Trust in Teacher Conversations:

A Case Study of Using a Fine Tuning Protocol in an International School

by

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Statement of Originality

I, NG, Marlon Man Loon, hereby declare that I am the sole author of the thesis, and the material presented in this thesis is my original work, except those sections indicated in the acknowledgement. I further declare that I have followed the University's policies and regulations on Academic Honesty, Copyright and Plagiarism in writing the thesis, and no material in this thesis has been submitted for a degree in this or other universities.

Abstract

The purpose of this study is to explore the development of trust from a teacher's conversation in a professional learning community context. It uses the theoretical framework of Tschannen-Moran (2014) to define trust; this framework states that trust consists of 5 facets: benevolence, reliability, competence, honesty, and openness. This study also uses Adams' (2008) theoretical framework, which posits a feedback loop mechanism for building trust. This research analyzes seven international school teachers in Hong Kong who provided feedback to a colleague. A facilitator guided this collegial feedback session using the Fine Tuning Protocol procedure. The data from this single case study was gathered and analyzed from 2 sources. The video of the Fine Tuning Protocol session was transcribed and studied using Conversation Analysis (CA) methods. In addition, interviews were conducted with all participants and coded for themes, and 5 insights resulted from the analysis of this data. These insights produced 2 thematic findings: first, trust is built by participants discerning reliability in the Fine Tuning Protocol process; second, international teachers' professional identity affects their vulnerability or openness in sharing with their colleagues. These 2 thematic findings led the researcher to recommend future actions for international school administrators and teachers.

Keywords: international teachers, professional learning communities, protocol, trust

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List of Abbreviations

CA: Conversation Analysis

FTP: Fine Tuning Protocol

NSRF: National School Reform Faculty

OTD: Organization of Turn Design

PLC: Professional Learning Community

RO: Repair Organization

SO: Sequence Organization

TTO: Turn Talk Organization

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Background of Study

International schools are a growing market; globalization and the growth of the middle class has made them a billion-dollar industry (Bates, 2011). In the 2007–8 school year, the U.S. overseas revenue from international education was $15.54 billion USD (Bates, 2011). In particular, demand for these schools has increased in Asia. According to the ISC Research group, 5,344 international schools exist in China alone (Asfa-Wossen, 2018). With this trend towards international education, there is a growing need to better understand international schools.

International schools are challenged by their teaching staff. Many teachers join these schools in hopes of travel and cultural exploration (Rizvi, 2018). However, international schools are not always ideal and they have many obstacles. In a recent Internet article, Pennington (2018) reports from a survey of 95,000 international school students that few have positive attitudes towards their teachers compared to other types of schools. She claims these poor attitudes are related to the transitory nature of international schools. Many international schools have transient teachers, which hinders the development of positive, long-term student-teacher relationships (Pennington, 2018). Mancuso, Roberts, and White's (2010) study of international schools claims international teacher annual turnover rates are between 17% to 60% of the faculty. Such international teacher mobility can be attributed to a number of factors, such as mismatch with teacher abilities (Cox, 2012), unsatisfactory school packages (Hayden & Thompson, 2008) and difficulties adjusting to host country (Hayden & Thompson 2000). In addition, the Independent Education Today (IE-Today) reports that some international teachers

are challenged by having students with English language weaknesses, personalizing diverse

student needs, and incorporating technology into their curriculum (Newman, 2017).

Furthermore, hiring international teachers is a risky venture because it is difficult to ascertain

teacher quality using distance interviewing methods, such as Skype (Newman, 2017).

There is thus compelling reason for international schools to invest in workplace

professional development as a way to meet these teacher challenges. International schools have

a significant opportunity for teachers to learn from a diverse faculty, including highly

experienced teachers. The caveat is that such learning requires teachers to be vulnerable enough

to allow their colleagues to challenge their teaching practices (Kimball, 2016). Moreover,

workplace professional development provides clarity and consistency to a school's curriculum.

Providing continuity in an international school is greatly aided by this clarity and benefits all

students. Thus, there is an incentive for the school to develop a collaborative learning culture.

