professional development in a research context, such as with international conference presentations, publications, and professional engagement. Other than that, no examples of collaboration regarding teaching improvement on campus were reported by the participants. Similarly, almost no evidence of professional associations and organizational engagement were found to have impacted the professional development of individual faculty members in this study.

In short, participants were in agreement that their universities maintained administrative roles and limited their efforts to assist with the professional development of the faculty. The absence of a strategy and other support for faculty development meant that professional development was a personal choice, rather than the institution's responsibility. Also, absence of or ineffective institutional practices were the direct consequence of the ineffective and centralized higher education system in Vietnam, leading to the absence of an institutional culture of support for academic excellence. Nevertheless, a few participating institutions appeared to be outliers, where the leaders implemented successful university-wide faculty development strategy. The strategy focused on offering a wide variety of training opportunities and implementing individual development plan.

Individual level. Personal factors refer to internal attribution influencing individuals' decisions with regards to professional development. While interacting with contextual influences, these personal factors played a significant role in shaping participants' professional development experiences. Personal factors were categorized

into three domains: perceived professional development, motivation, and role-related issues. Each of these domains contained both supports and barriers and the study data show an alignment between the support and barrier sides.

Perceived professional development. This domain explained participants' beliefs and values regarding their professional development. These attitudes, a key influential factor, guided faculty members' reactions to contextual elements and shaped their experiences. Specifically, the core attitudes that impacted individual behaviors were either as a support or a barrier.

On the support side were factors, such as strong value for continuous learning, self-driven attitude, and the importance of 'big picture' related to career development. These personal values acted as guidance for the faculty members' professional behavior and career development. First, all participants strongly believed that continuous learning contributed to their professional development. They all considered learning to be an integral part of their profession, leading them to seek improvement. For example, Le said, "I attended several programs in ... evaluation, English teaching, and finance and banking. I feel the knowledge and skills I gained in these programs are helpful for my teaching." Similarly, Hai confirmed:

Having a doctoral degree is not an end; I think knowledge keeps changing so fast that you cannot stop learning and improving yourself in my medical field.

Learning is regarded as a required professional responsibility for not lagging behind.

Because of limited support from organizations, all of the participants highlighted self-driven attitude as the core value of their professional development. Thus, the self-driven attitude in professional development was described as “individual efforts to overcome challenges to complete professional roles” (Pham), “self-initiative in deciding what and where to develop” (Nguyen), “a series of decisions on what to trade off for ... professional development participation” (Phuong), “up to you to decide whether you want to develop” (Dang), and “doing moonlighting jobs to secure a career” (Hong). Le concluded that “my professional development was very much a self-survival process, with almost no support from the department and institution.” Thus, this attitude of self-driven learning allowed participants to be more independent, responsible, engaged, and proactive when making decisions about their profession, rather than waiting for external assistance.

The final factor on the supporting side was the value of a ‘big picture’ approach in which participants took into account cross-sector collaboration and career structure in their professional development. In particular, a majority of the participants (n = 8) highlighted that they could develop better via “opportunities to expand and integrate into different joint research groups” (Dang) and “engagement in off-campus projects to get the practical knowledge needed for teaching” (Dao). Furthermore, faculty members who adopted a ‘big picture’ approach valued collaborative learning opportunities in their professional development. They believed in “mutual learning when mentoring junior faculty members” (Phuong) and “mutual benefits for both institutions and faculty when institutions supported their faculty in professional development” (Hai). Finally, a few

believed that their accumulated competency and performance improvement would serve as stepping stones for their career development. These participants built their career path by "improving their basic professional competency, such as English language, to prepare for further learning opportunities" (Trong), "making every 3 and 5-year plan for career development and trying to accomplish them" (Tran), and "investing in publication for to future promotion" (Dang).

Personal attitudes became a barrier when participants over-emphasized the role of the individual and undervalued the role of the institution in professional development. Personal attitudes became a barrier when participants over-emphasized the role of the individual and undervalued the role of the institution in professional development. The longer they stayed in their institution with this attitude, the more independent they become with regards to their professional development. This overly-independent attitude drove faculty members away from a collaborative approach and strong sense of belonging when interacting with their institution. In particular, Le spoke for a majority of participants, stating that after "17 years of teaching in the university, I had not received any support from this institution." Dang shared that only a small number of participants were "nominated by the school to attend good training programs." Dang felt that faculty members

Motivation. Since institutions played only a very limited role in individual faculty development, participants agreed that their intrinsic motivation was a key factor in their decision to engage in professional development activities. Together, the supporting and impeding elements illustrate the personal factors affecting participants'

professional development. The supporting factors and barriers were presented in pairs, aiming to highlight contrasting impacts of these factors on participants' professional development. These pairs include receiving recognition vs feeling of discouragement, confidence vs struggling with improvement, commitment to continued improvement vs burnout with continued improvement, and commitments to impacts vs discouragement to make changes.

Receiving recognition / Feelings of discouragement. Participants shared various positive memories when they received recognition from students and leaders, which in turn affected their job satisfaction and motivation. While all participants acknowledged receiving recognition from their students, only half remembered being recognized by their institution's leaders. For example, participants were inspired to explore new teaching techniques and apply novel teaching technology when they witnessed students' joy in learning and increased engagement in class activities (Ngoc, Nguyen, and Le). Also, former students' positive feedback on a course's effectiveness served as a driving force for faculty, underscoring the importance of different practical knowledge and skills, and helping them to better assist students with job readiness (Phuong, Ngoc, and Dang). Leaders' recognition included but was not limited to promotions, approved proposals, and increased professional development opportunities (Dao, Phuong, Hai, and Dang). Leaders' recognition made faculty members feel valued and supported, which gave them the necessary momentum to try even harder in return for these recognitions. Also, participants mentioned that recognition from leaders could take the form of trust in

participants' potential by assigning challenging tasks as learning opportunities. Hong recalled her experiences with great excitement:

I felt lucky because I was a junior faculty member with a master's degree and the President of my university nominated me to be in a team working with senior faculty members; we designed a curriculum for the new education program in my university. I felt appreciated, and I felt positive about myself and my ability. I tried hard to learn on my own and from senior faculty members so I could best complete my tasks.

In terms of factors impeding professional development efforts, several participants complained about not being treated as if they as faculty members should receive these types of opportunities. Several faculty members shared their feelings of dissatisfaction with being treated like "teaching workers" "teaching machines" or "shift labor." The psychological burden not only negatively impacted participants' attitudes toward the value of faculty positions, but also reduced their desire for further learning and their commitment to development.

Confidence / Struggling with improvement. A feeling of confidence and struggling with personal and professional improvement were common factors affecting participants' decisions regarding their engagement in professional development. Several participants acknowledged that the more confidence they had in their ability to improve their skills and knowledge, the more motivated they were to seek exposure to a variety of challenging professional development activities. In particular, participants' confidence was enhanced with the successful application of new teaching strategies and

research methods, completion of projects and professional tasks, and receipt of recognition. In particular, many of the participants who completed their Ph.D. programs gained confidence in their ability to grow both professionally and personally, and thus were eager to assume challenging responsibilities. For example, Hai shared:

Upon my arrival, I was promoted to be the Assistant Department Head. I think the competences I had gained from the doctoral training helped me create a research environment where colleagues receive support in various forms, leading to enhance research productivity for individuals and the department.

Similarly, Hong explained how confidence provided her with the momentum she needed to accept more challenging positions:

At first, I joined the team as a research assistant. After two years of working, I was promoted to be a key researcher, then to be a team leader. With these experiences, I felt confident in the new position. We successfully completed the project with an international presentation and publication. People in the medical prevention field knew me and I felt more confident to take more challenging responsibilities.

Feelings of struggling to develop, being inadequate in knowledge and skills, and having low self-efficacy all negatively impacting on participants' motivation to take on more challenging tasks. Phuong acknowledged, "My English language competency was a barrier to access to professional development opportunities abroad, which made me give up my American dream." Luong described the disadvantages she faced that prevented her from improving her research quality, "I am not confident about my

research skills, so what I can do is to maintain my research at the basic quality level.”

Although they understood their limitations preventing further growth in their career, not all of them could change the situation by investing in competency improvement.

Commitment to continued improvement / Burnout with continued improvement.

While all participants highlighted their commitment to professional development as a motivating force, several acknowledged that burnout sometimes made them lose sight of their profession objectives. A strong desire to improve their qualification and expertise, especially Ph.D. degree, became a driving force for many faculty members to overcome the already over workload derived from multiple professional roles, in addition to being parents and breadwinners. To some, enrolling in a Ph.D. program abroad required a strong commitment, which could not be implemented without a constant incentive. For example, Hai spent a full sabbatical improving his English to meet the admission requirements, while Tran had to wait for almost ten years before she could leave her family for overseas study.

Commitment to improving competency throughout their career was a clear evidence of motivational force that could be witnessed in all participants' sharing. Some prioritized learning and were persistent in their commitment to engaging with learning opportunities whenever possible in different settings, both on and off campus. As Duong shared, “If I missed one important training session, I had to reach out to different resources to make up for the contents I missed. I need to improve myself anytime I have a chance.” The commitment to professional development was also seen as a tradeoff in terms of time and money. Hong said:

I can earn a lot of money by providing consultations for non-government organizations, but if I devoted too much to this extra job, I wouldn't have enough time for me to build my long-term professional success. So, I decided not to work for NGOs and put priority on building a strong foundation for my career development.

Conversely, a feeling of burnout often decreased faculty members' interest in their further learning and improvement. A majority of the participants experienced one or more times of feeling burned out, at different levels in their stories. There were various reasons, including a feeling of being unsupported, struggle with self-development tasks, and general dissatisfaction with their professional development. Phuong recalled a time when she was no longer enthusiastic the teaching and career development to which she used to be devoted:

One day, I realized that I was so exhausted because of struggling for my career for years, on my own. I was so stressed about my future: do I need to invest more in my teaching that has been perceived as excellent in the eyes of students and colleagues? I lost my energy and desire to pursue self-exploration and self-study for so long in my job. I stopped liking the work I did.

Lack of interest in self-improvement was also derived from being overworked, as the result of required responsibilities in participants' primary jobs and the need for taking on extra work. This situation diminished their commitment to learning and further self-development. As several participants said, "teaching extra in-service classes is the quickest way to destroy your love for the job" (Ngoc), and "with 27-hours of teaching

per week plus class preparation and grading, who can maintain interest and energy for self-learning?” (Tran) The scenario mostly applied to junior faculty members whose main source of additional income came from extra class teaching. At the mid-level and above, the workload was still high but the participants stated that they were able to pursue their interests with lower income pressure. This is because some faculty members received financial support from family members or could gain extra incomes from grant-supported research projects after completing their doctoral degrees.

Job repetition in teaching for long periods of time without significant changes became another reason causing participants’ decreased interest in self-improvement. Pham, a faculty member, who taught the same subjects in the same department for almost 20 years, confessed her lack of commitment to excellence in her teaching:

I am proud of being one of the few teachers who are most wanted by students.

However, for several years recently, I felt I did not teach as well as I had taught before, although I received no complaints. I am tired of keeping my energy up to a high level all the time.

Pham’s experience was found in many of the participants’ life stories. At the time of the interviews, she could not find a solution except for taking a sabbatical, but she added: “this solution is unrealistic in Vietnam.”

Commitment to impacts/ discouragement to make changes. Commitment to make differences in student learning, colleague work, institutions, and fields of study was considered a driving force for participants’ ongoing improvement. According to all

participants, responsibilities for student learning were set as the top priority in alignment with teaching performance. Duong shared her feeling in this regard:

I feel I have to be responsible for my students' future that is influenced by what and how they are educated today. Thus, I always try my best to improve myself while preparing and teaching each class. With every single class, the same content can be improved or adapted to best meet the needs of specific students. I have a strong aspiration to gain more knowledge about students and teaching methods.

Luong described her perceived responsibilities as a teacher:

Teachers need to inspire pre-service teachers who should nurture the love for their subject teaching and the subject content itself. Also, I realize that as a teacher, being a lifelong learner is modeling the importance of learning to my students.

The longer participants stayed in the profession, the more motivated they were to make impacts on others. Nevertheless, compared to their accountability for student learning, their feeling of accountability to colleagues was less strong. Their motivation to become mentors for the novice faculty members were found as the most common trend among these participants (n=8). Besides being as a personal mentor, several participants also initiated some mentoring programs within their department, aiming to formalize this activity and make higher impacts. For example, Trong shared his mission "to implement a mentoring program to assist junior faculty in their Ph.D. application in improving their English and research competencies needed for their future success in

application and study.” Nguyen recalled a time when she “could include junior faculty members and students in [her] research.” Dang considered “sharing with colleagues as a responsibility that I, as a faculty member, have to take when having opportunities to learn something new and useful.”

Noticeably, a few faculty members, returning from doctoral programs abroad, were inspired to promote organization change and development in their fields of study. These commitments motivated them to be more engaged in their scholar and service responsibilities. For example, Hong explained:

.... I think this scholarship [Australian Government Scholarship] focuses on the community impact through investment in its recipients. In the beginning, I may not contribute a lot to the community, but gradually, the impact of our research efforts has been recognized. We are invited to join some international collaborative projects, make a presentation, and work as consultants locally and internationally. These recognitions make me more committed to the work I am doing, which encourages me to keep learning and developing myself as a scholarly practitioner.

On the barrier side, feelings of discouragement related to the faculty roles did negatively impact participants’ efforts to contribute to make changes in their organization. In fact, the discouragement related to the roles rooted to the gap between how they were treated and how they should be treated as faculty members. For example, the feeling of being under-respected like “teaching workers”, “teaching machines”, and “inferiors to the administrative staff” significantly deteriorated their sense of belonging

to their organizations. In addition, a majority of the participants complained that as faculty members they should have received regular training opportunities but they did. This sense of being under-developed and under-invested diminished their contribution to the university improvement as members of their institutions. Nevertheless, although these discouraging feelings toward their institutions were common among a majority of the faculty, they all expressed their high commitment to their professional development as well as student learning and colleague development. Ngoc said for others:

[There are] lots of challenges we have to face from the unfavorable working and research conditions and inadequate compensation compared to our qualifications and competencies; there must be something to anchor me to the job: the love for students and the teaching job. As a teacher, I always have a sense of usefulness when I can contribute to the community.

Multiple roles. My data revealed that role conflicts, a personal factor, affected faculty members' decisions to engage in professional development activities. Role conflicts happened when faculty members assumed among multiple roles, such as a teacher, researcher, administrator and leader, money maker, parent, and learner. Depending on faculty members' career stages, gender, disciplines, educational background, and financial status, the conflicts between these roles varied.

Money making role and professional roles. The first and the most intensive role conflict happened between the role of a money maker and a learner. In a context of significantly low salary system, this conflict occurred to a majority of participants, except for a few participants who received financial supports from family members. The

conflict between their learning commitment and over workload of extra jobs for extra incomes seemed to be a common and unresolved issue among faculty members, especially at their early career stage. Hai recalled his experience:

.... At that time [after graduation], I could earn a lot of money from teaching in-service classes. But I have to acknowledge that too much teaching drained my efforts and energy so that I had no time for investing in knowledge enhancement.

Similarly, Nguyen blamed herself for being unable to commit to classroom teaching due to overwhelm with extra jobs in her early years of teaching. This role conflict resulted in An uncomfortable feeling, the direct consequence of role conflict, bothered her for a long time even later in her career.

Although this conflict was unavoidable, as faculty members moved to the next stage in the career, this conflict seemed to be less serious, especially among faculty members in science, engineering, and health, compared to those in social science. There are several reasons for this. First, to some faculty members, when money was no longer a strong motivation compared to it used to be, they either decided to “tradeoff money for learning opportunities” (Phuong) by “stopping or reducing teaching in-serve classes” (Ngoc) or “taking selective extra jobs” (Hong). In addition, for non-social science faculty members, at their mid-career with high qualification and experiences in research, the conflict was resolved when they could make extra income from research grants (Hai, Trong, and Ngoc). Nevertheless, several participants admitted that they had to admit that struggling with their desires for professional development within limited incomes

became their unwanted and unresolved dilemma in their career (Duong, Tran, and Phuong)

Family care and professional roles. Six out of nine female participants acknowledged the conflict of parenthood and professional commitment either as a permanent or periodic barrier in their career development. None of the male participants with dependent children reported to reduce their workloads or postpone pursuing learning opportunities due to parenting responsibilities. Nguyen shared:

When I have my first kid, I gave up demanding tasks, although I knew they are promising for my future career. I declined to take an overseas Ph.D. program I dreamed when my kids were young. Now they are grown up, I don't want to leave my job anymore. You see, now I have started my Ph.D. program here in Vietnam.

Similarly, Tran had to wait for 10 years for a Ph.D. program overseas when her daughter could manage herself in daily life. Unlike Nguyen and Tran who could pursue their Ph.D. programs, Le, a mother of two boys, could not make such a program as part of her career. She perceived “mothering responsibilities sometimes put pressure on my decision to pursue further study and constrain my professional development engagement.”

Even when deciding to take part in professional development activities, female faculty still struggled with their low engagement. In particular, several female participants acknowledged that conflict in time and effort priority between multiple roles impacted their learning engagement. For example, Thanh recalled her experience:

I took the master's program when my kid was only a few months old. A full-time mother, a full-time teacher, and a part-time student, I had to balance and sacrifice a lot. There was no other choice; my learning was my least priority, compared to motherhood and fulfillment of my professional responsibilities. The sacrifice of learning was something I could not make it up again in my entire career life.”

Educational background. Educational background, referring to education in undergraduate and graduate programs, played a critical role in participants' professional development experience. Educational background itself is an important professional development experience; it is also a critical influential factor affecting the rest of the participants' career. Educational background categorized the participants into two groups: the first group consists of faculty members who experienced the Ph.D. program overseas (n=6) in U.K, Thailand, Czech Republic, and Australia; and the other group obtained Master's and Ph.D. degrees in Vietnamese universities.

Generally speaking, the study data shows the participants in the first group acknowledged that their learning experience with overseas education was significant and laid a solid foundation for their future career as scholars. In particular, compared to faculty in the second group, participants in the first group, upon their arrival at the home university in Vietnam started expose to research work in their field as scholars with more confidence. Tran said, “In the program [Ph.D. program], I had opportunities to take courses on research and soft skills that prepared me for working in global research teams.” On the other hand, participants in the second group did not reached to that level of career transformation because they were not well prepared for becoming researchers

and scholars in their fields, especially in the international context. Thus, many of them struggled with their research competency and unsatisfactory quality of their own research studies. Luong said, “I still publish my studies but in local journals. I am not satisfied with my work..... I know my problems, but I don’t know how to make it better because I am stuck in this system.”

While Ph.D. education experiences made significant influence on participants’ scholarly career, experiences in short training courses or Master’s programs impacted on participants’ teaching practice. As the result of these experiences, the participants, regardless of their major, were more aware of students’ needs, willing to open to new teaching strategies, and interested in learning about teaching.

Other influential factors. Other factors, including gender, disciplines, and personality also affected professional development experiences. First, findings highlighted gender caused differences in the level of impacts on participants’ professional development. The female participants mentioned about family responsibilities more often than their male counterparts did. Thus, there is not clear evidence about the influence of family responsibilities on the male’s professional development. On the other hand, evidence shows that family responsibilities impacted on the female’s decisions on their degree-seeking program enrollment but did not affect their ongoing engagement in their professional roles in the long range. They tended to balance the mother role and professional roles, making sure that they could fulfill both responsibilities at the same time or one by one. Additionally, female participants acknowledged the emotional and financial support from the family members, while the

male faculty members were more likely to highlight organizational support they received.

Second, particular disciplines did not show significant differences regarding the impact on participants' professional development, although there were slight variations. All three participants in education were female and more aware of pedagogical knowledge and skills in teaching. Faculty in other disciplines, when given the opportunity to take part in training, also proved to have similar pedagogical competencies and interests. Also, faculty members in social studies, as compared to their colleagues in the natural sciences and health disciplines, did not have strong educational background in terms of qualifications at the international level. They seemed to struggle more, exposed less to research, and be less satisfied with their professional development.

In short, it is important to recognize numerous factors influencing faculty members' professional development; those factors originated from the context or individuals. In other words, professional development experiences were not only viewed as an attribute of faculty development participation but also as the results of interplay between personal and contextual factors. My study showed that the personal factors tended to be ongoing change while the contextual factors were rather stable. Additionally, the personal factors were shaped and changed while interacting with contextual factors, which together impacted the professional development. Although it is hard to generalize the impacts of influential factors on professional development of the Vietnamese faculty, engagement in overseas Ph.D. programs proved to contribute to transformational changes in their competency, self-efficacy, and career path.