As an international educator, I believe trust is the essential component in creating

successful workplace professional development. As I have over two decades of international

teaching experiences, I propose that successful teacher interactions depend on their trust of each

other, and mistrust among teachers leads to breakdowns in communication and cooperation. In

addition, trust is essential for teachers' willingness to be open about their teaching practices—an

essential condition for professional critique and teacher improvement. Consequently, I am

convinced that trust is critical for international school improvement.

The notion that trust is essential to workplace success is not new; ample literature on organization has pointed to trust as key to collaboration at work (Covey, 2006; Mishra, 1996; Solomon & Flores, 2001; Mühl, 2014). For example, studies suggest that trust is a crucial factor for successful interactions between healthcare supervisors and trainees (Hauer, ten Cate, Boscardin, Irby, Iobst, & O' Sullivan, 2014), doctors and patients (Dang,Westbrook, Njue, & Giordano, 2017), and employers and new employees (Spector & Jones, 2004). Thus, successful collaboration implies that trust is present.

Being an international teacher creates challenges for collaborative trust. Such teachers must depend on colleagues from different cultures and backgrounds. However, Glaeser, Laibson, Scheinkman, and Soutter (2000) assert that people who are closer in social identity, such as race and national identity, are more likely to be trusting. Hence, building trust among an international staff is not immediately natural. Furthermore, international teachers' trust is difficult to establish when the faculty's service is short-term and variable due to high staff turnover. Another way to look at this situation, however, is that international schools constantly establish trust with the arrival of new teachers. Unfortunately, without collegial trust, teachers become dissatisfied with their jobs (Driscoll, 1978). Subsequently, they are less likely to remain in a system in which they cannot trust the organization's personnel. Thus, the international school operates from a need for trust but is challenged by staff instability, which leads to mistrust. In light of international schools' inherent circumstances, exploring trust with international teachers is valuable for these schools and their leaders.

The Problem Statement

To summarize, the rise in international schools calls for more attention in order to understand them. In particular, international teachers face many challenges that could be supported by workplace professional development. Although trust is essential to building such effective teacher collaborations, it is difficult to establish in the international school setting due to the transient and diverse faculty. Therefore, the problem for international schools is developing teachers' trust so that they can support each other and grow professionally.

Building Trust Using Protocols

My hypothesized strategy for building trust is to use protocols during professional conversations. Easton (2009) defines such protocols as:

> Guidelines for conversation based on norms that everyone agrees upon in order to make the dialogue safe and effective.
> A constructivist approach for discussion would allow for deep development of ideas as certain people talk while others listened and then the talkers listen and the listeners talk, with each round characterized by reflection and exploration (p. 1)

I believe that having purposeful structure to professional teacher talk fosters teacher thinking and sincere sharing during a conversation. My assumption is that meaningful dialogue leads to better communication, greater respect and, consequently, deeper trust for each other.

The historical background for using protocols with teachers suggests their success in developing trust. Founded in 1994, a U.S. organization, the National School Reform Faculty (NSRF), created the idea of protocols in order to structure teacher conversations to build social equity and inquiry. Although the NSRF did not state so directly, teachers must trust one another

to tackle controversial equity issues such as race, gender, and socio-economic injustice. The NSRF was dedicated to training facilitators to guide protocol-driven, reflective conversations that make learning transparent (Thompson-Grove, Thierer, & Hensley, 2016). Again, the concept of transparent learning furthered the idea that teachers needed trust to share their learning vulnerabilities. Since 1994, the NSRF has developed many protocols with specific purposes for teacher practice in curriculum design and delivery (Thompson-Grove et al., 2016). The three most common protocol purposes are analyzing student work (The Data Protocol), adjusting teaching practice and plans (The Fine Tuning Protocol) and resolving teacher dilemmas (The Consultancy Protocol) (Easton, 2015; McDonald, Mohr, Dichter, & McDonald, 2013). These protocols rely on providing and receiving feedback from peers to increase teacher learning. Implicit in all protocols is a level of peer trust for providing critique.

Some literature alludes to how protocols can support trust. They do so primarily by enforcing structures which lead to trust-like behaviors in the group; they direct teachers when to speak and when to listen (Allen & Blythe, 2015; McDonald et al., 2013). Although such constraints may seem like an unnatural way to collaborate, by dictating speakers' actions, they facilitate the group's meaning-making process (Easton, 2009; McDonald, Mohr, Dichter & McDonald, 2013). Easton (2009) maintains that following protocols fosters teachers' interactional behaviors to show respect for each other. Over the course of multiple protocol-driven sessions, these guided conversations build a collective perspective on kind sharing (McDonald et al., 2013), which potentially fosters teacher trust (Lee, Zhang, & Ying, 2011; Ning, Lee, & Lee, 2015). Based on this understanding of how protocols work, I posit that, by following protocols, we can develop the collaborative skills needed to increase teacher trust.

Significance of the Study

Studying protocol usage in a conversation thus has important implications for international schools. Such research will add to our existing theoretical knowledge about trust; that is, this study will clarify how trust can be manifested in professional conversations among international teachers. Our assumptions on behaviors resulting from protocols could be challenged by a deep study of a professional collaboration session. Indeed, this research would provide a fresh perspective on our knowledge of trust from a different perspective.

This research also provides practical implications for international school leaders and teachers. The insights gained from this study give leaders a better understanding of how to design teachers' professional collaboration. Close analysis of a protocol-driven conversation offers deeper comprehension of the conversational mechanism needed to suport trust. The insights gained can help facilitators and leaders plan new protocols for other types of professional collaboration. As this study took place in an international school setting, it adds to our growing body of knowledge about international teachers. As a result, this research is relevant to international educators.

Structure of Thesis

The arrangement of this thesis aims to show how I conducted this research. It contains six chapters, following the Introduction, which progress from the initial problem statement to the research questions driving this study, to the methods used for investigation, to the results and discussion, and culminating in the study's implications.

In this chapter, I provide the background for the study's rationale, beginning with a discussion on the growing interest in international schools. Such schools' faculty would benefit from workplace professional development, for which trust is discussed as an important factor. Nonetheless, establishing trust in international schools is difficult due to their transient staff. Therefore, an important need for international schools is to develop its teachers' trust. I hypothesize that protocols are one strategy to build this collaborative trust among international teachers. Thus, studying protocols as a means to support trust is established as the background for this study.

In the second chapter, I introduce the literature related to this study. In particular, this chapter reviews studies associated with collegial teacher trust. This review examines why trust is important to a school system and evaluates the current empirical studies to assess how they affect our current understanding of collegial trust or teacher to teacher trust. Two conceptual frameworks are provided: the facets of trust (Tschannen-Moran, 2014) and Adams' (2008) protocols for building trust. Background information on the protocols provides the foundation needed for this investigation. In addition, this study's research questions are provided, and they are associated with three types of participants during the protocol-driven conversation.

In the third chapter I discuss the contextual background to this study. First, I explain the rationale behind using a qualitative approach. The other part of this chapter provided information pertaining to the research participants, the site, and the selected protocol. This chapter gives the reader the setting for the research procedures.

The fourth chapter discusses the methodology used to explore the research questions. The data collection consisted of two parts: video recording the protocol-driven conversation and interviewing each participant. Next, I describe how data was analyzed using Conversation Analysis and coded for theme development. Finally, the chapter concludes with the ethics, trustworthiness, and limitations of this study.

The fifth chapter reports the findings, and the presentation of the results is arranged according to the participants' roles during the protocol-driven conversation and the interviews. The results from this case study conclude with five insights.

The sixth chapter discusses the meaning of these findings. Two themes are synthesized from the five finding insights: *Trust through Reliability in the FTP Process* and *Trust through Openness as Connected to Teacher Identity.* Each theme is developed and elaborated in this chapter, and I conclude with considerations on the limitations to interpreting this study.

The final chapter ends with the implications of this study's discoveries. I conclude this inquiry with theoretical and practical directions to help support trust for international schools. I also provide a reflection on my own journey as a result of conducting this research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Why Study Trust in the Workplace?