To conclude the findings regarding to the impacts of interplay of contextual influences and personal factors on these Vietnamese faculty members, I used Tran's metaphor of "coach" to illustrate her profession development journey. While the deluxe coach refers to the academic environment in the U. K University where she experienced her Ph.D. education, the outdated coach refers to higher education context in Vietnam where she has been working:

Returning home from the doctoral program, I fell in an unpredictable dilemma. When I was in U.K higher academic environment, I felt I got used to be on a deluxe coach running fast and safely on a standardized modern and high-quality freeway and highway system. On the bus, people used seat belts and treat each other politely and ethically. The bus driver obeyed traffic rules, drove fast, and respected passengers. I felt safe and comfortable to enjoy the broad and beautiful view on the whole trip. Then, I returned to an outdated and stale coach. The driver drives carelessly with disrespect for passengers. The coach runs on a terrible route with a lot of small and big holes, making me move up and down. Passengers are of all kinds, few are polite, some make noises all the time, some even say bad words loudly. Others spit up and throw trash everywhere. Only a few people treat each other politely and ethically. Many times, I feel I want to leave this outdated coach, but I don't know where to leave. I get so stuck in this coach. The images of the two coaches exactly illustrate the academic contexts in two countries that I experienced.

Concept 4: Professional Development Strategies

An analysis of professional development participation and the influential factors highlighted that faculty development is an independent, self-directed, and lonely journey, and that faculty members believed very limited support from their institutions and professional organizations. In a centralized higher education system as Vietnam now has, contextual factors at the macro and meso levels were found to shape the personal elements, outweighing the impacts on individual experience. Concept 4, **professional development strategies**, focuses on performance-enhancing activities engaged in by Vietnamese faculty, and their reactions to them. While some participants described their strategies as a planned series of actions, others mentioned important patterns of actions or events. By comparing and contrasting participants' experiences and actions, several common strategies can be highlighted. The properties include *taking ownership*, *managing multiple roles*, and *continuous learning*. Table 12 described the concept of professional development strategies commonly used by the participants, its properties, their definitions, and typical codes.

Table 12 Concept 4: Professional Development Strategies

Concept	Properties	Definition	Typical codes
Professional development strategies: action, interaction, and reaction that faculty members take in response to influences regarding to their professional development	Taking ownership - <i>self-reliance</i> - <i>accepting attitude</i> - <i>self-motivation</i> - <i>accountability</i>	Individuals' decision on what and how they wanted to develop without a clear requirement from the institutions	I made a clear professional development pathway for me that I need to be committed. I had three, five, and ten-year action plans for myself. For example, I plan to apply to Ph.D. program between 2009 - 2011, completed the degree around 2016. I made it. Also, between 2016-2021, my objective is to become an expert in my field and have a startup. I am working on this plan with my high commitment and belief in my expertise.
	Managing multiple roles - <i>among professional roles</i> - <i>between learning and other roles</i> - <i>between money making responsibility and other responsibilities</i> - <i>between mothering responsibility and professional development</i>	Individuals' decisions on how to allocate their time and efforts among their roles and responsibilities	I spent 40% of my energy and time working on a moonlight job not relating to my expertise for the sake of having extra incomes, and the rest 60% on the teaching and research tasks I love. I also remember once in my career I had to give up a well-paid extra job after several months of doing. This was because the job did distract me from my career goals
	Continuous learning - <i>usage of prior experiences</i> - <i>learning transfer</i> - <i>reflection</i>	Individuals' decision on what and how they expand their knowledge and skills through learning	My learning journey started since the first day I was in the faculty appointment, it has taken for the last 25 years, and it cannot be different in the time ahead

Taking ownership of professional development. Taking ownership of one's professional development was a prominent strategy that all the participants used as there is a high consensus among the participants. Dang emphasized, "It was up to the individual to decide what and how they wanted to develop without clear requirements from their institutions". This situation caused many of the participants feeling exhausted and at times like it was not worth trying in the context of overwhelming number of barriers. In such a context, taking ownership of one's professional development was a key strategy for participants striving to meet their career goals. This includes techniques, such as self-reliance, an accepting attitude, self-motivation, and accountability.

Self-reliance. Self-reliance was a prominent strategy for participants in Vietnamese higher education. In this study, self-reliant refers to participants' proactive approach in which they constantly looked for ways to rely more on themselves and less on external support in the development of their profession. Self-reliance among these participants varied depending on the individuals and their relationships with other factors, especially educational background and institution support. Le's sharing could speak to a majority of participants about the self-reliance strategy they used:

I know that I have to save my life, but not waiting someone giving me a safe boat. I have practiced my professional development under this slogan for years and it works well in this context.

Throughout the participants' professional experiences, they initiated many professional development activities and implemented on their own, such as getting student feedback, learning technology application in teaching, and learning how to do research. The study

findings show that participants' professional development was independent from their institutions which primarily focused on administrative function, rather than academic supporting function. In this respect, faculty members kept trying and struggling to overcome their own barriers and improve their performance without relying on external support. Pham told her situation with worries:

I try to see how I can make it [international publication] in order to meet the new regulations issued by the Ministry of Education and Training; I have to but I have no way out now. But I think sooner or later I need to find a way on my own.

Nevertheless, the study data shows a shift in the self-reliance strategy, from solo to a more collaborative approach when participants reached to the senior stage, especially upon returning home from Ph.D. programs abroad. Overseas training programs, by providing these participants with confidence and foundational competencies, prepared them to use their self-reliance strategy more effectively, compared to how they did before. For example, after a significant learning experience abroad, Le improved her teaching by involving students in her classroom action research, rather than solely adjusting her instructional techniques on her own. Similarly, Hai, Dang, and Trong were more proactive in connecting with colleagues and seeking support from advisors when conducting collaborative research. Trong's professional development approach changed from replicating others' research methods on his own to seeking exposure to scholarly dialogues and getting feedback while doing research.

Furthermore, there was a trend among overseas Ph.D. degree holders who perceived themselves as agent of their own development with their competency and self-

efficacy. They decided to plan their profession around their colleagues sharing similar academic values and standards, which ensured their continuous development. Tran, who returned home upon earning her doctoral degree in the U.K., felt it hard to collaborate with colleagues who did not share similar research values. She tried to figure out how to work in the system:

It is very difficult to work with colleagues because of the differences in research related issues, such as mindset, ethics, quality, and professionalism. I stopped trying. I am looking for another group of faculty who can share my values in research. I am pretty sure it is difficult to find those people in this [Vietnam] system. I know I need to rely on my competency, hardworking, and professional network to establish my research teams.

An acceptance attitudes. Participants complained many unfavorable system elements, such as the low salary and compensation and unsupportive working environment that have been unchangeable. Hai expressed this sentiment, “We talked about these system errors as a habit for our whole life, and we all know we have to accept them.” This attitude of acceptance became self-motivation for faculty members to reach out to various professional development alternatives, rather than waiting for support. Nguyen remarked:

Doing research in Vietnam is difficult. You can access very limited free data with limited funding for research. Many times, I have to pay for the data from my expenses. I often think this is something in our system I could not change. I

simply think I love doing research and this is my choice. I don't want to complain but just try my best.

Pham, a faculty member in Pharmacy, added her explanation about the necessity of this attitude and adjusting behavior accordingly. Her explanation shed light on the advantages to applying this strategy in Vietnam:

I struggled to complete my dissertation in Vietnam. The lesson I learned most about this journey was how to research in a poorly equipped research condition without making it a shutdown factor to prevent me from doing research.

Compared to my colleagues who graduated from an advanced academic environment, I know how to work here. Many of them complained a lot about the inability to adjust themselves to this poorly equipped and supported environment. They even left the university.

Self-motivation. As discussed above, a majority of the participants agreed that due to the scarcity of extrinsic motivating factors, staying self-motivated was necessary for survival in Vietnamese academia. Keeping motivated relates to goal setting and a belief in achieving those goals. Several participants explained that they set short term or regular deadlines for smaller objectives, leading up to achieving their long-term goals. These small sets of objectives made them persistent and motivated to invest ongoing energy in their professional development. Tran explained:

I made a clear professional development pathway to which I needed to be committed. I had three, five, and ten-year action plans for myself. For example, I planned to apply to a Ph.D. program between 2009 and 2011 and completed the

degree around 2016. I made it. Also, between 2016 and 2021, my objective is to become an expert in my field and have a startup. I am working on this plan with my high commitment and belief in my expertise.

Also, all the participants kept themselves motivated with daily tasks and achievements. Participants' self-motivation strategy focused on maintaining a positive feeling about their continuous accomplishment, which inspired them to try harder for further achievement by taking part in further personal and professional development. Le shared how success fostered further efforts: "the application of a new technique in teaching made me continuously seek for more changes in teaching strategies." These participants gave themselves credit for tasks well done, which kept them moving forward in their learning and led to additional success.

Staying motivated also involved identifying unsatisfactory or unfavorable conditions and using them as motivation to locate and publicize better places for professional development. This self-motivation acted as guidance for participants when deciding on their professional development engagement. In particular, many expressed dissatisfactions with the low quality of local training programs, which caused them to reject these local programs and pursue other types of professional development activities. Trong said:

My negative experiences with the local master's program drove me to direct my effort towards seeking an overseas learning opportunity in an English-speaking country. As a result, I took a sabbatical year to learn English in order to get accepted into a Ph.D. program in Thailand.

Similarly, Phuong and Dang engaged in mentoring programs because they were excited and motivated to have a new learning journey. Phuong shared:

My experience as a junior faculty member was hard, as I had to struggle and learn everything on my own. Now, as a senior faculty member, I want to help junior faculty members by volunteering to be a mentor. With that initiative, I was excited to start a new learning journey.

Accountability. Taking accountability for one's professional development was another technique participant utilized to keep themselves motivated, even in unsatisfactory conditions. All the participants highlighted their accountability for their own professional development and high performance. They were also accountable for their contribution to changes of student learning, their institution practice, and development of their professional discipline. In particular, Luong explained how her accountability pushed her to keep trying to achieve a higher level of teaching quality:

Some students were not interested in learning, making me unmotivated; but I could not let them be. I often reflect on my teaching and the system operation and ask myself why they didn't want to learn? I realized that sometimes, I must be the responsible partly for this issue. Thus, I needed to invest more in improving teaching quality. As a result, the students, our products in this system, can better meet their social requirements and expectations.

Managing multiple role strategy. Role conflict, one of the personal challenges, arose when participants assumed multiple professional and life roles. The balancing and prioritizing among these multiple roles and responsibilities constantly changed,

depending on the participants' career paths and personal life stages. This strategy describes their individual decisions regarding how to allocate their time and effort to these roles and responsibilities. Role conflict happened to all the participants and at any career stage, but this challenge was even more serious and difficult to resolve for female faculty members. Some were simply wired to get used to juggling many responsibilities and letting the boundaries of their roles blend together. Others wanted the boundaries to be clear so they could focus on one task at a time.

Balance among professional roles. The data showed that the strategy of balancing professional roles differed depending on several factors such as career stage, type of university, and the choices made by individual faculty members. First, all participants acknowledged that their highest priority was teaching, and thus balancing between their teaching role and other professional responsibilities did not require significant effort. For those early-on in their careers, since teaching was their only professional role, prioritizing time and effort was not a substantial concern. Dang described this trend among the participants:

In the first five years of my career, we focused on learning the content knowledge needed for course teaching. Improving teaching competency means continuous learning and adjusting the process for the rest of your career. In Vietnam, it is up to the individuals to decide whether they want to improve their teaching, as there is no specific requirements for or formal evaluation of the teaching quality.

Second, when faculty members became more advanced in their careers, many added other responsibilities such as research, management, and service. Balancing and prioritizing time for research responsibilities might be a challenge for those who committed to research. Faculty members who highly devoted to research in research-oriented institutions did not report using this strategy as often as those who wanted to research at teaching universities. A lower teaching workload and more research support in these research-oriented universities accounted for the difference in strategies. Luong, a faculty member committed to research at a teaching university, spoke for the group:

It was a challenge for faculty to set aside time to conduct research while completing their substantial teaching workload. There is no other choice; I need to work very hard to balance the expected over workload in teaching and additional research. I needed to double my efforts for both tasks.

Others faculty members in teaching universities, though complaining about a lack of time for research, did not mention a balancing strategy since research was not their priority.

Third, at the middle and senior career stages, several participants, regardless of university type, employed a variety of strategies to balance their professional responsibilities. When some prioritized research, they shared their time and effort. Nguyen shared how she sacrificed personal resources for her research:

I committed more to research because I love doing research. I simply think since I love it, I can sacrifice many other things such as financial benefits and job promotions. If you don't like it, you need not try.

Others reduced their workload by refusing to teach extra in-service courses. In doing so, they could allocate their time and energy more reasonably among their professional roles. Ngoc said:

I would rather spend time on doing research with my students than teaching in-service courses in the evenings for extra money. When I was a novice faculty member, I taught many in-service classes for the sake of extra income. I earned a lot of money but I decided to stop teaching these classes as I need to invest in my profession.

Finally, sometimes balancing roles and responsibilities did not work; participants either had to sacrifice one role for another or accept unsatisfactory work quality. For example, Thanh felt guilty when she had to focus on managerial responsibilities and could not spend sufficient time on her teaching. Thanh and Luong were not satisfied with their research quality because of insufficient time spent on research.

Balancing learning and other roles. As discussed above, all participants acknowledged that engagement in various forms of learning in different settings played a critical role in their professional and personal development. They also all agreed that either implicitly or explicitly, learning was one of the most important lifelong professional activities they had to undertake in their careers. This strategy was applied differently depending on gender and the type of learning (such as formal and workplace).

Except for three female participants who decided not to pursue doctoral degrees, the participants described different strategies they used to complete Ph.D. programs.

Balancing formal learning and other roles was common among female participants whose mothering and homemaking roles impacted their choices regarding participation in professional development, especially in formal degree programs.

Although all participants agreed that informal workplace learning was a lifelong task, there was little evidence of clear strategies for promoting informal learning. Most of the time, informal learning was not prioritized unless particular learning needs or opportunities emerged. Duong explained, “I might miss knowledge in the training workshop, so I would try to grasp it by any means.” Trong said, “I put the priority on my English learning for one year to meet the requirements for a Ph.D. program abroad.” Generally, spending time on lifelong learning was a challenge for faculty members who at the same time were responsible for multiple functions. Taking advantage of professional learning opportunities is difficult when time and resources were scarce. However, most participants could make themselves continue to learn in various settings, which they viewed as a part of their professional development obligation.

Balancing money-making and other responsibilities. In a system notorious for insufficiently low salaries, all the participants reported having to develop various ways of dealing with financial issues that conflicted with their professional commitments. The data analysis showed three common strategic patterns. The first trend happened among junior faculty members who took extra jobs and taught extra classes for money. Trong, one of these participants, acknowledged: “I made a lot of money, but I know I had to sacrifice professional development opportunities to resolve my basic financial needs.” Conversely, several participants who put a priority on learning about teaching

affirmed their significant achievement in improving their teaching competency (Phuong).

The second trend occurred when financial issues were not a major concern; this was most common with mid and senior faculty members. Participants with higher levels of expertise could maintain a stable income to support their career pursuits. Thus, they all shifted their priority to the quality of their profession and professional development experiences. For example, Hong was able to balance various roles:

I spent about less than half of my energy and time working on a moonlighting job not relating to my expertise for the sake of earning extra incomes. And the rest of my time I invested on the teaching and research tasks I love. I also remember once in my career when I had to give up a well-paid extra job because it distracted me from my career goals.

The third trend refers to participants who were committed to their professional role and development while trying to manage on the basic official salary. They tried to use a sense of self-motivation and high satisfaction with task completion as compensation for the imbalance between their professional demands and financial needs. Thanh shared her dilemma between her job and life:

[with my official salary of an Associate department Head], I have to accept the financial support from my parents and spouse because my salary sufficiently covers the living expenses for only myself. I am so upset and disappointed. To me, this is my failure because I can't earn more money for a better life for me and family member, but must depend on others financially. Nevertheless, I

decide not to change my way of working and living as I am so responsible for my job, I feel happily accept the situation, I often say to myself, ‘I am lucky because my family loves me and supports my choice and let me depend on them.’

Mothering responsibilities and professional development. Motherhood was identified as the top priority for many of the female participants, especially when their children were young. They used different techniques to cope with this conflict in this critical time in their lives. Nguyen prioritized motherhood and care for her children. She explained, "I maintained my teaching work to meet the basic teaching requirements and spent most of my time on my kids for about seven or eight years." Unlike these individuals, Duong, a very dedicated teacher, recalled her difficult choices at every moment of this critical time, and her attempts to strike a balance between “[her] baby who is totally dependent on [her] and the students who needed good teaching and would leave [her] one day. I am very conscious about the fragmentation of this balance.”

Learning strategy. Participants’ professional development experiences centered on learning activities, either in formal educational or workplace settings. Nguyen’s perspective on continuing education summarized most participants’ views, “my learning journey started the first day I received the faculty appointment; it has taken the last 25 years, and it will not be different in the time ahead.” Although participants acknowledged that learning was an important strategy in professional development, limited data from the participants was available to explain how they planned their learning as a strategy. Nevertheless, data identified several common learning strategies among the participants across their career stages, including reflection, use of prior

knowledge, and transfer of learning. These strategies were used either consciously or unconsciously, intentionally or unintentionally, throughout their careers. Learning strategies took the form of interplay between formal education and workplace learning in various settings.

Use of prior knowledge. Use of prior knowledge is a learning strategy focusing on comparing and contrasting new knowledge with prior experience. Several participants expressed their confusion when their prior experiences contradicted or were inconsistent with new training and workplace learning. These contradictions occurred when they were exposed to new knowledge in overseas training programs or when they took part in a learning activity. Le explained why and how the unlearning and relearning process contributed to her practice:

In 2009, I attended a training course in curriculum and assessment. Students were asked to design a test. After submitting my assignment, the instructor asked me to rewrite the test questions. I did not understand since I submitted the writing test I used for students at my university in Vietnam. After reviewing the textbook and class notes, I knew how to improve the question. In particular, my first test question was: ‘Write a paragraph of about 150 words about the following topic: Why are graduate students in Vietnam not preferred by employers?’ When rewriting this question, I brought the context in and revised it as: ‘You have just graduated from a tier-one university in Vietnam and applied to several companies. Unfortunately, you received rejection letters for several reasons, among which lack of experience was the most common. Write a paragraph of

150 words explaining why employers do not prefer recruiting new graduates.'

Later, the instructor used my test question as a good example in the class. I was so excited with this new approach to writing test questions.

Nguyen's experiences in the profession also enlightened her regarding misconceptions she had about her self-image, career path, and professional development. She explained how she learned and reacted appropriately to her new knowledge:

I did not take the doctoral degree seriously. I used to think it was not necessary as long as I concentrated on teaching and doing the best for the students. But when attending seminars, workshops, and other professional activities, I realized I held a Master's degree while others had a doctoral degree. I felt under qualified although I produced quality work. Then, I changed my perspective of the Ph.D. degree and decided to enroll in a program.

Several participants also acknowledged that new knowledge from training courses, especially overseas experience, re-enforced their teaching practice with different perspectives. Thus, they felt assured and more confident when continuing to use their prior knowledge. For example, Dang's ideas represented several of his colleagues. He shared:

The knowledge about teaching provided in overseas training programs was systemized, which gave insight into the development of teaching practices around the world and confirmed the teaching techniques I often used.

Nevertheless, other thought that these training programs in pedagogy "offered little value to [my] professional development." (Pham)

The final technique related to learning from prior knowledge was applied by participants when they encountered new concepts that had no connection with their prior knowledge. The process of exploring and acquiring new skills was described by several. For example, Hai explained how he used this learning tool for his professional development, “Sometimes, in training programs, instructors mentioned new concepts and terminology that offer a new kick off for further self-study and exploration from various resources.”

Learning transfer. This strategy refers to ways in which participants could apply what they gained from learning at the workplace. When participants were engaged in professional development activities, they hoped to learn new techniques and expected to transfer them to their places of employment. Participants applied different learning transfer techniques, depending on the knowledge and skills they were hoping to transfer, and the context.