A recurrent theme found in the organization literature is the importance of trust for successful collaboration. During the latter part of the 20th century, such collaboration shifted from mere cooperation towards the presence of trust in group cooperation (Mishra, 1996; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998). In his book *Drive,* Pink (2011) explains that this new paradigm results from human behavior research. He claims that people perform better under intrinsic motivation rather than traditional, external rewards, such as monetary incentives. Thus trust was one means for developing intrinsic motivation to increase staff collaboration. As a result, organizations broadened their thinking about what their environments could offer employees. Consequently, there has been renewed interest in trust in research and how it can manifest in the workplace environment (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998).

Trust manifests in solving workplace problems collaboratively. Mishra (1996) emphasizes that such organizational trust is critical for resolving crises in the workplace. He argues that trust is central to open, undistorted communication, and that this transparency in communication is the single, critical factor for mutual problem solving. Such collaborative activity is particularly needed when allocating scarce resources within a company. As modern companies decentralize their decision-making authority, Mishra (1996) has argued that trust for others is particularly needed during crises. Hence, effective organizations need trust to handle their problems.

When developed in the workplace, such trust can change an organization's culture quickly. In the last decade, several books have discussed how trust provides companies with adaptability and flexibility (Covey, 2006; Marshall, 2000). In the book *Building Trust at the Speed of Change*, Marshall (2000) claims that rapid development of trust is essential for a company to remain responsive in a competitive business world. He argues that today's organizations operate in a culture of fear. On the other hand, successful businesses are grounded in trust as their core determinant. Marshall (2000) has recommended that businesses must institutionalize trust, and his book concludes with a leadership conceptual model to build a culture of organizational trust. Likewise, *The Speed of Trust* by Covey (2006) also posits that trust can be changed quickly and positively in the workplace, and that personal credibility is fundamental to trust. Furthermore, Covey (2006) has asserted that this credibility for organizational members is created through personal integrity, intent, capabilities, and results. Covey (2006) has proposed that these credibility aspects can be developed from people's day-to-day interactions. Specifically, an employee's behaviors in response to problems are important to developing relationship trust. Thus, trust can be built in an organization and have long-term effects on a company's culture. Although trust contributes to a company's long-term culture, its organic nature makes it changeable in the short-term (Covey, 2006; Marshall, 2000).

Trust thus needs to be continuously developed in the workplace. Solomon and Flores (2001) have examined trust at a micro level and found that it is created by an organization's individuals. In their book *Building Trust,* Solomon and Flores (2001) have proposed that trust is dynamic; that is, it is an ever-changing social practice. To develop authentic trust, Solomon and Flores (2001) believe that members must actively solve problems. This assertion aligns with

Covey's (2006) suggestion that the activity of problem-solving builds trust. Solomon and Flores (2001) have concluded that the construction of trust is ongoing and that cultivating trust requires an organization's members to be committed and truthful in their day-to-day actions. Therefore, trust should be viewed as a continuous part of an organization's operations rather than as a single event.

To summarize from the organizational literature, trust can be built through the collaboration of employees solving workplace problems. Such problems often require members to respond quickly to a crisis (Mishra, 1996). By developing and maintaining trusting relationships, members can respond quickly to problems and thereby be effective in the workplace (Covey, 2006; Solomon & Flores, 2001). The relationship between trust and effective collaborations appears to be mutually positive; that is, trust is needed for effective collaboration, and successful, collaborative work strengthens colleagues' relationships. Hence, studying trust in the context of collegial collaboration is valuable in terms of improving a workplace's functionality (Marshall, 2000; Mishra, 1996).

Studying Trust from a Single to a Multifaceted Construct

Our understanding of trust has evolved in complexity. Whereas previously we considered trust as consisting of testable factors, we now recognize trust being effected by multiple interconnected variables related to each individual. This section will describe how the development of studies have shaped our thinking about trust as being more intricate or multifaceted.