More than half of the participants acknowledged that they could apply what they learned in their existing job in the department where they experienced their undergraduate education. In particular, Ngoc and Luong, who had opportunities to learn how to research in their undergraduate programs, enthusiastically and confidently replicated this approach when teaching their own students. In other cases, Thanh and Nguyen transferred what they learned from their mentors to their teaching and classroom management practices. Dao explained how he used this strategy to transfer what he learned in his master’s program to his classroom teaching in some department:

... the lecturer's expertise and teaching methods [in one of the courses I took in the master program] were valuable for me, as a junior faculty, to learn from. I could apply them in my teaching for undergraduates right away, although it took me several years to improve the teaching methods until I could see their effectiveness. This way of learning saved my time and effort, compared to the self-exploration approach.

In addition to positive experiences, several participants also tried to strategically perceived their prior negative experiences as examples they should avoid repeating in their future practice. For example, Phuong explained how she learned from her prior unsatisfactory learning experiences and improved her existing performance:

I experienced this education system for 16 years as a student and another 12 years as a faculty member. I was so tired of the teaching method by which teachers lecture and students learn by heart. I am strongly motivated to change my teaching method by minimizing lectures and focusing on problem-based learning. I created a collaborative learning environment in which students were encouraged to learn from each other and from me.

The transfer occurred more frequently with participants who had experience with overseas training programs. They had strong desire to apply the new knowledge and skills they gained overseas to the local Vietnamese context. The most desirable elements included instructional techniques, classroom management, evaluation processes, technology application in teaching, and research knowledge and skill. However, gaps between the two contexts in terms of academic infrastructure and culture prevented them

from successfully applying new teaching approaches in Vietnam. Dang explained how his learning transfer did not work at his university, or in the Vietnamese higher education system:

A part of my training, I worked as a teaching assistant for a professor in a U.S university. I shadowed his techniques in designing learning activities, classroom management, and evaluation. Back home, I realized that faculty cannot apply online learning management systems and other learning techniques. Nobody wants to waste time and effort adding burdens when they are already overloaded in an unsupportive system. How can we apply online classroom teaching when we have to handle an incompatible technology system, a huge workload from teaching many classes, each class with 80 to 100 students and no teaching assistants, and a low salary?

Finally, besides impacting their students' education, participants tried to use their learning to drive their colleagues' behavioral and organizational changes. They held themselves accountable for transferring what they learned so it might benefit others. Their contribution focused on developing others in terms of knowledge sharing in in-house workshops, mentoring, informal dialogues, and by introducing professional development to faculty members. In particular, Dang along with others (n = 6) expressed their perspective on sharing as a way of transferring knowledge, "I always have the tendency to share with colleagues what I learned. It is strange to keep it for me only ... I also suggest facilitating workshops in the orientation programs for junior faculty members for free." Nevertheless, their efforts are not always welcome. Dang added:

When I shared my experiences in applying technology to teaching in department seminars, about five out of 15 showed their resistance to change. Another five expressed their ignorance and only three or four showed interest and wanted to learn more. Later, some of them applied it to teaching and classroom management. They were happy with the positive feedback from students. Similarly, several participants tried to make an impact at the department level, but these efforts received leaders' ignorance due to university's limited resources and insufficient time (Dang and Tran).

In short, the transfer of learning strategies was a common theme found across participants. Most of the time, learning transfer occurred as the result of significant learning experiences that participants had in overseas programs. Most transfers occurred at the individual level when participants applied new knowledge and skills to change their behavior in the workplace, impacting their students' learning and colleagues' practices. It was a major challenge for many participants who desired to apply what they gained in their overseas Ph.D. programs in a local academic context. Tran's strategy was a typical example of how she and other participants pursued the international level of expertise in a local context:

No way could I apply the research ethics and research quality from the U.K University where I was educated to be an international researcher in my field. I gave up working in this system, and just focused on seeking internationally funded projects where I could pursue my work value in ways that met

international standards. This is the part of the world I feel I belong to, the one I hardly find here in Vietnamese academia.”

Reflection. Several participants used reflection as a learning tool to gain insight from their meaningful experiences and make appropriate decisions regarding their professional development and thus improve existing performance. Participants used reflection techniques in different contexts. First, several participants kept reflecting on their practice seeking ongoing answers to core questions, such as “Who am I as a faculty member?” “What should I do to improve myself and be more useful?” and “Who do I want to be?” Continuous reflection, therefore, served as a means of assisting participants with examining their thoughts and feelings while experiencing a series of events. This helped them discover new meaning and heighten self-awareness about their professional and personal values. Luong shared an example:

Due to my awareness of my shortage of knowledge and methods, I always tried to learn and explore more to fill in these gaps. Sometimes, I felt I could not reach the level I hoped because of many challenges in my professional and personal lives. But consciously, I deeply understood that I needed to improve myself as a teacher and researcher. To that aim, I worked harder to meet the various needs of students and deal with students who are not interested in the subject.

In another case, Luong described her ongoing reflection over nearly ten years, during which she regularly questioned her teaching and professional practices until she figured out what she wanted to do and be. As a result, she modified her reactions and behavior accordingly. However, other faculty members could not find the right career

path. Still Phuong explained her situation: “Although I learned a lot from juggling with different roles, I could not figure out what I wanted. To be honest, I did not know how I could do it differently. I really don’t know.”

In addition, reflecting on experiences in the early stages of their careers was highlighted as an effective technique by those who wanted to be good mentors for junior faculty members. Some faculty members applied their prior mentorship experiences when mentoring new faculty members. In particular, Trong benefited from mentorship during his Ph.D. program. He transferred these learning experiences and put them to use in an initiative for new faculty in his department. Thanh also told a story about how she applied the information she received from her mentoring to her students’ mentorship:

I unconsciously replicated how my mentors encouraged me to get out of my comfort zone and provided guidance and valuable feedback on my performance.

I did not know until one of my young colleagues who used to be my student said, ‘you are my most impressive teacher who helped me to reach my potential’.

Some faculty members who did not benefit from mentorship felt they “had to struggle to find a career path” and “double [their] efforts to understand what was right and not right in the profession” (Phuong). Later in their careers, they committed to engaging in mentorship with junior faculty members, hoping they could help them grow more effectively into their careers.

Reflection, in practice, was an integral learning step, allowing individuals to connect their teaching performance to their teaching effectiveness. All participants acknowledged that they used this reflection to improve their teaching and increase

student learning. Most integrated their reflections on students via student feedback, the results of assessments, and self-reflection on teaching. This learning process allowed faculty members to modify their teaching practice according to what they wanted their students to master and how they might work towards those objectives. Nguyen shared how her reflections on different resources helped her improve her instructional techniques:

I remember once in my career, in my teaching I used a lot of slides; both the teacher and students were happy. Although they gave me positive feedback, their assignments were terrible due to a lack of practice. I changed my strategy by reducing lectures using slides; and later I decided not to use PowerPoint in my teaching. Instead, I designed assignments in a way that gave students opportunities to self-study, self-research, and present their work. My teaching philosophy and teaching strategy have changed over of teaching. The goal is to help students transfer knowledge into performance.

Unlike Nguyen, Luong used reflection to continue asking questions about her teaching and her students' learning, hoping to gain insights into these issues. In doing so, Tran knew what, why, and how to develop. She said:

I think I need to reflect on myself and the education system to understand why some students did not perform well in class and why they don't like my subject. Is it their fault or my fault? Many times, it is our fault; we cannot solely blame students for their study. So, it is required of us, as instructors, to step back to think about behaviors and the situations. Many times, I put myself in their

position, which helped me to make more sense of my teaching and their learning. Thus, I need to try harder to improve my performance so that our [graduates] can meet social expectations.

Finally, the common reflections among several participants touched on the differences in quality between local and overseas training programs. This knowledge affected participants' future choices regarding their professional development plans. For example, Ngoc said:

I had opportunities to take part in training workshops taught by visiting American professors and similar ones taught by Vietnamese professors. Even with similar topics the quality was not even comparable. The local ones covered outdated knowledge without evidence-based information and their classes were taught in a boring format. In contrast, the ones taught by foreign professors were hands-on, practical, and impactful. I observed that it was a huge challenge for our instructors to reach the international level in terms of professionalism and quality; they can't reach that level. I decided not to take any other local program if it is not required.

Concept 5: Professional Development Outcomes

The outcomes category refers to participants' achievements resulting from professional development participation. The properties of the outcomes included changes competency and performance, self-efficacy, and self-concept. The integrative nature of the outcomes showed connections among the domains across multiple professional roles and in different settings. Table 13 describes these outcomes as a

matrix of these four domains (i.e., competency, performance, self-efficacy, and self-concept) in multiple professional roles (i.e., intellectual, teaching, research, and service).

Table 13 Concept 5: Professional Development Outcomes

Concept	Properties	Definition	Typical codes
Professional development outcomes: the achievements that participants gained as the result of professional development participation	Expertise improvement	changes in specialized knowledge, skills, and attitudes	[In my early teaching career] I worked so hard and learned the most from informal channels ... for my teaching and my career development.
	Personal development	enhanced personal qualities and communication skills with others in their professional community	I felt I am confident when working with students and colleagues. I also see that I know how to persuade leaders to support me to implement my initiative of a mentoring program in my department.
	Teaching improvement	improvement in teaching competency and performance, enhancement of self-efficacy, and changes in self-concept	I experienced a long education about teaching, on teaching, and for teaching, I really grew. I see myself as significantly different in terms of using the English language and teaching techniques, and interacting with students. The future is still ahead.
	Research improvement	improvement in research competency and performance, enhancement of self-efficacy, and changes in self-concept	At first, I was involved in a project as a research assistant. With each event, I felt I made progress. When the project was implemented at 30 sites, I was responsible for the quality of the project. We presented our findings at an international conference. Then, I was known by people in the field and I was invited to important related events
	Improvement in other areas	Improvement in mentoring and faculty development	

This section elaborates on the outcomes of professional development participation as they related to three domains of competency and performance, as well as self-efficacy and self-concept in the areas of expertise, teaching, research, and service. Not every professional development experience led to outcomes and not all outcomes were positive. Outcomes relating to competency and performance referred to changes in participants' behavior as a result of competency improvement. Professional development resulted in changes in self-efficacy changes were outcomes of produced when participants had more or less confidence in their ability to complete tasks. Self-concept built upon how faculty perceived themselves based on their competency, performance, and self-efficacy as they related to their professional roles.

Expertise improvement. Changes in expertise refer to specialized competency improvements related to specific knowledge, skills, and attitudes in the individual's field of study. Improvement in specialized competencies laid a foundation for each faculty member's enhanced performance in various roles and in different settings. Outcomes of professional development were evident in respondents' increases in content knowledge, enhancement of technical skills, and changes in attitude towards professional improvement.

First, the outcomes of content knowledge varied depending on the task required. At the early career stage, these outcomes aligned with the courses individuals taught. With clear learning objectives, all participants invested effort in learning from various sources and were not limited to self-directed learning from materials, mentorship, and master's programs. Phuong recalled her experience: "I thought [during my early

teaching career] that I worked so hard and learned the most from informal channels ... for my teaching and my career development.” Formal education in master’s programs also helped “to fill in the gap between knowledge gained from a bachelor’s degree and what was required by the teaching” (Thanh), which was considered “limited and below expectation” (Phuong).

When faculty members moved to mid and senior levels, the urgent need for content knowledge improvement decreased. They invested less effort in learning new content knowledge and kept updating their knowledge as a part of their continuous professional development. As a result, these participants acknowledged that the knowledge they gained was limited. Phuong explained, "I realized the knowledge I imparted to students was not much different for many years, as it has been so limited and isolated [from developments in the discipline]." Dang added, “I need not spend time on improving my mathematics knowledge for teaching foundation math courses.” Later in their careers, many participants described their practical knowledge improvement as an outcome of their off-campus part-time jobs for businesses and other organizations. Ngoc and Pham both described gaining a practical understanding of their major topics in Business and Pharmacy via the consultation services they provided for businesses. Dao learned about climate change in practice while taking part in several projects with companies. Hong obtained more in-depth knowledge in health prevention by engaging in various nationwide field research projects on victims. Obviously, this finding did not hold true for participants who did not work off campus.

The data showed that the practical knowledge participants mastered led to changes in their perceptions of the types of knowledge and skill they needed to transfer to students. These faculty members valued competencies required by the actual business world, rather than textbook-based academic knowledge. Dao shared how his beliefs in practical knowledge changed:

In the first few years, my lesson plans mostly covered knowledge from textbooks and materials I had from the classes I took ... Then, after years of working on several projects addressing climate change, I realized that we need to teach what industries need, rather than what we think we are good at.

Noticeably, these participants shifted their focus from foundational or basic knowledge at the early career stage to practical knowledge at their career mid-points. After moving to the senior stage, several faculty members believed that as intellectuals they could better understand in-depth theories that would shed light on their practical knowledge. The perception shift trend from principles/textbook knowledge to practical knowledge, and then to academic knowledge was true of half the participants. Most had practical experience working in industry and doctoral-level educations. The perception shift was not necessarily the case for others who lacked one or more of the characteristics, and did not apply to those whose discipline was Education and some sub-majors of that field.

Personal competency development. These outcomes were not reported directly as the result of participants' professional development but were found to be obvious from their experience. Personal and interpersonal competency improvement referred to enhanced personal qualities and communication skills as compared to others in their

professional community. After years of managing their professional lives on their own and with only limited support from their organizations, a majority of the respondents developed self-reliance and an independent attitude. In fact, in Vietnam's higher education system, these two competencies addressed several sub-competencies, such as self-motivation, problem-solving, flexibility, and communication. This overall competency was developed as a result of their professional development experience, which was then applied in the professional development process as a key strategy. Self-reliance was found to be an integral attribute contributing to participants' professional development process and outcomes. Pham explained:

My dissertation completion was mostly a self-survival process in which I learned on my own, with some help from my colleagues who were doing their doctorates abroad. I completed my dissertation in [Pharmacy]. It was a big challenge for a Ph.D. candidate to complete the program in Vietnam, where research resources are so limited. Also, I had to decide everything in my dissertation, such as the research topic, research design and method, and research timeline, on my own. These challenges were opportunities to train myself to become self-reliant and independent in my research career. This experience also helped me to effectively guide my students in their research in this local context. I view my Ph.D. completion from a pro and cons perspective. However, many overseas Ph.D. holders cannot adapt to this education system where everything is a shortage. They get stuck and choose to leave Vietnam for an overseas well-supported academic environment to pursue their research career.

The participants all shared evidence of their personal skills and attitudes regarding working with others throughout their careers. They felt confident about and effective at dealing with students, colleagues, and leaders. They described their "improved problem-solving skills when working with students and colleagues" (Phuong), "deep understanding of students and junior faculty members' needs to better meet their needs" (Nguyen), and "success in engaging colleagues in getting involved in department work" (Trong). A majority of the participants perceived English language competency as a critical skill needed for career advancement. Except for several participants who mastered English competency as undergraduates, only a few participants (n = 4) could invest time and effort in improving their English competency to the level so that they could use it as a medium for learning and working in an international academic context.

Teaching improvement. The data showed that faculty development for improving teaching skills was the most common type of faculty development activity.

Teaching competency and performance improvement. All participants viewed the acquisition and development of teaching competencies to be the result of a continuous professional development process. This process began either in participants' pre-service education or the first days of their faculty appointments and carried on throughout the rest of the careers. The teaching competency outcomes varied depending on individual values related to learning how to teach.

The first group of participants (n = 6) included individuals who believed in "[their] nature making them a good teacher" (Nguyen). Their teaching improvement

centered on the regular adjustment of teaching practice. Participants in this group did not highly value a basic knowledge of teaching and learning or formal training in teaching. Pham's experience illustrated her perspective on the role of training versus her "nature" as a teacher: "[My students] said I am a born teacher ... an overseas training program about teaching that I attended helped me to systemize my knowledge of teaching. But to me, the training just added flavor to my teaching practice and confirmed the teaching techniques I had often used in class." These participants' teaching improvement was an ongoing process of adjustment and change in teaching strategy based on students' feedback and performance as characterized by tests and assignments. Gradually, respondents gradually shifted their lecture-dominant approaches to student-centered methods with focus on group work and research tasks.

The second group of participants (n = 5), including faculty in Education and those who underwent significant pedagogical training, were aware of the value of pedagogical knowledge and skill and its effect on teaching performance. Unlike Nguyen and Pham who believed in her nature as a good teacher, Dang and Le, who had the opportunity to attend a training program abroad, thought that good teaching should be considered outcomes of a continuous learning about teaching:

... Many things covered in the training I knew and used in my teaching, such as techniques for teaching and evaluation. In the training, I had the opportunity to master formal knowledge systematically and theoretically. This provided me with an overview of knowledge about what, why, and how I can practice in the Education field, how to motivate students, how to make them interested in class,

and how to quantify teaching and learning performance ... I came to the conclusion that the core value of teaching is to inspire students to learn, and not only to impart knowledge.

In addition, participants in this group regularly updated their pedagogical knowledge through various learning opportunities, such as workshops and seminars in teaching, training programs, and self-reflection regarding their practice. Improving teaching was a learning process and its outcomes were “an accumulation of knowledge enhancement, teaching technique application, and teaching and learning alignment, toward meeting students’ learning needs and expected learning outcomes” (Phuong). Thus, performance improvement was evident in the application of technology in teaching and changes in teaching methods based on new pedagogical knowledge and skill.

The third group of participants ($n = 3$) did not belong in either of the above groups; their experiences did not show a clear approach to teaching improvement. These faculty members focused more on student learning, rather than their teaching behavior and performance. They relied more on teaching what they thought was important to students’ learning and development. In particular, Hong and Hai remarked that they included evidence-based knowledge in teaching because they thought students needed to know about it. In general, it was difficult to identify improvement in these participants’ competency and performance outcomes as a result of their professional development process.

The above classification of participants into groups helped to identify trends in teaching competency and performance as the result of participants’ professional

development. Among the three groups, participants in the second, those who valued pedagogical training, were more likely to gain better outcomes in terms of teaching competency and performance. They gained teaching knowledge and skill from different resources, which laid a foundation for their behavior and subsequent performance improvement. The first group, faculty who believed in their “nature” as teachers, viewed improvement in their teaching performance as the result of adjusting their process and pedagogical activity. The final group included participants who did not have a clear approach to professional development and did not show clear improvement in teaching competency and performance. However, regardless of the group to which they belonged, all participants agreed that teaching improvement was a significant outcome of individual professional development. Le concluded:

I experienced a long education about teaching, on teaching, and for teaching, I really grew. Compared to my teaching ten years ago, I see myself as significantly different in terms of using the English language and teaching techniques and interacting with students. These positive changes resulted from a challenging and ongoing process of self-study, formal learning, and experience in teaching. The future is still ahead. In the next ten years, I will still be in this non-stop learning process.

Self-efficacy in teaching. All participants at the senior stage, those with 10 to 27 years of teaching, expressed high levels of self-efficacy. They acknowledged that an improved sense of self-efficacy was the result of direct experience in teaching, social evaluation, and the use of role models. The stronger their sense of self-efficacy became,

the more confidence they had in their ability to influence student learning and engagement. Table 14 explains different relationships among sources and evidence of self-efficacy in teaching for these participants.

Table 14 Relationship between the Sources and Evidence of Self-efficacy in Teaching

Self-efficacy in teaching	Sources of evidence	Teaching experience/ achievement	External evaluation	Role model
Apply teaching strategies		12	12	4
Re-enforce their prior experiences		4	8	N/A
Be flexible in working with students		7	3	N/A

Table 14 shows that self-efficacy was most evident in participants' beliefs regarding their ability to apply what they gained from their professional experience in their teaching practice (n = 12), followed by the ability to reinforce their prior experiences (n = 8), and be flexible in working with students (n = 7). A large majority of the participants acknowledged that their teaching experiences, achievements, and external evaluations were the main sources of their confidence in and motivation to transfer what they gained from their experiences with teaching. Role models were found to provide confidence to some participants (n = 4) early on in their careers, but there was not strong evidence of the same later in their careers.

Most of the participants agreed that their experiences with and achievements in teaching made them feel more confident in their role as educators. Teaching experience

and achievement acted as evidence that participants were authentic teachers and raised their confidence in their competency. Respondents shared a variety of stories about how their mastery contributed to the powerful influence of their efficacy belief. Le shared an example:

I saw that my class was successful because the students were engaged in class activities. Their reflective assignments were much better than I had expected ... I also realized that content knowledge was very important, and that teaching strategies were no less important. After a successful class, I am even more motivated and confident to try new instructional techniques and engage students in class. I love the job and students even more after these experiences.