Trust as Having a Single Facet

This literature review indicates that early studies of trust were detached from the real world. In particular, most early studies of trust were conducted under clinical conditions: experiments were designed to test variables considered related to trust. Notably, these experimental activities had a game-like feel, and subjects were exposed to different conditions while their behaviors were observed. I discuss the following three early experiments to illustrate this detached viewpoint concerning the study of trust.

One of the most common measures is the Trust Game (Berg, Dickhaut, & McCabe, 1995). This instrument experiments with individuals' trust and reciprocity from an investment perspective. Controls for alternative scenarios requiring trust are included in this game, and such situations account for a participant's trust under the conditions of knowing a trustee's reputation, making decisions to trust recommitment, and receiving punishment for distrust. In this case, Berg et al.'s (1995) experiment has indicated multiple variables related to the reciprocal nature of trust.

Another clinical trust experiment comes from Deutsch (1957), whose study involved the conditions for a two-person game. The game-players profit through the choices they make but also depend on their partner's choices. Thus, the game requires mutual trust to win, and Deutsch (1957) has concluded that mutual trust results from explicitly communicating one's intention, expectation, reaction to a violation, and a way for restoring mistrust.

In 1972, Zand also studied trust under controlled settings. His experimental model tests trust in problem-solving effectiveness with 64 managers as subjects. A problem-based scenario

is given to the subjects: one group receives a variation of the scenario that leads participants to expect trust behaviors from upper management, while the other group does not. Zand (1972) has found that shared trust is a significant determinant for effectiveness in managerial problem-solving.

These three past studies (Berg et al., 1995; Deutsch, 1957; Zand, 1972) highlight the perspective that trust can be tested. By focusing on single variables in an experiment, early studies simplify the nature of trust as consisting of controllable elements. I question, however, whether trust can realistically be explained by a set of variables disassociated from their context.

Nevertheless, other past studies also have a narrow viewpoint concerning the nature of trust. For instance, Rotter (1967) has defined trust as a generalized expectation for the reliability of other people's verbal statements. Based on studying the backgrounds (such as religion) of 574 undergraduate students, Rotter (1967) has developed a trust scale that captures the likelihood that a person trusts others based on the predictability of speakers' statements. Similarly, Frost, Stimpson, and Maughan (1978) have confined their definition of trust to "an expectancy held by an individual that the behavior of another person or a group would be altruistic and personally beneficial" (p. 103). In the same way as Rotter (1967), Frost et al.'s (1978) study surveyed undergraduate students using self-esteem and an internal-external locus of control as instruments to measure trust. They conclude that a trusted person's characteristics include being highly influential and having an internal locus of control. In both studies, such restricted definitions of trust constrain the methods and interpretation of the results.

Trust as Having Many Facets

By the turn of the century, studies evolved to broaden the concept of trust. Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, and Camerer (1998) posited that trust was a "meso" concept made up of many aspects. This meso concept could be broken down at the micro-level to psychological processes and group interactions. To elaborate, trust is multi-level and includes the levels of individual, group, and institution. It can also be defined by trust between organizations, as it has many causes and impacts the environment accordingly. In the end, these components must be integrated into the macro-level structures of an institution when designing future studies. Similarly, McKnight, Cummings, and Chervany (1998) have expanded on the trust ecosystem concept in their research. They have developed a comprehensive model that explains the building of organizational trust. Their view is that trust formation comes from a system of beliefs and intentions interacting with the organization's structural assurances and norms. In short, these studies articulate a realistic perspective of trust, studying it not within a single context but as defined by multiple dimensions and affected by multiple variables.

The current trend in trust studies extends its implications to factors beyond the individual and his or her immediate surroundings; that is, the environment matters. For instance, Hoy and Tarter (2004) have studied how justice in an organization affects members' trust. They propose a model that indicates a close relationship between members' trust and their perceived fairness in an institution. Tangentially, Forsyth, Adams, and Hoy (2011) have also considered organizational contexts in their research. They incorporate social and organizational theory into their model for building trust. As a result, Forsyth et al. (2011) conclude that trust research methodology should consider the perspective of the organization's external factors, such as poverty, and internal factors, such as individual's cognitive, affective,

and behavioral mechanisms. Thus, the current literature suggests a more complicated definition

of trust, one that indicates the need to understand the context in which it occurs.

Current studies have proposed that one context for trust is authentic conversations. After

reviewing multiple theoretical and empirical studies on trust, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000)

have concluded that open communication in an organization is part of building trust. During

conversations, an exchange of sensitive information for disclosure, diagnosis, and correction in

the workplace occurred; in the context of speaking and listening, a form of trust was

strengthened. Another example comes from Meyer, Le Fevre, and Robinson (2017), who have

suggested that communication can support trust. In their study, they examine leaders' authentic

conversations with their subordinates and determine that, when leaders make themselves

vulnerable by disclosing their own contributions to a problem, their subordinates are more likely

to trust that leader. Finally, Clifton (2012) has also studied how trust manifests in a business

conversation. Video-recorded talk was analyzed using Conversation Analysis to apply current

theories on trust. The context of conversations thus also has merit to gain authentic data about

trust in action.

An examination of the literature's varying key definitions for trust reveals the common

notion of vulnerability. For instance, Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995) defined trust as "the

willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation

that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability

to monitor or control that other party" (p. 712). Moorman, Desphande and Zaltman (1993) adds

that "without vulnerability, trust is unnecessary because outcomes are inconsequential for the

trustor" (p. 82). This idea is consistent with Mishra's (1996) definition of trust as being

individuals' willingness to be vulnerable to another party whom they perceive to be trustworthy.

Although many researchers agree that trust has multiple dimensions in being vulnerable

(Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Tschannen-Moran, 2014; Van Maele & Van Houtte, 2012),

researchers disagree on the interpretation of what constitutes trustworthiness. Many studies

suggest that trustworthiness is comprised of multiple facets. Ebert (2009) has examined 800

trust articles from 1966 to 2006 and has found a disparity in how researchers have grouped and

named these facets. Some articles point to one facet, while others use four. Ebert (2009) has

identified 17 different, interchangeable terms used to classify these facets, and common terms

include benevolence, ability, and integrity. The notion of multiple trust dimensions is further

supported by a recent paper in *Education Administration Quarterly* (Romero & Mitchell, 2018).

Romero and Mitchell (2018) posit that trust research should examine these facets as "first order

factors" as well as a further set of descriptors of "second order factors" that provide detailed

context and action. For instance, integrity (a first order factor) can be further described as

transparency in decisions and follow-through (second order factors). Their perspective on trust

is that multiple facets and sub-factors have helped other researchers make better nuanced

judgements about their data to solve problems and prescribe recommendations. In other words,

defining trust as having multiple dimensions affecting vulnerability has directed the study of

trust.

Thus far, the literature review of trust studies has shown that the field has evolved in complexity. Early research had a simplistic perspective; by adopting a restricted definition, past researchers (Deutsch, 1957; Rotter, 1967; Fox, Stimpson, & Maughan,1978; Zand, 1972) have controlled the conditions in which trust could be tested. Although ample empirical evidence has been derived from these studies, I question their application to authentic situations. However, current literature has expanded our understanding of school trust as having multiple variables (McKnight et al., 1998; Rousseau et al., 1998), both external and internal (Forsyth et al., 2011). For instance, Forsyth et al. (2011) describes external variables as the organization's social norms perceived implementation by its members. Meanwhile Forsyth et al. (2011) explains internal variables as organizational conditions such as management structures like accountability plans and shared decision to shape such social norms. Growing evidence also points to theoretical trust as a complex system of social interactions, found in, for example, the context of conversations (Clifton, 2012; Meyer et al., 2017). One other consideration on trust is the factor professional identity. For example, MacNeil (2011) raises the notion that in the field of archives, such as historical records, the archivist's professional identity affects the trustworthiness of their narrative. In the educational context, Czerniawski's (2011) study in European schools seem to indicate teachers' trust and accountability in the workplace was related to their perception of self during professional interactions. Hence, these examples further support the complexity of studying trust today.