Similarly, teaching achievements were found to have a powerful influence on efficacy beliefs when prior experience was reconfirmed by new experiences. Several participants said that the knowledge and skills they gained from formal pedagogical training added theoretical and systematic perspectives to their existing teaching practice. Thus, they had an increased sense of confidence in their competency to further promote their existing teaching practice and share it with colleagues. Sometimes, new experiences either rejected prior understanding or were unfamiliar to participants. They needed time to reverse the learning process because it could lead to confusion about their self-efficacy. Nguyen shared a story about advising an Italian exchange student. During this process, she observed the student and asked herself questions about her teaching practices and the higher education system in Vietnam:

The way this student [Italian exchange student] worked was so different from my experiences working with Vietnamese students. For example, our students are passive in their learning, while that student was so active and responsible for his education ... After watching how students from other educational systems learned, I was so confused about how I was educated and how I teach my students. I don't know, but I could feel my confidence as an effective teacher erodes, even though I used to be proud of it.

The more teaching achievements respondents accumulated, the higher their self-efficacy grew, especially in terms of helping students reach their full potential. Duong, Nguyen, and Phuong believed in their ability to understand students' needs and personalize teaching strategies to meet them and the course objectives. However, Luong had unresolved concerns about working with unengaged students, who made her unsatisfied and less positive about her teaching competency.

The completion of a formal program or research project also contributed to participants' self-efficacy with regards to teaching. Upon completion, these respondents felt confident about being well-equipped with professional knowledge and skill and were ready to make changes. Le described her experience of returning from an overseas training course in pedagogy:

I am better equipped with new theories and practices in learning assessment and evaluation. I was so excited about a current evaluation approach that I used to conduct some action research with my students. It proved that the new method was more effective for students' learning performance, compared to the old one.

Several other participants also remarked that their progress in work and research gave them a higher level of confidence about transferring their hands-on experience in classroom teaching and curriculum improvement. They believed in their ability to use their practical experiences in teaching for the benefit of their students. Dao, Pham, and Ngoc were typical examples. Ngoc expressed his confidence in teaching business students to do market research:

Years of running a business and providing consulting services for businesses were valuable practical experiences I could share with students and use to teach students to do business with confidence.

Social evaluation was also regarded as an important factor contributing to participants' self-efficacy in their teaching. According to many respondents, positive social evaluations such as recognition, positive feedback, and promotions gave them the belief that they could deliver high-quality teaching and make a difference in student learning. Ngoc shared his view: "Students' achievements and recognition from employers gave me the sense that I could do something useful for my students and society."

Finally, role models were reported to be a source of self-efficacy for faculty members, especially at the early career stage. Several participants showed that their early experiences watching or working with mentors profoundly influenced their sense of efficacy. They had a strong belief that they gained valuable pedagogical and content knowledge from their experienced mentors. Nguyen thought: "My first mentor set an example of a model teacher who was committed to supporting students and junior

faculty members ... Later in my career, when looking back, I realized his example significantly affected my self confidence in my behavior in terms of teaching and working with students.”

Self- concept as a teacher. An analysis of the data revealed evidence related to the formation and growth of a self-concept as an outcome of professional development. Participants’ self-concept with regards to their role as a teacher denotes their beliefs about themselves as teachers in relation to their students. When a teacher’s self-concept was seen as an outcome of professional development, it became developmental and changeable across the various career stages. Early on, in their early 20s, participants began their faculty appointment with little understanding about their teaching role. Their initial self-concept as a teacher was strongly influenced by their self-view and other references, such as experiences in their undergraduate education and mentorship. As respondents grew more experienced, they constructed their self-concept as a teacher from an accumulation of professional development experiences. Perceptions of their teaching role were developed by the increased competency and self-efficacy resulting from the interplay of teaching practice and learning to teach. Thus, it is important to view teachers’ self-concept construction as a process of changing perceptions and beliefs about teaching and learning. Self-concept was analyzed in relation to student learning and the teaching profession, and covered self-perception in the classroom, teacher-student relationships, and associations with colleagues.

Self-concept with regards to a teacher's relationship to their students refers to what participants believed them to be as classroom educators. Except for a few who

focused primarily on other roles such as research or administration, a majority experienced changes in their beliefs about their classroom pedagogy. Some respondents shifted their self-conceptions sooner than others from the role of knowledge transmitter to competency facilitator or instructor. Nguyen's story illustrated this process of change. As a junior faculty member, she perceived herself to be an active teacher who taught mostly in the classroom and transmitted information she believed would be useful to her students:

I used to try hard to be an effective teacher. At that time, to me an effective teacher meant I could deliver excellent lectures using lots of PowerPoint techniques. I wanted students to leave my classes with a happy feeling, like they finished an interesting movie. Then both the teacher and students feel happy.

Gradually, through student feedback, Nguyen realized that her active role was disconnected from students' learning. She slowly transformed her focus from being teacher-centered to something more student-centered, shifting her self-perception from the teaching role to that of a facilitator in class. Nguyen added:

At first, I spent so much time searching and including a lot of information in my lecture, then reducing the contents; after that I set it all aside. Instead, I began designing assignments that allowed students to self-study, self-research, self-report, and self-present. Even the assignments needed to be adjusted so they best met students' needs and levels. I learned how assignments helped students to transfer theories and knowledge into solving problems in the discipline. It is a lifelong process of adjustment.

Most of the participants at the senior level agreed with Nguyen and viewed themselves as facilitators responsible for preparing students for their future roles. Some with substantial practical experience believed that they could equip students with the job readiness skills and attitudes needed to adapt to a work environment (Dang, Ngoc, and Nguyen). Others described caring about helping students to master personal skills such as critical thinking, learning, and problem-solving (Phuong, Lam, and Hang). Still others highlighted their facilitating role in preparing students for being good citizens and teachers, stating that it was their mission to change the next generation (Duong and Luong). Their self-concept as a facilitator/instructor was reinforced by their inner satisfaction, social recognition, experience in training courses, and pride in their students' performance. Nevertheless, some faculty members were afraid that their weaknesses might prevent them from fully functioning as a facilitator:

How can I teach students to research while I myself am struggling with my work and cannot be out of this situation? I feel that my knowledge is still limited compared to what students need to learn. Sometimes, it is a challenge for me if I want to help students dig deeper into some topics or access different perspectives.

(Tran)

Self-concept regarding the teaching role was also seen in other contexts beyond classroom teaching. The data showed that participants were confident acting as facilitators and advisors for students. In addition, they were satisfied with their increasing effectiveness at working with students. For example, they view themselves as

“flexible in supporting students of different levels and needs” (Nguyen), “listening and giving advice to students on their personal life” (Duong), and “consulting with ... former students, when needed” (Ngoc). The longer their teaching careers, the more they felt competent and self-confident in the multiple dimensions of their roles in relation to their students.

Although teachers’ self-concept was established in relation to students, their relationships with their colleagues and institutions could not be ignored. The data showed that participants perceived themselves as teachers but were isolated from their colleagues. In reality, short-term collegial relationships existed in special situations that did not support stability in their self-concept as a part of the teaching community. Some said that relationships with colleagues “exist in small, comfortable groups, mostly for pleasure” (Thanh), are “maintained in a team under the supervision of an advisor” (Nguyen), “only exist during training” (Hai), or “do not work ... as it is better to work with people outside” (Pham). A majority of the participants acknowledged that they had almost no connection with colleagues in terms of professional development since there was an absence of community among teachers in the workplace.

Although participants held the title of “faculty” and had teaching responsibilities, self-concept as a part of the teaching staff within their respective institutions varied. On the one hand, their self-perception existed as a function of the official title of faculty member in relation to the institutional administration. However, a weak sense of belonging was not limited to their emotional lives, but also extended to certain physical aspects:

[when there is no private space for individuals], they only try to complete their teaching responsibilities and leave for their private business. Many people think it is good when they don't have to be present in the department and can work off campus with no complaints.

(Dao)

In short, participants' self-concept in the role of teacher was primarily connected to students. The longer respondents were in the careers, the more they perceived themselves as facilitators or advisors inside and outside the classroom settings. They did not generally perceive themselves as having relationships with one another in teaching communities. This is because there were no existing communities of teachers among their colleagues, as well as insufficient support from their institutions and no professional groups for teachers/faculty. Without these connections, it was very difficult for faculty members to experience a sense of belonging.

Research role improvement. Improvement in research competency and performance changes in self-efficacy and self-concept as a researcher or scholar were the two most common super codes in this category. Although research work was considered an integral part of faculty responsibilities, not all the participants (n = 11) reported involvement in research and professional development activities related to research skills. Consequently, the degree of research involvement and types of outcomes varied among the participants. The research-related outcomes among the 11 participants were categorized into three groups based on research productivity. The first group (n = 2), "minimum," included participants with master's degrees who reported little research

activity. The second group (n = 6), “potential,” involved participants with master’s or doctoral degrees who reported some regular research outcomes in a local academic context. The third group, “active,” was comprised of three Ph.D. holders who published studies internationally. These groups were analyzed based on the three domains of competency, self-efficacy, and self-concept.

Table 15 Three Groups of Faculty basing on Research Outcomes

Groups	Competency and performance	Self-efficacy	Self-concept
Minimum	Some evidence of research knowledge and skills; unclear attitude about research; seemingly uninterested in research; one or two action studies	Some confidence in the success of research but cannot say anything further about the value	Some research motivated by personal interest
Potential	Has knowledge and skill in research; research training either formal through doctoral program, other training programs, or mentorship; highly values research as faculty; regular involvement in research and research outcomes; willing to integrate knowledge into future research	Overseas Ph.D.: believes in their research capacity and engagement Local Ph.D.: not confident and needs to learn more	Works hard to be recognized as a scholar; Perceived as faculty member who does research
Active	Well-trained in doctoral program overseas; strongly believes in research; has good content knowledge and skills for working on international teams; international presentations and publications	Strong belief in research competency and productivity	Researcher

Minimum research group. Participants in the minimum group, Le and Phuong, were faculty members in Education. In their interviews they did not express interest in obtaining doctorates, though they were aware of their need to do so. They had thus far only been involved in a few small research projects at their respective institutions, focusing on classroom practice and curriculum development. As a result, research was not considered a focus of their professional development, which unsurprisingly led to very little research-related improvement. Phuong's success in an initial research project gave her confidence in her research plan, but she acknowledged weaknesses:

My presentation of our research project on program evaluation was appreciated at the university research symposium. I am so glad for this result, which made me think of doing more research. I know it is not easy since I haven't received any formal training in research.

Participants in this group expressed some interest in research and confidence in their ability to do so. They did not perceive themselves as scholars or researchers, but rather as "teacher-researchers" who conducted research on classroom teaching and learning.

Potential research group. The potential group was comprised of people who considered research to be a part of their faculty responsibilities and interests. They published their studies in the Vietnamese language in Vietnamese journals whose quality was said to be much lower than international standards of publication. When discussing their competency, these respondents admitted limitations. In particular, some said, "my research knowledge and skills are scattered and not systematic" (Luong) and "my knowledge about research is not strongly based on theories but accumulated from

work experience in architecture firms” (Nguyen). The lack of a good formal education in research was one of the main reasons mentioned for these feelings, even among those who had attended local doctoral programs:

I started doing research when I was a university junior and have continued since then. My research skills improved in the doctoral program, but not much. This means that even after completing the program, I was not well-equipped with basic research skills” (Pham).

In terms of self-efficacy, participants in this group expressed different feelings of competency depending on individual research experiences. Several faculty members felt confident about their practical research abilities and performance as a result of their experiences working with companies. Nguyen received her promotion at her part-time job in an architecture firm because of her strong performance, and Ngoc received compliments on his outstanding market research projects with rice export companies. However, Nguyen and Ngoc, like other participants in this group, were aware of their limitations when conducting academic research and attempting to publish internationally. Pham shared, “It is a big challenge for me to become a scholar who is able to do academic research in the field; I mean, I need to prove my ability in the field in the form of conference presentations and publications.” Luong further explained:

I know that if I want to conduct research on an issue, I have to design a survey, analyze the data, and write about the findings. In fact, I know what to do but not how to do it. I was not taught to do that [even in the Ph.D. program]. Thus, I am not confident with the findings of my studies.

Participants in this group had experience with research related to professional development, either in the form of practical experience or as a part of their doctoral education. Practical research experience made the respondents feel confident about their real-world research skills in their respective fields, but their doctoral education showed only limited impacts on their academic research competency and confidence. These participants, with their awareness of their weaknesses and a desire to do research, continued learning on their own from different resources. Some decided to enroll in Ph.D. programs for a formal education in research, while others actively engaged in collaborative research projects.

In terms of their self-concept as researchers, members of this group expressed confusion. In fact, none perceived themselves as researchers, but rather viewed themselves as faculty members who did research. Some expressed their ambition to become researchers, saying: “I want to be a competent researcher who can engage my colleagues and students to be on my research teams” (Nguyen), and “I want to change my research work and contribute to the development of the Department of Linguistics and Sociology where I work, but I need to work towards that goal” (Luong). However, it was difficult for them to reach that objective when none expressed strong determination or presented a clear action plan in an academic environment that promoted research excellence. Luong illustrated their struggle: “If I had more opportunities to be exposed to various research approaches and perspectives and learn from colleagues from other countries, then definitely I think I could conduct research of a higher quality. But I don't think I will have such opportunities here.” Luong's story also revealed that they lacked

research communities and a profession that supported them as researchers. It was difficult for them to perceive, develop, and cultivate a self-image as researchers when they did their research in isolation, lacked professional support, and had a weak sense of belonging. Other faculty members in this group shared reactions similar to that of Tran.

Active research group. Participants in the active group who matriculated from overseas doctoral programs had the highest level of research competency and performance, confidence in their research, and a positive self-concept as faculty researchers. They considered research to be a critical and integral part of their profession and their professional development. These participants considered overseas doctoral education to be the most important form of faculty development with regards to research. The significant learning experiences in these programs made the difference in their professional lives and research pathways. Hong said her doctoral education “laid a solid foundation for [her] research capacity, opened [her] mind to various research perspectives, and gave [her] opportunities to be a part of a professional network.” Besides research competency, other basic skills such as teamwork and the English language contributed to helping these faculty members integrate into the international research community. After completing a program and returning to Vietnam, Tran acknowledged feeling “well-trained to be ready to research in my discipline as an international expert” and “ready to be an agent of change.”

With such a strong foundation in research, even when working in an unsupportive research environment, these respondents were able to achieve a high level of research productivity. They were actively involved with international research teams,

presented their research studies in national and international research conferences, and had publications in international journals in English. For example, Hong, a faculty member in health prevention, highlighted how she became involved in certain research communities:

At first, I was involved in a project as a research assistant. With each event, I felt I made progress. When the project was implemented at 30 sites, I was promoted to be responsible for the quality of the project. We presented our findings at an international conference. After that, I was known by people in the field and I was invited to important events related to the topic. I was also invited to submit papers and presented at several international conferences.

Similarly, Dang described his impressive research achievements: “two or three papers published, and several national presentations yearly for the last few years.” Tran also shared her research progress for the last two years, after her return from a Ph.D. program in the U.K.: “I published one case study book and two papers in high ranking international journals; I am pursuing many other projects.” Their achievements imply that compared to the members of the minimum and potential groups, these participants were more engaged in collaborative projects; this, in turn, contributed to their progress towards becoming competent researchers in the field.

In terms of self-concept, participants perceived themselves as researchers who believed in their research competency and productivity. They proved to have a strong connection to their research teams, the members of which were working in different countries. For example, Dang explained: “[my] team has been working together for the

last three years; some are working in Vietnam and others in Japan, America, and Korea." In addition, they expressed their sense of belonging to their professional communities through their contributions to international conferences and journals in their discipline. They valued hard work and commitment to a high level of research productivity. In particular, this meant publishing articles that met the international standard. Some said they "need to work from 5:00 AM to midnight each day" (Tran), or "include international factors in the study, which is not always easy" (Hai), and "say no to a well-paid part-time job to pursue research" (Hong) These typical beliefs and values were the direct results of their overseas educational experiences in Ph.D. programs, and were not found among the participants in other groups.

There was a weak connection between these participants' research and their institutions. They described an intense sense of belonging to their international professional communities, but there was little evidence of connections to their institutions and local research communities. For example, Tran described herself as an international expert in her field; Hong and Lam proved their sense of identity through their regular presentations and research publications. In particular, while Hai and Tran led research teams comprised of colleagues, Dang, Tran, and Hong, the most accomplished researchers among the participants with numerous international publications, described their experiences doing research on teams whose members were from different countries. In Tran's case, she emphasized several times the differences in research values and practices between her and colleagues at other institutions:

I work with some colleagues on a research team in Vietnam. I don't think they have the same cultural research background. They and I had a big gap in dealing with issues related to research standards, values, and ethics. Educational background is significant. They and I are doing research so differently, based on our educational backgrounds. I promised to suffer through this paradox for about one more year as I promised the institution's leaders. I am done with local publications.

In short, the outcomes of professional development in participants' research roles in terms of research-related competency and performance, self-efficacy, and self-concept were categorized into four groups: none, minimum, potential, and active. The key factors affecting their outcomes included experiences in their doctoral programs (high quality overseas or lower-quality local programs), discipline (social studies or other), types of research (practical or academic research), and the value of the research work. Comparing the research performances of these groups, overseas doctorates were the key factor affecting research-related outcomes. These faculty perceived themselves as researchers with high self-efficacy in research performance, while members of other groups could not reach that level. Members of the potential group highlighted the importance of research, spent time doing practical research, but still struggled with academic research competency and performance. They did not consider themselves capable of it, though they strived to overcome their limitations. Participants in the minimum group researched topics related to their classroom teaching, but nothing else. They did not even express interest in mastering research competencies or conducting further research.

Regardless of their performance and self-concept as researchers, their weak connection to their institutions and local professional communities were major concerns.

Other professional roles. The data for individuals and across groups of participants showed that professional development participation could lead to new responsibilities beyond the apparent and common roles of teaching and research. Standard responsibilities that these participants mentioned included mentoring (n = 6) and faculty development (n = 4). These were also linked to competency and performance, self-efficacy, and self-concept. Six participants acknowledged taking mentoring responsibilities, either voluntarily or as formally assigned by their department. They believed they did a good job in mentoring novice faculty members. Only Phuong and Ngoc explained how they fulfilled their mentoring duties. Phuong described how she was actively involved in mentorship:

Mentoring is a process of learning not only to be a good mentor who can best help mentees, but also of perfecting me in my professional role. I realized that both myself as a mentor and my mentees shared the common purpose of becoming better teachers. Continuously self-reflecting and engaging in collaborative reflection are the most effective techniques in mentorship.

From another perspective, Ngoc shared his attitudes regarding mentorship and described how he mentored junior faculty members:

Junior faculty members, when starting their teaching ... everything is new to them. Their initial stage depends largely on their mentor. I make a one-year mentoring plan in which I work with them on learning class contents, teaching

strategies, and research. I also work with them to make their professional development plan for the next three- and five-year periods, and longer. I disagree with many mentors who do nothing for their mentees.

Phuong and Ngoc illustrated their strong self-efficacy and self-concept as mentors. They clearly valued their mentorship and believed that they could make an impact on their mentees' professional development. Other participants did not reach that level of self-concept; they did not show themselves to be committed to their mentees or have a high sense of mentoring responsibility.

The data also indicated that five participants embraced their official responsibility to develop faculty in their departments, institutions, and Asia. Among them, Phuong and Trong, who were asked to design departmental mentorship programs, received no training to be trainers. Dang, Pham, and Hai were involved in institutional faculty development activities but did experience professional development programs for trainers. To some extent, these participants had knowledge and skills and then further developed them through their experience working as facilitators in university-wide faculty professional development programs. Only Hai and Dang considered developing faculty to be a part of their formal responsibilities. Dang was involved as a facilitator in annual training for new faculty orientation programs and training programs for faculty in Asian countries. Hai was in charge of designing and implementing professional development for faculty in his institution, adopting a model similar to that used in Western countries. Thus, only a few participants perceived themselves

as faculty developers and received intensive training, eventually forming their function at institutional and regional training programs.

Integration of professional development outcomes. Although the outcomes of their professional development varied depending on their participants' disciplines, gender, and developmental foci, some common change trends could be highlighted. First, with regards to content or specialized knowledge improvement, the first five years was the most intense; this was gradually updated thereafter. Off-campus part-time jobs also contributed to expanding practical knowledge, but this did not happen with participants in Education majors. Improving content knowledge was the most prominent outcomes that all participants gained from their teaching, working off-campus jobs, engaging in practical and academic research, and completing their graduate programs.

Second, building knowledge and skill related to teaching was an ongoing process during which participants adjusted their teaching strategies in response to student feedback. The longer they were in teaching, the stronger sense of self-efficacy they had in their teaching effectiveness. Their self-concept for teaching role shifted from a teacher imparting knowledge to a facilitator helping student learning and growth for their future development.

Third, enhancement of research competency varied significantly by individual. An overseas doctoral training experience was foundational and offered holders the momentum needed to make significant changes in their career development. Their experience and the degree itself set a high standard for their work, making them stand out from their colleagues who had similar experiences in their Vietnamese higher

education programs. They valued research as an integral part of their professional and career development, believed in their competency, strived to be high performers, and likely identified themselves as researchers in the field. Noticeably, their identity was more integrated into the international professional community, rather than stranded in a local and institutional context. When faculty members became dedicated high performers in research, they paid less attention to teaching and the integration of teaching and research.

Other than this outlier group, faculty members involved in research in different ways but they unlikely identify themselves researchers. Participants who had master's or doctoral degrees from Vietnamese universities understood their research efficacy and quality of their research. They found difficult to integrate into the international research community and did not perceive themselves researchers. Practical research often occurred while participants were at part-time jobs or during small, self-initiated projects. Respondents who had experience with practical research had a strong sense of self-efficacy in research and teaching as well. They made the most significant impacts on student learning, compared to other groups, because they were able to apply their practical research and industrial competency to prepare students for their future jobs. Also, some faculty members, especially those majoring in Education, conducted their research on their own classroom teaching to improve their pedagogy and their students' learning process. This group did not express concerns about their research competency and self-efficacy, or discuss any further research development plans.

Fourth, some respondents described fully developed images of themselves as mentors and faculty developers. As mentors, participants spent time and effort on learning about and being quality examples for younger faculty, which contributed to their confidence and self-perception as mentors. Few had received training for this role. As faculty developers, they were either involved in developing and implementing faculty development plans at their institutions or had run or facilitated international faculty development projects. They all expressed an interest in engaging further to develop faculty, either as mentors or developers. In return, they applied what they learned in pedagogical programs in their own teaching.

Finally, the data showed only limited connections between participants and their institutions or local professional communities. Except some overseas doctoral holders who mentioned their sense of belong with their research communities, it is hard to find similar connection among other participants. In particular, most based their formation and development of their teaching identities on their connections with their students, rather than from their professional communities, teachers' associations, and institutions. One group of participants who focused on practical research, although had connection with industries and business, did not express their sense of belonging to these part time jobs.

Summary

This section presents the summary of the major findings from this study. These findings were the results of the first four stages of data analysis, as guided by Strauss and Corbin (2014) and described in Chapter III. The professional development experiences of the participating Vietnamese faculty members shared the following characteristics.

Frist, although participants described taking part in a number of professional development activities, including formal graduate programs, workplace learning, and dealing with disorientating dilemmas, only a few significant experiences highly impacted their future growth, among which are doctoral programs, off-campus tasks, and disorientating dilemmas.

Second, the findings highlighted the decisive role of constantly changing personal factors (i.e., educational background, gender, discipline, and motivation) interacting with contextual influences (i.e., unsupportive academic environment, low quality graduate education, and administrative system constraints) in impacting individual professional development. Faculty members who had overseas education experiences tended to be less affected by contextual influences because they were better equipped with the necessary professional competencies and had a higher sense of self-efficacy and stronger scholarly self-concept in their disciplines at an international level.

Third, in an environment where limited support was available, common professional development strategies used by the participants include taking ownership, managing multiple roles, and engaging in ongoing learning.

Fourth, the outcomes of the professional development process include improved competency and self-efficacy in professional roles and certain personal aspects, and changes in self-concept related to being faculty members working in the context of Vietnamese higher education.

Finally, although the participants perceived themselves as officially possessing faculty designation, their confidence with their title mostly came from teaching. Only a few participants received overseas doctoral education; they were more confident expressing their self-efficacy and sense of belonging to the research community. Other than that, it was difficult to find participants who feel part of any professional association, community of practice, or even with their universities where they worked.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND CONCLUSION

I start this chapter with a storyline that summarizes the key findings about the professional development experiences of Vietnamese faculty members in response to the research questions driving this study. I then discuss the findings in relation to scholarly research and authoritative documents from international and Vietnamese contexts. Following that, I propose a conceptual framework of Professional Identity Development for Vietnamese Faculty as an integration of a grounded theory and the existing literature. I conclude this chapter with theoretical implications and suggestions for practice and future research for those involved in faculty development in Vietnam.

Summary of Findings

To help make sense of the key findings from this study and their relationships to one another, I created Figure 3.

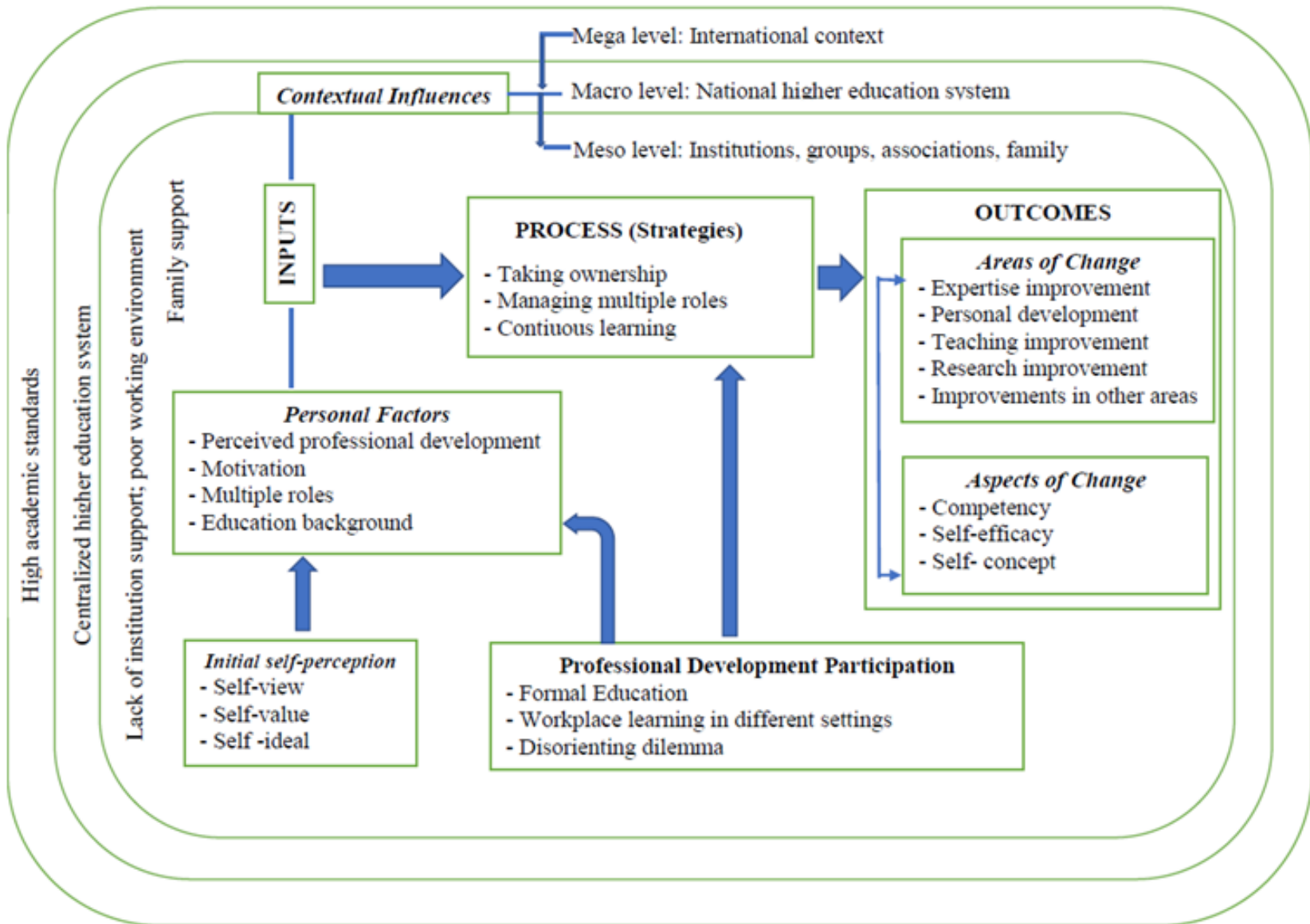


Figure 3. Summary of Finding

When in their early 20s, Vietnamese faculty members experienced a transition from undergraduate student life to novice faculty with a professional appointment. Their professional development is an ongoing journey that can be understood as the Input - Process - Outcome process.

The **inputs** consist of categories of initial self-perception, professional development participation, personal factors, and contextual influences. The interaction among categories made the input complex, which varied across individuals in different institutions and disciplines and across individuals with different educational backgrounds, personalities and at different career stages. The interaction of these categories acted as the input for the professional development **process**, in which individual faculty members utilized various strategies in response to personal and contextual influences. These strategies were seen as either as individual or collaborative efforts. These strategies led to the **outcomes** in different aspects of change and at different areas of change. In particular, improvement in areas of such as competency, self-efficacy, and self-concept, was reflected in different aspects relating to professional expertise and roles and personal aspect.

I further noticed that the outcomes of professional development, including changes in competency, self-efficacy, and self-concept, were closely related to behavior in cognition changes. According to a number of scholars, behavior and cognition changes result in development of professional identity (e.g., Caza & Creary, 2016; Clarke, Hyde, & Drennan, 2013; Trede, Macklin, & Bridges, 2017). Furthermore, I found a consensus among participants regarding their professional identity development,

especially what it means to be faculty members, how they became faculty as they were, and efforts they put in developing their role-based identity. For the reason above, the professional development experiences of Vietnamese participating faculty members is, in essence, the process of professional identity development.

Discussion

In this section, I discuss the key findings about professional development of Vietnamese faculty in three areas: critical role of Ph.D. education in professional identity development, impact of contextual factors on professional identity development, and faculty development process and outcomes. I ground my discussion in three bodies of literature published in English and Vietnamese: professional development for faculty or faculty development, human resource development in higher education, and professional identity. I also discuss the findings in relation to formal documents issued by the Vietnamese authorities.

Critical Role of Ph.D. Education in Professional Identity Development

One of the most significant contributions of this study is to provide evidence for the decisive role of overseas doctoral education on faculty members' professional paths by comparing and contrasting participants' Ph.D. education experience and their professional paths. Compared to those who had not experienced in doctoral education and focused primarily in teaching, most of faculty members who had Ph.D. degree were found to be oriented to research.

The graduate learning experiences of Vietnamese lecturers in this study parallel the professional development and identity formation experience of graduate students and

graduate teaching assistants in the North American and European higher education systems (Gibson, Dollarhide, Leach, & Moss, 2015; Hermanowicz, 2016; Trede, Macklin, & Bridges, 2017). In this line, a widespread finding in the literature proves that universities in developed countries have successfully prepared their doctoral graduates for entering the professoriate. In particular, Hermanowicz (2016) shows that Ph.D. graduates in the study were well equipped with “academic rigor and critical thinking” and “sense of belonging and training in research skills” in perceived high quality of doctoral training and socialization experience (p. 294). These scholars also emphasized the critical role of professional socialization in the transmission of professional values and ethics in academic work to the graduate students.

In this regard, my finding regarding the low quality of doctoral education in Vietnam aligns with the failure of this type of education to provide high quality training and prepare graduates to become competent scholars in the academia. The low quality of their doctoral education together with an almost complete absence of professional socialization resulted in these graduates being deficient in their research and experiencing little sense of belonging to the professional communities. Thus, well-established research and professional development practices for graduate students in the West are appropriate references for faculty development in Vietnam.

My findings regarding Vietnamese participants’ experience with their doctoral education abroad can be explained by the theory of transformational learning (Merizon, 2000). Merizon’s psychological approach argues that transformative learning occurs when there is a change in one’s beliefs or attitudes that pervades their entire perspective

of a person, resulting in a “new worldview.” Transformational learning theory explains the formation of new professional identities when overseas Ph.D. holders change their perspectives on their professionalism and identity, as well as their career path.

Nevertheless, upon returning home from their overseas programs, many Vietnamese Ph.D. holders had to struggle with the conflict between their newly-established professional identities and the local professional values and ethics. It was up to these individual faculty members to decide which value system they would assume, which professional identity they needed to hide, and to what extent they would compromise in order to be best surviving in the academic system in which they choose to build their career path.

Factors Influencing Professional Development

This research question sought to identify factors affecting Vietnamese faculty members' professional development. My finding and the literature are consistent, in that both reveal the system's deficiencies, such as being highly centralized wherein individual institutions have only limited autonomy, insufficient compensation and rewards, and poor working condition for academics (Do & Do, 2014; Phuong et al., 2015; World Bank, 2012). Beside these above deficiencies in the administrative and academic system, the absence of communities of practice and professional associations made the Vietnamese faculty development an overly self-driven and self-survival process in which individuals operate in isolation. In this respect, Vietnamese higher education institutions have not fulfilled their function as organizational agents, assisting faculty members in enhancing their academic excellence, strengthening their sense of belonging, and shaping their professional identities (Caza & Creary, 2016).

Nevertheless, my study findings regarding the absence of many Vietnamese higher education institutions from the development of their faculty members do not align with the concepts of faculty development that developed in the North American and European contexts (Caffarella & Zinn, 1999; Jolly, 2014; Steinert et al., 2006). Scholars have highlighted organizational development, together with formal education and self-directed learning, comprises a comprehensive plan for faculty development that benefits both institutions and individuals alike. For example, academics agree that university-wide communities of practice and faculty development programs create a sustainable across discipline socialization practices for faculty members. Through socialization,

these faculty members are able to engage in collaborative learning and developmental relationships that enhance their professional identities and sense of belonging to their professional community and related organizations (see Gibson et al., 2015; Hermanowicz, 2016; Jolly, 2014; O'Sullivan & Irby, 2011; Steinert, 2014).

Another contribution of this study makes is to highlight the decisive role that the interaction of personal factors with contextual influences in forming individuals' perceptions of the supports and obstacles to faculty development in Vietnam. My findings have potential to extend the current professional development framework developed by Caffarella and Zinn (1999) in terms of understanding the supports and barriers affecting professional development. In their framework, the authors grouped influential elements into four domains and each representing as a continuum with one side indicating supports and the other obstacles. The framework explains the combination of these influential factors, but it does not emphasize the effects that an individual's mindset might have on their decisions regarding the professional development strategies they might adopt and the outcomes they could possibly obtain. Furthermore, my findings highlight the necessity of bringing personal factors into our understanding of perceived facilitators and obstacles, because of the inherent subjectivity of individual perceptions. These perceptions are dependent on factors unique to the individual, such as their educational background, professional development experiences, career stage, discipline, and gender.

Professional Development Strategies

In pursuing of their ongoing development, the Vietnamese faculty members instigated and utilized several professional development strategies, such as taking ownership of their career progress, managing multiple personal and professional roles, and adopting a series of learning strategies. These strategies they took implied that they were highly aware of themselves to be the sole agents of change. My findings can be understood through the theory of work adjustment (Dawis, 2005; Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). This theory relates to “the Person (P) in an Environment (E) and the fit between, and the interaction of P and E” (Dawis, 2005, pp. 3-4). Work adjustment is perceived as a continual process of two-adjustment (Leung, 2004), in which P and E have things they require of one another. Fulfillment of these requirements creates correspondence between P and E, which results in satisfaction for both (Dawis, 2005; Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). Nevertheless, my findings showed a one-sided adjustment of P, to the almost absence of the E from the participants’ professional lives. Instead, adjustment among the majority of these participants is, by nature, the internal adjustment derived from their own motivation and career goals, rather than the adjustment with the E. Thus, my findings add a dimension to the theory of work adjustment, in which only a minimum adjustment exists between P and E.

Professional Development Outcomes

The study findings show that the outcomes of professional development include changes in competency, self-efficacy, and self-concepts in terms of in professional roles; competency improvement was the most direct and obvious outcome of the professional

development. The findings align with Kirkpatrick's model of measuring learning outcomes (Kirkpatrick, 1998), which underscores the prerequisite of changes in competency for changes in behavior and performance. Furthermore, the findings support those of literature and empirical studies regarding the interaction among perceived competency, self-efficacy, and self-concept. In particular, the perceived competency overlaps with the other two, resulting in a sense of continuity with the development of professional identity (Caza & Creary, 2016; Hughes, Galbraith, & White, 2011; Pratt, 2012). Perceived competency representing the "current self" is overlapped with the element of the self-concept "being" and self-efficacy "can" questions, connecting the "past self" with the "future self" (Hughes et al., 2011, pp. 287-288). Accordingly, the literature on professional identity construction has focused in how individuals, as active participants, form and develop their self-meaning as members of a profession by "doing, acting, and interacting" (Caza & Creary, 2016; Pratt, 2012, p. 26).

In this respect, since faculty members hold multiple professional roles (Steinters, 2014), it is necessary that they define themselves according to each professional role and decide how to develop particular sub-professional identities accordingly. More importantly, individual needs to determine an identity structure that conceptualizes how these sub-identities relate to one another within their greater professional identity (Caza & Creary, 2016). Adapted from professional identity structures proposed by Caza and Creary (2016) and notions of self-complexity defined by Linville (1985) and Roccas & Brewer (2002), I proposed different professional identity structures for Vietnamese faculty members, which were grounded in the data collected for this study.

My findings indicate that the professional identity development of the majority of Vietnamese faculty members queried for this research tended to be an intra-personally, rather than interpersonally- oriented process. In this solo professional development process, individuals attempted to sharpen their competency and take on the professional values, attitudes, and ethics necessary to become better performers, in spite of limited interactions with their communities and institutions (Auxier, Hughes, & Kline, 2003; Gibson et al., 2010). In this respect, Caza and Creary (2016) point out how the construction of these faculty members' professional identities focus more on role-based identity from aspects of the individuals, rather than social role-based identity from aspects of their professions or their particular organizations. The limited integration of individual faculty members' understanding of their academic performance standards, professional practice, and social and political patterns existing in their communities (Clarke, Hyde, & Drennan, 2013) and communities' support would lessen impact faculty members and professional communities make on one another.

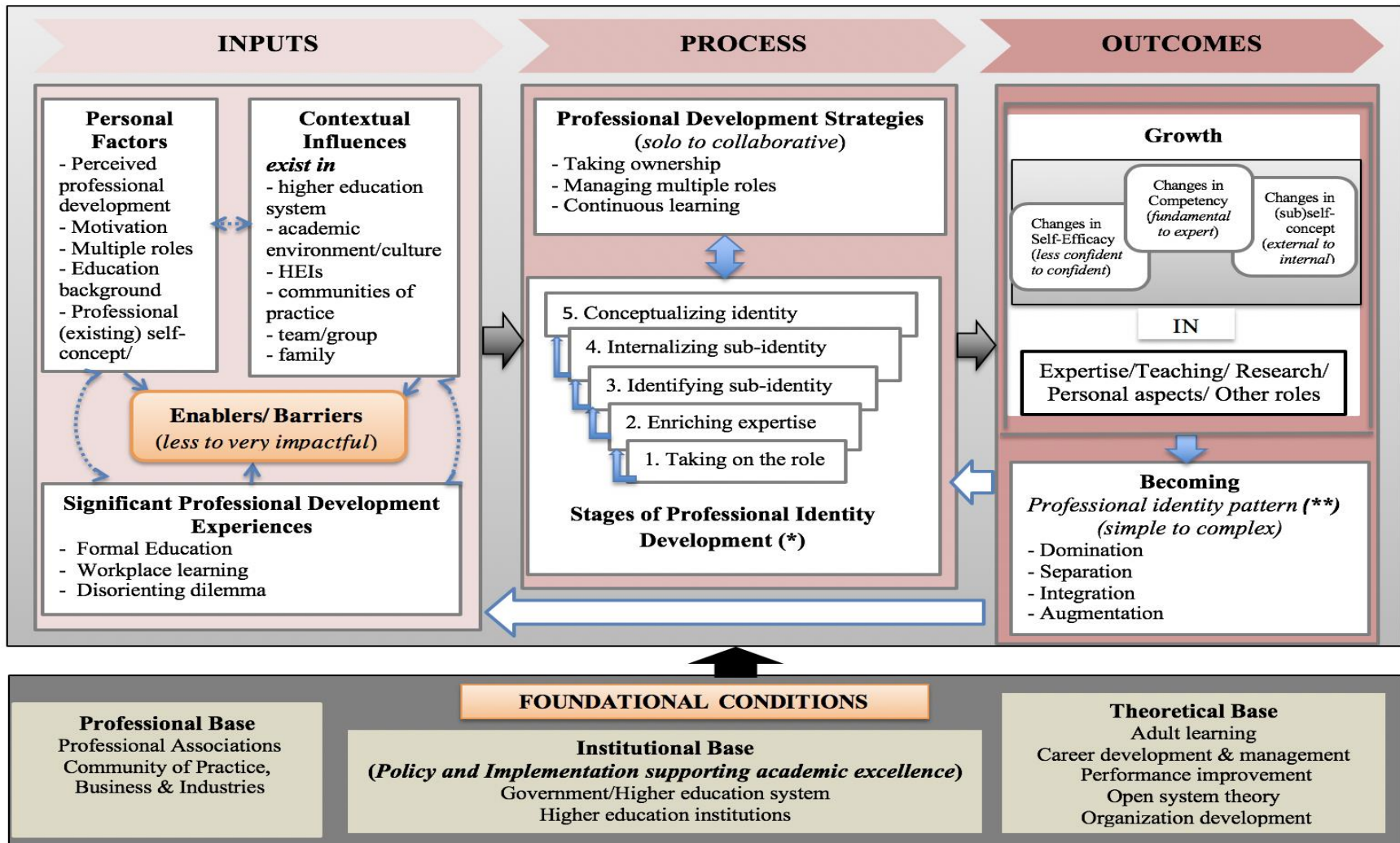
My findings regarding the professional identities of Vietnamese faculty echo similar research conducted by Nguyen (2016) regarding the identification of Vietnamese academic staff members. Both studies found that Vietnamese faculty members' research identification could be categorized into three groups. The elite group includes "cosmopolitan researchers" who complete their doctoral programs at foreign research universities and have a sense of belonging to the international professional community. The other groups are "local researchers" who primarily or solely publish in Vietnamese sources, and "reluctant researchers" who focus on teaching and are not engaged in

research. Nevertheless, the framework developed in my study goes further than simply identifying the research groups with which faculty members identify. It proposes multiple professional identity patterns and processes and integrates various influential factors.

Integration of the Grounded Theory Model with Existing Literature

In this section, I propose a conceptual framework of professional identity development for Vietnamese faculty by integrating a new grounded theory with existing literature. The proposed conceptual framework is primarily grounded in the key study findings with further support from existing theories and practices in professional identity literature. This new framework is the result of the last phase (Phase 5) of data analysis as documented in Strauss and Corbin (2014) (see Figure 2).

The central category in this Conceptual Framework of Professional Development for Vietnamese Faculty Members is **professional identity** development. In Figure 4, the categories are highlighted in bold, properties in italic, and dimensions by quotation marks. Also, to demonstrate the functionality of the framework, I described each framework component one by one and highlighted its properties and dimensions that captured participants' experiences with professional identity development.



(*) adapted from Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, and Osteen (2005)

(**) adapted from Caza & Creary (2016)

Figure 4: Conceptual Framework of Professional Identity Development for Vietnamese Faculty

Overall, the conceptual framework illustrates a cycle of how Vietnamese faculty members engaged in professional development activities, which in turn influences their professional identity and its development. The framework is presented in the format of Input-Process-Outcome. The framework helps identify process or processing tasks (i.e., professional development strategies at each stage of professional identity development) required to transform the inputs (i.e., the interaction of personal factors, contextual influences, and professional development participation) into outcomes (i.e., growing and becoming). The framework also shows the relationship between the central category (**professional identity development**), and other categories and the connection between categories.

The central category is **professional identity development**. Every faculty member who participates in professional development hopes to keep making progress in different aspects relating to their sub-identities or a collaborative identity. The (sub)identity refers to the identity of a single role, such as teaching, research, leading, or service. A collaborative identity is the combination of various sub-identities, defining who a faculty member who he/she wants to be as a faculty member in Vietnam. Professional identity development is shaped by faculty's significant professional experiences and how these experiences and other personal factors interact with influential factors, leading to their developmental outcomes in terms of growth and becoming in their profession. This makes professional identity development an ongoing and adaptive process across their career development.

Significant professional development experiences trigger changes in faculty's professional identity. Although these experiences differ from one another, they can be categorized into three groups: *formal education*, *workplace learning*, and *disorienting dilemma*. Among these experiences, the overseas Ph.D. programs rank the top as transformational learning experience, followed by off-campus work and disorienting dilemma. The significant learning experiences give faculty members opportunities to challenge their beliefs, values, and perceptions of their roles and identity.

The **essential influence** category, refers to the interaction among personal factors, significant professional development experiences, and contextual influences, impacts the development of professional identity. This category includes two properties: *perceived enablers* and *barriers*. Each of these properties has dimension of “impact”, ranging from not impactful to highly impactful. Each property, enablers and barriers, with the varied degree of impact, influences differently on other categories, especially strategies faculty choose and subsequent outcomes.

The category of **professional development strategies** contains properties with dimensions of “integration”, ranging from solo to collaboration. The properties of this category are *taking ownership*, *managing multiple roles*, and *continuous learning*. Faculty members tend to shift strategies for their professional development from solo - based to collaboration - based strategies as they move from the junior to senior career stage.

Furthermore, each of professional development strategies is applied differently at each stage of **the professional identity development**. Stages of professional identity

development is grounded in data collected for this study and adapted from Komives, Owen, Longerbeam, Mainella, and Osteen (2005), which is visualized in Table 16. The properties of this category are *taking on the role*, *enriching experience*, *identifying sub-identity*, *internalizing sub-identity*, and *conceptualizing identity*. The first column lists the stages; the second column describes the characteristics applied to Vietnamese faculty members. Also, it is noticed that professional identity development does not always happen as a linear process, and characteristics listed at one stage may or may not appear in other stages.

Table 16 Stages of Professional Identity Development

Stages	Characteristics
Taking on the role	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Start taking a professional role (e.g. instructor and research assistant) • Learn about the role, institutional and professional expectations and norms • Are motivated to learn, shadow senior faculty members, and follow rules and regulations. • Are not fully integrated into the position.
Enriching the expertise	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participate in various professional development activities and actively learn from formal education and training, from doing the job, and from informal learning • Have a deep understanding of what it means to be a faculty in general and specific roles • Are exposed to various professional development opportunities relating to roles and responsibilities
Identifying sub-self-concept	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Feel more confident with their professional competence and performance-based on positive feedbacks • View themselves as a teacher/ instructor/ facilitator • Start involving in different professional development opportunities with their interests • Are ready to share responsibilities in workplace. • Show more concern about how others perceive them and their achievements.
Internalizing sub-identity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reflect on their sub-concept critically and are open to different perspectives • Be aware of and able to negotiate the external professional values and expectations and their inner core beliefs and standards. • Have a strong self-efficacy in their competency to each sub-identity • Tend to take leading roles at work • Show less concern about how others perceive them.
Conceptualizing (collective) identity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Negotiate conflicts between sub-identity values and expectations • Choose a identity integration pattern that best represents who an individual wants to become (see the patterns in table 17). • Reach the level of deep and authentic awareness, leading to the formation and development of a collective professional identity

The category of **growth** refers to the achievements that individual faculty members gain as the result of the professional identity development process. This category contains properties, including *changes in competency*, *changes in self-efficacy*, and *changes in self-concept*; each of these properties has its own dimensions showing changes throughout the development of professional identity. In particular, the level of competency changes, which ranges from basis to expert in terms of knowledge and skills. The dimension of self-efficacy changes is “confidence”, varying from less confident to very confident in their ability to perform their roles. Finally, self-concept has dimensions of “internalization” showing the transformation of external professional values and norms into internal professional self-concept about who they are as a faculty member. The category of growth focuses on changes at individuals’ sub-identity relating to a specific professional role, such as researcher, teacher, practitioner, and leader.

The category of becoming refers to how the formation of professional identity, containing properties of professional identity structures, with dimensions of “complexity”. The properties include *domination*, *separation*, *integration*, and *augmentation*; the dimensions of complexity depend on a number of factors, especially those related to the level of competency and self-efficacy as well as the engagement in multiple professional roles. The development of professional identity refers to the choice between professional identity structures - the integration and negotiation of multiple sub-identities.

Grounded on my findings and adapted from the identity structure developed by Caza & Creary (2016), four main professional identity structures are found among the

Vietnamese faculty. Table 18 presents these four patterns; each pattern is described by the characteristics of identity, level of complexity, and reference group.

Table 17 Professional Identity Patterns

	Dominance	Separation	Integration	Augmentation
Identity	Individuals define themselves according to one dominant professional sub-identity	Individuals define themselves with two or more professional sub-identities that do not complement one another	Individuals define themselves according to one holistic professional identity that encompasses all others	Individuals define themselves according to multiple sub-professional identities that are co-activated and complement one another, and extend and enhance one another
Level of complexity	Lowest	Low	Medium	High
Reference group	- The teaching sub-identity is prominent - Teaching becomes the professional identity	Faculty take on two or three roles or sub-identities, such as (1) teaching and managing, or (2) teaching and research (when research does not intersect with teaching)	Individuals occupy the identity (e.g., teaching) and add subcomponents (e.g., action research, practitioner)	Individuals identify themselves with an identity, with more than one professional sub-identities that complement one another E.g. Individuals hold department lead positions while teaching and/or engaging in research and trainer

Professional identity Vietnamese faculty needs to be built on three **foundational conditions**: *professional base*, *theoretical base*, and *institutional base*. The *professional base* includes professional associations, community of practice, and business and industries, allowing for faculty members to engage in professional practice within their professional communities. The *theoretical base* includes theories related to adult learning, career development and management, performance improvement, open system theory, identity development, and organization development. These theories guide research and practice in the professional development field. The final base, *institutional base*, provides a foundation constituted by policies and practices that support academic excellence at the government or higher education level. These bases together lay a solid foundation for the development of Vietnamese faculty members' profession in general and professional identity in particular.

For Vietnamese faculty, the development of a professional identity is a complex, ongoing process in which individuals get involved in various activities; the outcome is two related cycles. The first, indicated by the black arrows in Figure 4 illustrates the flow of professional identity development. Also, as shown in Figure 4, professional identity development can lead to a second cycle (indicated by white arrows) that has a reverse impact on the newly formed professional identity development, a process and set of influences that create a higher level of growth and certainty.

The two cycles are linked. The outcomes of the first contribute to inputs and processes of a new cycle, either creating new changes or reinforcing the previous changes at a different level. For example, some faculty members may be satisfied with a

new sub-identity or sense of self and want to pursue it. Others may realize that the self-concept they developed may not match with who they want to be, and they need to adjust or adapt to the new (sub)identity. However, two cycles may also diverge since professional development experiences may lead to changes in the self and development of professional (sub)identity. For example, not all professional development experiences would lead to changes in the professional self or professional identity; only significant experiences and substantial learning accomplishments may trigger professional growth and identity changes.

Recommendations for Practice

Here, I offer recommendations for policy and practice relating to faculty development in the Vietnamese system of higher education. This section includes suggestions for governmental and institutional policymaking and practice, as well as for individual faculty members.

Governmental and Institutional Policies and Practice

These recommendations are categorized under nationwide competency framework, center for faculty development, education and training activities, and ecosystem in higher education.

Nationwide faculty competency framework. The study findings suggested a necessary to construct and implement a nationwide competency framework for university faculty in Vietnam (Phuong & Chai, 2018). Competency-based professional development for faculty has been an important approach in alignment with Vietnamese government's overarching direction's and scholars' suggestions as part of the faculty

competency improvement (Anh & Hayden, 2017; MOET, 2014a). Furthermore, there exist a number of competency development frameworks or models for university faculty that can be appropriate suggestions for the development of a similar one in Vietnam (Bland & Schmitz 1986; Blašková, Blaško, & Kucharčíková, 2014; Hodges, 2014; Jorda et al., 2012; Swanwick & McKim 2014; Velasco, Learreta, Kober, & Tan, 2014). Nevertheless, to develop a national competency framework for faculty to be implemented in Vietnam, it requires a comprehensive research-based process that takes into consideration of international theories and practices and characteristics of the local system and beneficiaries relating to faculty development, such as administrators, faculty, students, and business employers. Thus, the combination of both top-down and bottom-up approaches would contribute to the development and implementation of an effective nationwide competency framework in Vietnam higher education system.

Such a framework should serve as both administrative and developmental purposes, such as recreating, retaining, developing, and evaluating faculty who are regarded as the core human resources at different levels in the higher education in Vietnam. At the national level, it would provide nationally relevant standards and requirements for faculty roles and responsibilities, which could then be used for human resource purposes in higher education. Especially, it would create benchmarks for training and development activities, and evaluation activities of professional development programs as well as faculty members' performance. From the perspective of the HEIs, taking a competency-based faculty development approach would mean being able to empower faculty members to engage with ongoing endeavors that

contribute to developing their own academic identities and improving the overall educational quality of the HEIs themselves. At the individual level, this approach, also known as the participatory approach (Smith & Hudson, 2017), would encourage faculty members' active involvement in the professional development process through, for example, the use of an Individual Development Plan (IDP).

Center for faculty development. To ensure the sustainability of this type of joint effort, we strongly support the idea that professional development be directly organized and supported by university-based professional development centers. Such practice is not new in other places but would be novel in Vietnam where HEIs focus on fulfilling their administrative rather than developmental functions. In this regard, HEIs in Vietnam should consider establishing such centers, which could incorporate sources for faculty members and their organizations; this should be a target for every HEI (Jolly, 2014; Phuong & McLean, 2016).

These centers could be institution-based hubs for gathering, generating, and optimize resources for faculty development. They could assist in designing and implementing comprehensive faculty development strategies that align with institutional missions and visions. Centers could also professionally support faculty members by offering formal programs (see Steinert, 2014) and add value to their self-directed learning efforts, thus assisting faculty members in meeting their ever-changing professional needs (Boillat & Elizov, 2014). In so doing, these centers for faculty development would act as collaborative agents in three types of faculty development (i.e., self-directed learning, formal education and training, and organizational

development) to maximize multiple efforts (Caffarella & Zinn, 1999). As a result, the centers would help HEIs and individual faculty members meet their national requirements in terms of quality assurance and standards.

These centers would also help to remedy the current absence of institutional involvement and lack of practice communities in the Vietnamese academia, and thus offer support to faculty members in their professional identity development. Centers of this type could initiate and lead campus practice communities and offer connections to local and international professional resources. In particular, communities of professional development in areas such as pedagogy, research, information communication technology in teaching, and Ph.D. preparation and application would all provide strong support for faculty seeking to engage with industry and business.

To assure the successful implementation of such centers in Vietnam, it is highly recommended that Vietnamese institutions expose to partnership with Western universities and localize the well-established centers and professional development models in Vietnamese institutions (ADB, 2011). Accessing assistance from foreign faculty development resources would be greatly useful for Vietnam. To do so, it would be critical to recruit faculty developers qualified to transfer successful international models, research, and practices, and then specially tailor items for local context (Austin & Sorcinelli, 2013; Phuong & McLean, 2016; Thomas & Steinert, 2014); and Vietnamese higher education institutions and faculty members can apply this approach. These professional developers could then support institution leaders to initiate and

implement human resource practices and be the change agents in the faculty development practice via the operation of the centers they lead.

Education and training activities. One of the contributions my study makes is pointing out the significant impact of doctoral education on individual faculty members' identities and career development. It is strongly recommended that the Vietnamese government and HEIs pay close attention and take urgent actions to improve the quality of local doctoral education programs (see Do & Do, 2014). As related in Nguyen and Tran (2017), hybridity and collaboration among international organizations, foreign institutions, and Vietnamese HEIs and governmental agencies will result in high quality Vietnamese doctoral programs that are closer to high-quality international programs. In the Vietnamese higher education system, hybridity, a combination of traditional practices and foreign involvement (Tran et al., 2014), would create a professional community for doctoral students to engage with, and thus begin constructing their professional identities (Gibson et al., 2015). To ensure the success of these types of programs, university leaders should issue and implement regulations that support faculty taking part in graduate programs as full-time students. Those participating in such programs must prepare adequately in terms of personal competencies and foreign language ability, and absolutely commit to their learning.

In addition to investing significantly in improving the quality of doctoral education in Vietnam, other types of longitudinal programs are strongly recommended due to the profound impact they can have on both faculty and organizations (Gruppen, 2013; Sorinola & Thistlethwaite, 2013; Stes et al., 2007). Gruppen (2013) described

these programs as having a “median [length] of 10.5 months, [but] ranging from one to 48 months” (p. 206) and featuring comprehensive curricula. Such programs create opportunities for faculty members to engage in the learning process and gain in-depth experience that contributes to sustainable behavioral changes, academic promotion, and academic and leadership commitment and identity (Gruppen, 2013; Lori, Stephen, & Beth, 2015). To do so, university leaders and human resource practitioners must be creative and flexible, incorporating a variety of learning resources, including offering and providing compensation benefits beyond salary (ADB, 2010) (i.e., rewarding for research publications and funding for short exchange and training programs, joint research projects, and advanced degree programs abroad) (see Valley & Wilkinson, 2008).

For Faculty Members

The findings of this research enable faculty members to better recognize and understand the critical role of personal influence on their professional educations in a context where barriers outnumber supporters. Educational background is a foundational factor affecting all faculty members’ professional identity development. It is strongly recommended that faculty members gain exposure to various high-quality education and training programs organized abroad as well as professional communities of practices. To do so, foreign language competency, especially English, is key to international integration and advancement in their respective disciplines. Also, exposure to practical experiences and applied research in the field significantly contributes to competency improvement and self-efficacy enhancement, which together will drive faculty members

to continuously engage in further professional development opportunities. Also, a better understanding of their personal influence will help faculty identify appropriate strategies for balancing their means of support and obstructing barriers, assisting them in addressing their professional barricades and maximizing their backing.

It is strongly suggested that Vietnamese faculty should taking ownership of their career development and consistently and strategically pursue their individual development plan. This professional development approach helps them to proactive to exposure to multiple roles, including researcher and scholar, teacher and educator, leader and manager, learner and networker (Opre, Zaharie, & Opre, 2008; Sorcinelli et al., 2005; Steinert, 2014). Taking ownership also helps them balance multiple professional roles, family, and finances in the context of higher education Individuals also should be persistent in their pursuit of professional identity but flexible in their strategies across the various career stages. Finally, flexibility in combination of strategies allows faculty members to negotiate their professional identities as career paths are negotiated in different career stages (Gibson et al., 2015).

Theoretical Implications

The proposed framework on professional identity development for Vietnamese faculty has direct implication in both guiding individual faculty and in designing programs for develops the professional identity for faculty in Vietnam higher education context. The framework describes a number of meaningful categories that work together in the formulation of input-process-outcomes to facilitate the development of

professional identity. Nevertheless, the framework highlights the role learning and learners as being key parts of the process of professional identity development.

In this regard, the implications for theory focus on the application of learning theories in the professional identity development process. Good professional development practice should be based on adult learning theories that provide a foundational framework for understanding and improving faculty performance (Steinert, 2006). However, learning was not a key theme that emerged from the interviews with participants, implying that practices guided by learning theory are not yet widely acknowledged among faculty members in Vietnam. Thus, it is vital for practitioners and faculty alike to become aware of the significant theories supporting professional development for faculty. These theories regard to learning (Knowles, 1975; Kobl, 1984; Loevinger, 1967; Meziron, 1991), performance (Jacob, 1989), organizational development (Jolly, 2014), career development (Leung, 2008), and change theory (Lewin, 1951). Applying such theories will help faculty members achieve desired professional development plans, student outcomes, better integration, and effective communication with their international peers. They also contribute more effectively to the organizations as being part of faculty identity development.

Furthermore, it must be recognized that the proposed framework was grounded on experiences of a small proportion of Vietnamese faculty. Although the interplay of categories in professional identity construction and development is the broad approach, the process for identity development might be different depending on the variety within each category. For example, the framework reflects the developmental process for

faculty who took ownership of their professional development that may not be the same for those who were strongly under the shadow of their mentors. Thus, although diverse perspectives were incorporated in this study, the transferability of the study in terms of theory implications is influenced by the methodology, particularly related to the diversified groups of faculty in different HEIs and regions in Vietnam.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

In this section, I outline several limitations of this study and provide suggestions for further research to address these limitations. First, a majority of participants in this work were faculty members teaching in highly ranked public universities in large cities in Vietnam. Therefore, the findings are limited to that context and may not be applied to the other populations of faculty members nationwide. Future research should include faculty members teaching in both public and private universities of all rankings and in different locations.

I collected data using phone interviews. Compared to face-to-face interviews, collecting data by phone has several disadvantages. For example, phone interviews lack visual contact between the interviewee and interviewer (Gillham, 2005), and thus I was prevented from capturing certain nuances such as participants' facial expressions and body language. Also, I only used one source of data, these interviews, which may not have generated a balanced or holistic view. I strongly suggest that future researchers use multiple data sources to develop a comprehensive understanding of faculty members' development experiences. These sources could include semi-structured interviews, professional portfolios, focus group consultations, and direct observations.

This study focused on Vietnamese faculty members' professional development experiences, especially with regards to campus activity. Other aspects of their professional lives might intertwine with their careers, including family and other off-campus roles and responsibilities. Further research could take a life-course approach to the study of career progression for faculty in Vietnam as a whole and include aspects of family and personal life in addition to work and career. The life-course perspective would offer a holistic view and help identify additional factors/aspects that influence participants' decisions and actions.

The findings show that from the perspective of participating faculty members, there is a profound absence of institutional support for their professional development. It is vital to further investigate this phenomenon from leaders' and policymakers' points of view, as they are in charge of faculty professional development. Future research is needed to collect and analyze the insights of these stakeholders. Findings from such sources would provide a fresh perspective on the role of the institution in faculty development

Finally, a new conceptual framework (Figure 4) was proposed based on the findings of this study. While this framework lays out the pathway of professional development for Vietnamese faculty, it was denied from limited data in selected contexts. Therefore, the feasibility and credibility of this new framework needs to be further tested empirically with larger populations in more diverse context. Along the same line, I encourage more indigenous research that will help identify culturally

sensitive core concepts which will contribute to the development indigenous theories for faculty identity development.

Conclusion

Vietnamese faculty members teaching in public higher education institutions in Vietnam were the target of this dissertation study. The purpose was to explore their professional development experiences, focusing on their perceived professional development, various professional activities, influential factors, and outcomes. The significance and timeline of this topic of this dissertation can be found in the government documents and scholars' discussion on the urgent need for improving quality of Vietnamese faculty workforce. In a competitive regional and international competition in higher education and high qualified workforce, the quality of faculty significantly contributes to increase the competitiveness of Vietnamese tertiary education and national human resource.

Despite the significant role of faculty members there is limited knowledge about their professional development experiences. To better support faculty members to improve their professional competency and performance, it is important to understand how faculty members experience in their professional development.

I conducted a qualitative research study, guided by grounded theory methodology. I interviewed 14 Vietnamese faculty members who had at least nine years of working as a faculty member in public universities in Vietnam. To ensure the credibility and validity of the study, I followed the five-phase data collection and

analysis process in the grounded theory method adapted from Corbin and Strauss (2014) and Pryor (2019).

The first important contribution of this study is highlighting the critical role of personal factors in shaping faculty's perceptions toward enablers and challenges that guided their professional development strategies. In this regard, taking ownership of professional development, together with balancing roles and learning, were the most important professional development strategies that this faculty used to react and interact with a limited supportive higher education system in Vietnam. The study findings also provide evidence for the significant impact of overseas doctoral education experience on the participants' career development, compared to much lower quality of local programs. Given the context of barriers outweighing support, my findings showed that the competency and self-efficacy improvement and professional self-concept changes were the common outcomes of all participants' professional development.

Another significant contribution of my study is to propose a conceptual framework of professional identity development for Vietnamese faculty members. The framework highlighted the development of professional identity via a process (i.e. *professional development strategies at each stage of professional identity development*) required to transform the inputs (i.e. *the interaction of personal factors, contextual influences, and professional development participation*), into outcomes (i.e. *growth and becoming*). This framework is an important reference for those who work in faculty development at all levels in Vietnam, from national and institutional policy makers and practitioners to individual faculty members and researchers.

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[258](#)

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APPENDIX A

INFORMATION SHEET

Project Title: *The Perspectives of Faculty about University Faculty Development in Vietnam*

You are invited to take part in a research study being conducted by Phuong, To Tam, doctoral candidate from Texas A&M University. The information in this form is provided to help you decide whether or not to take part. If you decide to take part in the study, you will be asked to sign this consent form. If you decide you do not want to participate, there will be no penalty to you, and you will not lose any benefits you normally would have.

Why Is This Study Being Done?

The purpose of this study is to explore the perceptions and experiences of Vietnamese Senior Faculty regarding the FD activities in which they have participated.

Why Am I Being Asked to Be in This Study?

You are being asked to be in this study because you are a Vietnamese university faculty who meet the following criteria of participants:

- have been promoted by the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) to Senior Faculty status
- are holding a full-time appointment in a public university in Vietnam
- spend no less than 50% of their weekly schedule on their scholarship (teaching, research, and service) and no more than 25% of their schedule with administration work
- are able to access to internet for communication via emails and interview via Skype
- are willing to share their faculty development experience.

How Many People Will Be Asked to Be in This Study?

10 – 30 people (participants) will be invited to participate in this study

What Will I Be Asked to Do in This Study?

You are asked to

- participate in a one to one individual interview through SKYPE, lasting between 60 and 90 minutes, and the interview will be audio-recorded;
- revise and return each interview transcript within one week of receipt. Changes or edits to the transcripts will be discussed between me as the researcher and participants via emails.

- review a summary of tentative categories derived from each interview through email soon after your interview. Changes or edits to the transcripts will be discussed between me as the researcher and participants via emails.
- participate in an individual follow-up interview via SKYPE, in which you have an opportunity to provide feedback on the categories, elaborate your ideas relating to the categories, and share more about your faculty development experience. The length of each interview will be flexible. This interview will last between 10 and 30 minutes and also be audio-recorded.

Note: The Vietnamese language will be used in all correspondences and interviews.

You may be removed from the study by the investigator for these reasons:

- You are not willing to share stories relating to your professional development as a faculty.
- You do not allow any audio recording.

Will Photos, Video or Audio Recordings Be Made of Me during the Study?

The interviews will be recorded (except the follow up interviews)

The researchers will make an audio during the interviews so that the researcher can use these recordings for the purpose of data analysis. If you do not give permission for the audio recording to be obtained, you cannot participate in this study.

Are There Any Risks to Me?

The things that you will be doing are no more risks than you would come across in everyday life, including physical, criminal, social, financial, economic, psychological risk as well as risks associated with breach of privacy or confidentiality.

Will There Be Any Costs to Me? Aside from your time, there are no costs for taking part in the study.

Will I Be Paid to Be in This Study?

You will not be paid for being in this study

Will Information from This Study Be Kept Private?

The records of this study will be kept private. No identifiers linking you to this study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. Research records will be stored securely and only Principal Investigator and IRB Protocol will have access to the records.

Information about you will be stored in computer files protected with a password. This consent form will be filed securely in an external drive for back up.

People who have access to your information include the Principal Investigator and research study personnel. Representatives of regulatory agencies such as the Office of Human Research Protections (OHRP) and entities such as the Texas A&M University Human Subjects Protection Program may access your records to make sure the study is being run correctly and that information is collected properly.

Information about you and related to this study will be kept confidential to the extent permitted or required by law.

Who may I Contact for More Information?

You may contact the Principal Investigator, Dr. Jia Wang to tell her about a concern or complaint about this research at jjawang@tamu.edu. You may also contact the Protocol Director, Phuong To Tam, phuongtotam@tamu.edu.

For questions about your rights as a research participant; or if you have questions, complaints, or concerns about the research, you may call the Texas A&M University Human Subjects Protection Program office at (979) 458-4067 or irb@tamu.edu.

What if I Change My Mind About Participating?

This research is voluntary and you have the choice whether or not to be in this research study. You may decide to not begin or to stop participating at any time. If you choose not to be in this study or stop being in the study, there will be no effect on your relationship with Texas A&M University and your universities, etc. Any new information discovered about the research will be provided to you. This information could affect your willingness to continue your participation.

STATEMENT OF CONSENT

I agree to be in this study and know that I am not giving up any legal rights by verbally stating before the interview and will be recorded. The procedures, risks, and benefits have been explained to me, and my questions have been answered. I know that new information about this research study will be provided to me as it becomes available and that the researcher will tell me if I must be removed from the study. I can ask more questions if I want. A copy of this entire Information Sheet will be given to me.

Appreciatively,

Tam Phuong

Ph.D. Candidate

Department of Educational Administration and Human Resource Development

College of Education | Texas A&M University

E-mail: phuongtotam@tamu.edu

APPENDIX B

RECRUITMENT LETTER

Dear ...,

My name is Phuong To Tam, doctoral student in Education and Human Resource Development at Texas A&M University, USA. My dissertation topic is about the experiences of faculty development in Vietnamese universities. The study objective is to explore the faculty development experience of faculty in Vietnamese universities. I am looking for male or female Vietnamese university faculty members who:

- hold the title of Senior Faculty as described by the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET)
- are full time faculty and in tenure track in a public university
- spend no less than 75% of their appointment dedicated to teaching and no more than 25% dedicated to administration
- are able to access to internet for communication via emails and interview via Skype
- are willing to share their faculty development experience.

If you are interested in sharing your faculty development experience and would like to participate in my study, please contact me. Your participation will include:

- a one to one individual interview, lasting between 45 and 60 minutes. The interview will be audio recorded;
- a revision of a summary of key points of contents of your interview. This document will be in Vietnamese language and sent to you via email soon after your interview.
- an individual follow-up interview, lasting between 15 and 30 minutes. The interview will also be audio recorded.

Note: The Vietnamese language will be used in all correspondences and interviews.

You can contact me at the e-mail address below and we can discuss your possible participation, however you are not obligated to participate if you do contact me. All e-mails between me and you will remain confidential.

Best regards,

Tam Phuong

Ph.D. Candidate

Department of Educational Administration and Human Resource Development

College of Education | Texas A&M University

E-mail: phuongtotam@tamu.edu

This research has been reviewed and approved for compliance to research ethics protocols by the Texas A&M University Institutional Review Board (IRB) and Human Subjects' Protection Program (HSPP)

APPENDIX C

SCREENING QUESTION SHEET

1. Are you a Vietnamese faculty teaching in a Vietnam University?
Yes/ No
2. Are you a Senior Faculty promoted by the Ministry of Education and Training?
Yes No
3. Do you spend more than 15% of the workload on administrative task?
Yes/ No
4. Are you able to access Internet to communicate via email?
Yes No
5. Are you able to be interviewed via Skype?
Yes No
6. Do you allow audio-recording?
Yes No
7. What type of university are you teaching?
National/ Regional Mono-disciplinary
8. Where is it located?
1st level city
2nd level City
Province

Notes:

Any No to any question from 1-6, the candidate cannot be included in the study.

APPENDIX D

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Initial questions

1. For how many years have you been working at your university?
2. Could you describe the events that led up to your first faculty position?
3. How did you begin your current faculty appointment?
4. What professional roles do you currently hold?
5. What professional roles have you had in the past?
6. How would you describe yourself when you first began your faculty appointment and the faculty member you are now?

Main questions

1. From your point of view, what does faculty development mean to you?
2. Please describe faculty development activities to develop as a faculty member? (eg. formal, informal, or self-directed learning)
3. Are there particular faculty development activities that you prefer? Why?
4. In your time in your career, have the type of faculty development activities you prefer to change?
5. Among the faculty development activities you have been engaged, what are the most common ideas you have learned?
6. What are the most useful/ effective faculty development activities in which you have participated? Can you give me an example?
7. In your experience, did any remarkable events occur that significantly affected your faculty development decisions?
8. What are the least useful faculty development activities in which you have participated? Can you give me an example?
9. Could you describe a typical faculty development in which you participate each semester?
10. Is participating in faculty development a reward for you as a faculty member? Do you have any examples?
11. Is participating in faculty development a reward for another faculty? Do you have any examples?
12. What kind of support have you had in your faculty development journey?
13. How is it like to work here?

14. What are the challenges you have encountered in your faculty development journey? In your opinion, what are the reasons for these challenges? And how do you cope with these challenges?

15. What faculty development activities do you intend to participate in the near future? Why?

16. As you look back on your faculty development journey, are there any other events that stand out in your mind? Could you describe some of them? How did you respond to these events?

17. In your opinion, what was the most effective way to develop as a faculty member in your setting? How did you make that discovery?

Ending questions

1. Take all your faculty development experience together, what image metaphor can you have?

2. Now as a Senior Faculty, what advice would you give to junior faculty members who have started their faculty development journey?

3. Is there anything else you would like to tell me about your experiences with faculty development?

APPENDIX E

PARTICIPANT PROFILE

Participant's profile:

Name: **PHUONG**

Gender: M/ F

University: Uni National

Regional: **Monodisciplinary**

Location: **Big city**

2nd level

Discipline of teaching: **Teacher Education**

Degree:

Bachelor: domestic/overseas **Master:** domestic/overseas **Ph.D.:** Domestic/ overseas

Years of teaching: **17**

Other responsibilities: **No**

Other notes:

Recruitment process (example)

No.	Activities	Date	Status /Follow up action
1	Sending invitation letter	6/1	- Pending - Sending a gentle reminder if no reply on 6/15. Good profile/ need to persuade
2	Sending gentle reminder	6/15	- Pending - If no reply, sending a thank you email
3	Receiving a reply with willingness to participate	6/18	
4	Sending screening questions	6/19	- Receiving answers: eligible participants
5	Sending Information Sheet & Invitation Letter	6/19	- Waiting for an agreement
6	Setting time for interview	6/23	4:00 PM on 28 (Hanoi time) or 4:00AM on 29 (Texas time)
7	Completing transcribing	6/24	
8	Sending transcript to the interviewee	6/25	- Wait for reply within a week - No reply
9	Sending thank you email	7/2	
10	Starting coding the transcript	8/2	

APPENDIX F

MEMBER CHECK: INITIAL THEMES

Chủ đề chính và Câu chuyện Phát triển nghề nghiệp (PTNN) của Giảng viên (GV) Dang

** Từ Giảng viên (GV) trong phần phân tích này đề cập trực tiếp tới. Những phân tích dưới đây hoàn toàn dựa trên phân phỏng vấn đối với GV 03 về trải nghiệm và ý kiến cá nhân về quá trình PTNN của GV này.*

Followed are themes and researcher's observation about participating faculty member, Dang. This is derived from the interview with Dang in 80 minutes on October 24th 2016, from 9:00 PM – 10:10PM (Texas time)

Chủ đề chính/ Themes

1. Quan niệm của GV về công việc của một GV đại học/ *Professional roles of a Faculty member*

- nhà giáo dục (không chỉ dừng lại việc truyền đạt thông tin mà còn chuẩn bị cho sinh viên các work readiness skills)
- nhà nghiên cứu (tuy nhiên mối quan hệ giữa nội dung nghiên cứu và nội dung giảng dạy không có sự kiên kết chặt chẽ)
- trainer (tham gia đào tạo các giảng viên khác trong trường và ngoài trường thông qua sự án ở cấp khu vực)

2. Trải nghiệm của GV/ *Professional development experiences*

- Luôn tự học: để cập nhật các kiến thức liên quan tới môn học đang giảng dạy để nâng cao chất lượng bài giảng
- Tham gia: xây dựng chương trình tiên tiến của khoa, các khóa học về phương pháp giảng dạy, các dự án phát triển giảng viên với tư cách là người học, dự án đào tạo GV với tư cách là trainer
- Tham gia các nhóm nghiên cứu chuyên ngành và xuất bản các nghiên cứu đều đặn hàng năm
- tham gia và trình bày bài ở các hội thảo trong nước và quốc tế về chuyên ngành, phương pháp giảng dạy môn chuyên ngành
- Áp dụng các phương pháp giảng dạy mới trên lớp, chia sẻ kinh nghiệm giảng dạy với các GV khác trong khoa
- GV có nhấn mạnh (1) các hoạt động/ trải nghiệm mà GV tham gia đều được thực hiện trong các nhóm, các khóa học, dự án và có sự tương tác giữa các cá nhân (nếu làm một mình thì rất khó làm) (2) và yếu tố nước ngoài

3. Kết quả/ hiệu quả của các hoạt động đó (Outcomes)

- Áp dụng các kiến thức vào bài giảng có hiệu quả gây hứng thú cho SV, SV tích cực hơn; SV tự tin hơn vì có cơ hội tiếp cận với các kỹ năng làm việc, tính cởi mở cho quá trình phát triển và thay đổi của SV về sau
- Có ảnh hưởng tới một số đồng nghiệp trẻ
- HIệu quả: 2-3 bài báo được đăng ở tạp chí chuyên ngành quốc tế hàng năm; 2-3 bài báo đăng ở tạp chí trong nước, báo cáo tại hội nghị chuyên ngành toàn quốc
- kiến thức về phương pháp giảng dạy của GV được hệ thống hóa thông qua các khóa học và các dự án về phương pháp giảng dạy do phía Mỹ tài trợ và tổ chức; tham gia vào các nhóm, diễn đàn của GV ở khu vực và toàn cầu
- Identity development: teacher / resercher (in his discipline) + teaching as research (research about classroom teaching) + trainer of faculty + leadership in teaching (teaching about curriculum).

4. Các ảnh hưởng có tính phát triển/ *Developmental influences*

- Chuyên ngành đào tạo: ngành kỹ thuật (các nghiên cứu có khả năng xuất bản ở tạp chí quốc tế)
- Trải nghiệm trong thời gian học ĐH và một thời gian trong chương trình TS ở châu Âu đã có tạo nên nền tảng về con đường và cách thức GV thực hiện trong quá trình PTNN của GV
- loại hình trường Đại học, môi trường làm việc
- bất cập: lương thấp, cơ chế và thủ tục hành chính, thiếu sự hỗ trợ cho GV để áp dụng phương pháp mới, trường không có chiến lược PTNN cho GV
- thuận lợi: trường cung cấp thông tin về các cơ hội PTNN và hỗ trợ GV cho tham gia
- lãnh đạo: lãnh đạo đóng vai trò quan trọng trong việc duy trì và hiệu quả của các hoạt động PTGV.
- các sự kiện/ kinh nghiệm có tính đột phá:
- các động lực: (1) sinh viên (sự hài lòng và phản hồi của SV đối với các giờ giảng), (2) sự hài lòng của đồng nghiệp khi áp dụng các phương pháp mới do mình chia sẻ, (3) sự hài lòng về những giờ dạy hiệu quả và thấy SV hứng thú, sv tích cực hơn khi GV áp dụng các phương pháp giảng dạy mới, (4) các khóa học và các dự án về giáo dục/ phương pháp giảng dạy do nước ngoài tổ chức hoặc phối hợp tổ chức.
- tầm nhìn và chiến lược PTNN của cá nhân GV (đây là tố chất của GV và có tính chất như là yếu tố quyết định thành công của GV)

5. Mối quan hệ của GV với môi trường làm việc/ *Relationship between faculty members and working environment*

- GV coi mối quan hệ GV với nhà trường là mối qua hệ giúp đỡ 2 chiều
- GV coi mình là một thành viên của nhà trường và luôn có ý thức chủ động trong việc đóng góp vì sự phát triển chung của đội ngũ GV của nhà trường mặc dù trường cũng không có chiến lược cụ thể trong việc PTNN cho GV.

6. Chiến lược phát triển nghề nghiệp của cá nhân GV/ *Professional development strategies*

- Liên tục học (tự học, tham gia các cơ hội học)

- Tự học đối với kiến thức chuyên môn; tham gia các cơ hội học tập đối với phương pháp giảng dạy; làm việc theo nhóm đối với nghiên cứu và xuất bản bài báo
- Sử dụng thành thạo tiếng Anh (theo người nghiên cứu đây là yếu tố cơ bản để mở ra cơ hội tham gia các dự án, khóa học và nhóm nghiên cứu quốc tế)
- Tham gia các chương trình, dự án có yếu tố nước ngoài
- Các hoạt động PTNN đều làm theo nhóm, có sự hợp tác (ví dụ: dự án nghiên cứu, communities of practice)
- Thay đổi theo hướng bottom up: chủ động làm được cái gì thì làm, không ngồi chờ thay đổi từ lãnh đạo
- Quan hệ tốt với các bộ phận/ phòng ban trong trường
- Luận án TS và các nghiên cứu cần phải linh hoạt và cần phải cân nhắc đến đầu ra (các bài báo quốc tế CSI), không quá cứng nhắc vào môn học mình dạy
- Tích cực, chủ động tìm kiếm và nắm bắt các cơ hội và chuẩn bị tốt cho việc nắm bắt các cơ hội PTNN (ví dụ: các kỳ phỏng vấn vào các khóa học hoặc dự án, chuẩn bị hồ sơ PGS)

7. Một số ý kiến khác chủ yếu liên quan tới việc PTNN cho GV/ *Other ideas relating to Professional development*

- Lương thấp: do lương thấp so với chi phí sinh hoạt chung của gia đình nên khó đòi hỏi GV dành nhiều thời gian và tâm huyết vào việc phát triển nghề nghiệp của GV
- Thay đổi cần mang tính hệ thống: (1) Tăng lương thì phải gắn với trách nhiệm/ chất lượng liên quan tới nhiều yếu tố trong hệ thống (ví dụ đánh giá GV, đánh giá SV), (2) Cơ chế thủ tục hành chính nhiều khi gây khó khăn, thiếu sự hỗ trợ cho GV trong công việc và quá trình phát PTNN của họ
- Khi nhà trường tổ chức các khóa học nâng cao năng lực GV, nhà trường cần tính tới hiệu quả (vd: chương trình nâng cao năng lực tiếng Anh cho GV).

Quan sát của người nghiên cứu/ *Researcher's observation*

Người nghiên cứu nhận thấy rằng những thay đổi liên quan tới phương pháp giảng dạy của GV thông qua các cơ hội tiếp xúc và học tập liên tục trong các khóa học và dự án liên quan tới phương pháp giảng dạy do các trường ĐH Mỹ tổ chức hoặc phối hợp thực hiện đã làm cho GV có sự chuyển biến và thay đổi một cách đột phá (transformational changes) thể hiện qua quan điểm về giảng dạy thay đổi và ảnh hưởng tới hoạt động giảng dạy và hiệu quả giảng dạy của GV. Cũng có thể nói rằng cơ hội đó chính là một transformational learning experience bởi vì GV đã thay đổi view point về phương pháp giảng dạy và cách tiếp cận với các vấn đề liên quan tới GD. Quan trọng hơn những hoạt động này và hiệu quả của chúng đã có ảnh hưởng sâu sắc tới quá trình phát triển nghề nghiệp (career development) và vị thế nghề nghiệp (professional identity) của GV. Cụ thể là tại thời điểm này, người nghiên cứu nhận thấy identity development của GV như sau: xuất phát từ lecturer and researcher, sau đó tiếp cận vai trò teacher as researcher (có nghiên cứu và báo cáo về phương pháp giảng dạy), trainer

for faculty members, và hiện nay đang tiếp cận vai trò faculty developer (leadership trong việc PTNN của GV trong một tổ chức giáo dục).

Tuy nhà trường có quy định đối với GV về việc PTNN nhưng chỉ mang tính khuyến khích và không có chế tài do nhiều yếu tố trong đó lương thấp và thiếu hệ thống đánh giá GV là 2 yếu tố bản. Nhà trường tuy đã làm tốt vai trò đưa các thông tin về cơ hội PTNN của các tổ chức bên ngoài đến cho GV và tạo cơ hội cho họ tham gia, nhưng chưa thực sự có chiến lược. Trong hoàn cảnh này, quá trình PTNN của mỗi GV phụ thuộc rất nhiều vào định hướng phát triển, chiến lược, sự chủ động, và nỗ lực của mỗi cá nhân. GV này đã hội tụ đầy đủ các yếu tố trên một cách có hiệu quả và đã tạo ra một quá trình PTNN vừa rộng và vừa sâu về quy mô và có ảnh hưởng tới chính con đường PTNN tiếp theo của GV, SV, đồng nghiệp và cả tổ chức.

Tuy nhiên, chỉ một số rất ít các GV có thể tham gia các khóa học và dự án PTNN cho GV có chất lượng cao (do chỉ tiêu có hạn, trình độ ngoại ngữ, v.v.), đa số chưa có cơ hội đó. Vì vậy những GV như thế này sẽ đóng vai trò là faculty developer và agent of change từ bên trong tổ chức. Họ sẽ là người tạo ra và tập hợp có hiệu quả nguồn lực bên trong của nhà trường và tìm kiếm nguồn lực bên ngoài để tạo cơ hội PTNN cho đội ngũ GV. Khi đó nhà trường cần thực thi vai trò knowledge management đối với việc PTNN cho GV. Cụ thể là nhà trường sẽ tạo ra cơ chế, quy trình, và môi trường mà qua đó tài nguyên trí tuệ (dưới hình thức expertise của cá nhân, tài nguyên trực tuyến) được chia sẻ, ứng dụng, và tái tạo một cách có chủ đích và hệ thống. Qua đó, các tài nguyên trí tuệ của mỗi cá nhân sẽ thành tài nguyên của tổ chức và khi được chia sẻ sẽ làm giàu cho các cá nhân khác trong tổ chức và thúc đẩy sự phát triển chung của tổ chức.

APPENDIX G

EXAMPLE OF REFLEXIVE JOURNAL ENTRY (Phase 1 &2)

Date	Action	Further notes
10/2016	Finish first 3 interview using criteria-based sampling	Transcribe, send back to interviewees, and discuss changes with interviewees
11/2016	Start coding	Hand coding, collapse codes
12/2016	Start organizing codes	Start organizing codes into super codes and categories, start visualize the levels of categories
12/11/2016	Send to faculty member a table neatly reported groups of categories and codes	Waiting for comments with excitement
12/21/2016	Receive comments via SKYPE (I am disappointed with what I did.)	My faculty did not comment much but her main concern: <i>“I came up with level of categories too early without enough data or I structured the data/ code too early. So, the categories/ table are provisional because my categories may not ground on the primary data.”</i> She suggests: <i>I have to un-structure codes and try to forget the structure or relationship of codes I have made.</i>
01/2017	Start coding again using Atlas.ti software to open code	- Start open code again using the software. I open code freely without any guiding structure about code relationship. I ended up with 412 with 3 transcripts. When seeing the list, I could not understand what I did. I was so frustrated. I decided to set aside the list of codes. - After several discussions about my process with my friends and faculty membered, I calm down and come back again with the list of code. Looking back at the list, I found out that, the codes are so detail. So, in

		fact, so many codes are similar.
	Collapse codes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Cleaning and collapsing helped me to reduce from 412 to 104 and to 42 codes. While doing this, sometimes, I need to look the quotes again in order to have a more sense of the codes I used. - Atlas.ti makes this process rather simple.
1/2017 – 5/2017	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Interview another 10 interviews - keep coding 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - With 42 initial cleaned codes, I felt much better to move forward with the next interviews. - Add few new codes - Memos really help along the process
2-3/2017	- keep writing descriptions for supper codes	As instructed by the faculty, I need to write description for each super code. At first, I think it is not very difficult because it is likely I know it rather clearly as I generated the codes from the ground. But it turns out more complicated. I am stressed when trying to describe them because I feel it is very hard for me to describe it on itself, instead of defining each code by its relations. It means that I have to make sense of each super code on itself without making connection with others. I felt into a trap of making connection among codes.
2/23/2017	Submit the code list to faculty	<p>Submitting the code list with description to the faculty and received her feedback. However, I feel much better with a clear mind about the codes. It is important to understand what the codes mean by itself. Try to treat it as a single unit before trying to make sense of its in relations to others. I need to give each super code a name (clear and short), its identity (short description about what it is, and representative codes (core characteristics).</p> <p>The faculty goes through 42 codes, their descriptions and representative codes. She has some questions when some super codes did not make sense to her. We think that 42 codes are too many to describe a phenomenon (which is built up by layers of codes). So, I need to collapse the codes in order to catch the nature of the phenomenon. She gives me some</p>

		suggestions on how to preliminary sort these supersedes.
3/9/2017	Submit super codes to faculty	Table with 22 super codes + definitions. In fact, I am so excited with the table (including super codes, representative codes) I submit because I think I can make sense of each super code by itself but not connecting them with one another. Her feedbacks shed light on what I did unconsciously. I felt I understood why she wanted me to unstructured the codes/ supersedes/ and categories in the table I had submitted to her before. I could see lots of ways to make sense and connect codes and supersedes, compared to what I did at the beginning. Also, I understood the problems of coming up with categories early when the data was not thick and deep enough and when I did not spend enough time on analyzing data and sensing of the data.
12/9/2017	Submit to faculty	Table with 17 super codes under 6 categories

APPENDIX H

EXAMPLE OF DATA ANALYSIS USING ATLAS.TI (Phase 1)

List of all codes

Codes-Filter: All [102]

HU: Atlasti.12.4. (2)

File:

[\\blender\homes\p\h\phuongtotam\nt\AccountSettings\Desktop\disseration\Atlasti.12.4.(2).hpr7]

Edited by: Super

Date/Time: 2017-12-05 15:58:49 (Date and time of extracting Atlasti. file on Microsoft Word)

Code: 1 lack of support for becoming {2-0}

P 2: Nguyen - 2:233 (Super)

Codes: [1 lack of support for becoming]

nhưng bên này việc tiếp cận các nguồn tài liệu sách vở sẽ khó hơn, đi tất cả các nơi xin các số liệu để làm các nghiên cứu chuyên sâu là khó khăn hơn, chi phí cũng khó khăn hơn, lương thì thấp, và tài liệu, số liệu rất khó tiếp cận, cái hệ thống thống kê

P 1: Le - 2:234 (Super)

Codes: [1 lack of support for becoming]

No memos

Nhưng đối với 1 trường ĐH ở VN, anh lên lớp là 1 phần việc GD giảng dạy, còn phần người ta phải làm việc khác, những việc khác ấy, đôi khi nó lại lon hơn, hoặc chiếm nhiều thời gian hơn, dẫn đến là mình không có đủ thời gian để dành cho việc học.

Code: 2 low salary system {2-0}

P 1: Le - 1:321 (Super)

Codes: [2 low salary system]

Lương gv bao giờ cũng là yếu tố tranh cãi nhất thế nhưng với cá nhân em thì em không care lắm về lương và em hài lòng với mức lương họ trả cho mình. Với mức lương như vậy, mình dạy ít

..

P 2: Nguyen.docx - 4:226 (Super)

Codes: [2 low salary system]

No memos

APPENDIX I

EXAMPLE OF MEMOS ON ATLAS.TI (Phase 1)

List of all memos

Memo-Filter: All [135]

HU: Atlasti.12.4. (2)

File:

[\[\\blender\homes\p\h\phuongtotam\nt\AccountSettings\Desktop\disseration\Atlasti.12.4.\(2\).hpr7\]](#)

Edited by: Super

Date/Time: 2017-12-05 15:58:49 (Date and time of extracting Atlasti. file on Microsoft Word)

MEMO: accountability (1 Quotation) (Super, 2017-01-11 15:39:10)

P 1: Le:

FD is for faculty and for the student. She is accountable for her development and student (not for the university). As with no support from university, she doesn't think she needs to be accountable for the university as an organization member.

MEMO: ADministration regulation in faculty's degree advancement (1 Quotation) (Super, 2017-01-15 15:49:29)

P 3: Dang:

Some faculty don't meet this, meaning that they don't have the Ph.D.. Thus, faculty without a Ph.D. degree is a common trend in VN. Let's see it from the organizational perspective, the quality of teaching may not be affected, as having Ph.D. or doesn't make difference in their teaching, but will affect their promotion and research quality if they wish to do research. Thus, with faculty teaching in a non-research university, should Ph.D. degree is a hard requirement? Anyway, only a few universities in VN are considered research universities.

MEMO: administrative procedure (1 Quotation) (Super, 2017-01-15 16:41:11)

P 3: Dang:

Many of the regulations are just time consuming, useless, and even stupid. Many seem very strict on the surface but in fact they don't. The education system in Vietnam is so cumbersome, too relaxed, but not effective. In short, it is nonsense. Being in that process is very tiring, the process negatively affects the effectiveness of individual work.

APPENDIX J

EXAMPLE OF DATA ANALYSIS USING ATLAS.TI (Phase 2)

Codes-quotations list (261 pages)

Code-Filter: All

HU: Atlasti.12.4. (2)

File:

[\\blender\homes\p\h\phuongtotam\nt\AccountSettings\Desktop\disseration\Atlasti.12.4.
(2).hpr7]

Edited by: Super

Date/Time: 2017-12-05 15:51:04 (date of extracting codes from Atlasti to Microsoft Word)

Code: 3.1 INFL. Factor: indiv = challenges = lack of commitment {9-0}

P 2: Nguyen.docx - 2:234 [Nhưng đối với 1 trường ĐH ở VN..] (Super)

Codes: [3.1 INFL. Factor: indiv = challenges = lack of commitment] [3.3 INFL. Factor: Micro = challenges = lack of support for becoming]

Nhưng đối với 1 trường ĐH ở VN, việc anh lên lớp là 1 phần việc GD giảng dạy, còn phần người ta phải làm việc khác, những việc khác ấy, đôi khi nó lại lớn hơn, hoặc chiếm nhiều thời gian hơn ...

P 4: Phuong.docx - 4:212 [?u như so sánh với th?i k? em ..] (Super)

Codes: [3.1 INFL. Factor: indiv = challenges = lack of commitment]

Nếu như so sánh với thời kỳ em mới là giảng viên thì em thấy rất buồn vì trước kia mỗi khi lên lớp mình nhiệt huyết bao nhiêu thì bây giờ em đã vô cảm đi nhiều. Mình vẫn hoàn thành công việc của mình ở mức đủ tốt để đảm bảo chất lượng, sự hài lòng

P 5: Luong.docx - 5:71 [Là 1 GV nữ, em th?y cũng có m?..] (Super)

Codes: [3.1 INFL. Factor: indiv = challenges = lack of commitment]

Là 1 GV nữ, em thấy cũng có một số hạn chế nhất định so với các bạn đồng lứa là nam. Đúng không thể đổ lỗi hết cho là do mình là phụ nữ nhưng đúng thật phụ nữ cũng có

những hạn chế nhất định. Từ đầu năm 2007 đến bây giờ, em có thi và làm NCS. Vậy là trong thời gian vừa rồi em vừa làm NCS, vừa lập gia đình, sinh con, v.v.

P 5: Luong.docx - 5:99 [M?t trong nh?ng tran tr? c?a n..] (43:43) (Super)

Codes: [3.1 INFL. Factor: indiv = challenges = lack of commitment]

Một trong những trở ngại của nghề GV, đó là chế độ đãi ngộ của nhà nước với GV quá thấp, nhưng lại yêu cầu khối lượng công việc mà họ phải bỏ ra để hoàn thành. Cho

P 8: Thanh.docx - 8:73 [T? sau khi có b?ng TS hơn 1 na..] (19:19) (Super)

Codes: [3.1 INFL. Factor: indiv = challenges = lack of commitment]

Memos: [Identity construction]

Từ sau khi có bằng TS hơn 1 năm, em không có hội thảo khoa học, mà có chăng thì chỉ là những thứ nhỏ nhặt. Em tham gia chủ yếu là lấy thông tin làm đề tài cho Sv thực hiện. Lý do là do hoàn cảnh cá nhân. Nếu có báo cáo em báo cáo ở các hội thảo trong nước vì đi dự hội thảo phải lo tự tang trải chi phí (trước kia)

P11: Thanh.docx - 11:15 [T? sau khi có b?ng TS hơn 1 na..] (19:19) (Super)

Codes: [2.1ENG: Com. FD = informal = workshop] [3.1 INFL. Factor: indiv = challenges = lack of commitment] [3.2 INFL. Factor: Meso = institution = support = research funding]

Từ sau khi có bằng TS hơn 1 năm, em không có hội thảo khoa học, mà có chăng thì chỉ là những thứ nhỏ nhặt. Em tham gia chủ yếu là lấy thông tin làm đề tài cho Sv thực hiện. Lý do là do hoàn cảnh cá nhân. Nếu có báo cáo em báo cáo ở các hội thảo trong nước vì đi dự hội thảo phải lo tự tang trải chi phí (trước kia)

P11: Thanh.docx - 11:18 [Nói v? nhóm d?ng nghi?p, em ch..] (24:24) (Super)

Codes: [3.1 INFL. Factor: indiv = challenges = lack of career development] [3.1 INFL. Factor: indiv = challenges = lack of commitment] [3.1 INFL. Factor: indiv = challenges = role conflict]

Nói về nhóm đồng nghiệp, em chỉ có thể chia sẻ và gắn kết với những người mà cùng thầy hướng dẫn. Sau đó tự bản thân không tham gia các hđ khoa học nữa.

Example of categories and dimensions

Code: 3.1 INFL. Factor: indiv = *challenges* = lack of career path {5-0}

Code: 3.1 INFL. Factor: indiv = *challenges* = lack of commitment {9-0}

Code: 3.1 INFL. Factor: indiv = *challenges* = lack of competency {5-0}

Code: 3.1 INFL. Factor: indiv = *challenges* = role conflict {10-0}

Code: 3.1 INFL. Factor: indiv = *enablers* = engaged {12-0}

Code: 3.1 INFL. Factor: indiv = *enablers* = intrinsic motivation {17-0}

Code: 3.1 INFL. Factor: indiv = *enablers* = networking {3-0}

Code: 3.1 INFL. Factor: indiv = *enablers* = belief in competency {9-0}

APPENDIX K

MEMO (Phase 3)

Date: 9/25/2017

Issue: Perception toward FD /Research question: 1/ Properties and Dimensionality: consider to be merged with individual factors

This focus on: *Perceptions of faculty member toward their relationship with the organization* (independent or collaboration; committed or ignorance).

Commentary Memo/ Analytic Summary Memo/

A majority of the faculty thought that they did not receive much support from their organization. It means that the context of their FD, the organization, have not much value to them in their FD. Although they thought that supporting faculty in their professional development should be one function of the organization, besides the administrative role. Thus, when the context is negative, how faculty perceive their FD. Their perception toward the relationship varies. Majority acknowledge that the due to limited/ no support from the organization (except the administrative) in their FD. Thus, they don't think they were part of the organization and had responsibility to contribute to the organization. No mutual support and benefit between individual faculty and organization. They are self-reliant and independent from the organization in their FD. However, they don't complain and considered it as an error in system; meaning that they understand that they cannot change and don't expect support from the organization in their FD.

APPENDIX L

MEMO (Phase 4)

Date: 9/26/2017

Issue: Reactions with university conditions /Research question: may include in RQ 2 /
Properties: part of the FD strategy

This focus on: *Reaction of faculty members to their university depending on their perceptions toward their relationship with the organization* (independent or collaboration; committed or ignorance).

Commentary Memo/ Analytic Summary Memo/

Faculty members react with the organizational context in different ways, depending on how they perceived their FD in relation to the university. Common patterns: (1) Take advantage of little support as a reason for less commitment; (2) acknowledge little organizational support and decide to be self-reliance and feel no responsibility to contribute to the organization; (3) acknowledge of little organizational support and decide to be self-reliance but try to take initiative in their own FD and colleagues' FD by using bottom up change approach, (4) take advantage of organization support and consider a the relationship as mutual benefit and responsibility, take initiative, so they apply the bottom up change approach to impact the institution with their initiatives.

APPENDIX M

DEBRIEFING (Phase 5)

I had debriefing meetings with a professor in Texas A&M University, a Vietnamese peer who used to be a faculty member in Vietnam and also a doctoral candidate in a university in the U.S., and three participants in this study.

1. Objective: to present my framework and receive feedbacks that may push me to analyze further and more insights from various perspectives by asking me questions, challenging my ideas, and giving comments

2. Process:

a. I sent the preliminary framework to individuals in advance via email.

b. I had discussion with individuals one at a time; in each meeting I

- presented the framework in about 5 minutes

- asked some general questions

- “Do the framework and my presentation make sense to you?”
- “Do you need any further explanation/ clarification about this framework?”
- “As a faculty member, do you want to add to/change anything in this framework?”
- “Do you have any suggestion for me to improve the framework?”

- took notes

c. After the 1st meeting with my professor, I revised the framework that was used for the next four debriefing meetings.

d. I revised the framework with participants’ comments.