I have discussed how our current understanding of trust supports a definition of vulnerability towards another individual deemed trustworthy. Even though current studies

indicate that trustworthiness consists of multiple aspects, these facets have not been commonly

agreed upon. Our knowledge about trust, then, can still benefit from further research.

Studying Trust in Schools

In this section, I examine current studies related to schools and teacher's relational trust.

My intention is to understand what is already known about teacher to teacher trust in schools

and what remains unclear. In particular, I focus on how researchers have studied the multiple

dimensions of trust and its occurrence in schools. Thus, in the proceeding discussion, I evaluate

how researchers have approached studying trust and the resulting interpretations.

The School Context

A number of studies suggest that the context for collegial trust in schools is important. In

essence, faculty's trust for one another is influenced by the school's culture (Adams & Miskell,

2016; Stoll, Bolam, McMahon, Wallace & Thomas, 2006; Tschannen-Moran, 2009) and

leadership (Beycioglu, Ozer, & Ugurlu, 2012; Cerit, 2013; Cranston, 2011; Dabney, 2008).

These studies indicate that there is a relationship between these external factors and collegial

trust.

School culture affects teacher's relational trust at different levels of the school hierarchy.

At the district level, Adams and Miskell (2016) have found that teacher trust is related to district

administrators. They studied a sample of teachers in one urban school district and constructed a

model of their commitment to the school based on the actions of district administrators. Their

findings suggest that teachers' beliefs and mutual trust are sensitive to their interpretations of

their administrators' conduct.

Similarly, the culture inside a school also affects teacher's relational trust. Stoll et al. (2006) have corroborated these claim in their literature review of school trust. They conclude that organizational conditions, such as the support offered by the school's infrastructure, affect the faculty's motivation, skills, and attitude towards learning. Stoll et al. (2006) further posit that the development of collegial trust is slow, fragile, and easily undermined by members who transgress the school's perceived norms. Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998) further elaborate a connection between school culture and faculty trust. In a study on the school climate of authenticity and trust in 2,741 teachers, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998) have determined that a school's positive organizational climate is highly correlated with teachers' authenticity and trust towards each other. In a later study, Tschannen-Moran (2009) has further discovered that structures in the school culture that empower the staff towards learning and ownership also strengthen faculty trust. Her study of 80 middle schools has led her to conclude that school structures that foster teachers' professionalism are responsible for building faculty trust. Conversely, a bureaucratic structure focused on regulations, rules, and hierarchy has an inverse effect on trust. In essence, the school's culture shapes the faculty's level of trust.

School leaders, particularly principals, also affect the faculty's trust level. Beycioglu et al. (2012) have affirmed that the principal's behavior impacts teachers' trust. Using instruments to measure leadership styles in schools and trust in teachers, they have found that principals who provide distributed leadership produce positive trust effects among their staff. Likewise, Dabney (2008) conveys that teachers' relational trust grows from an effective principal. His study associates the behaviors of principals with effectively constructing relational trust in

faculty. Dabney's (2008) findings are consistent with Cranston's (2011) work, which argues that effective principals develop teachers' trust by establishing norms in a safe, comfortable climate directed towards professional growth. Even with curriculum reform, in which the work is largely part of the teachers' domain, trusting the principal indirectly affects the faculty's trust in collaborating with their colleagues (Cerit, 2013). In short, these studies highlight that school leaders influence faculty trust.

Fundamentally, the external factors associated with school culture and leaders affect faculty trust, which makes discerning collegial trust from the literature difficult. Although these studies do not explicitly say so, the assumption is that teachers trust their colleagues differently under different school conditions and leaders. This assumption challenged my perspective in this literature review. In other words, as I examined the studies on collegial trust, I questioned the conditions and circumstances in which data was collected. The context mattered enough to raise to questions about how teachers trusted their colleagues; that is, I agree that investigating the context of school culture and leadership necessitates the study of collective trust. Additionally, a significant portion of the literature considers the trust of the whole faculty rather than the individual teacher's perspective. However, I disagree with the conclusion that such studies clarify how teachers encourage trust. In fact, without the context of the actual collaboration, similar conclusions could have very different implications for how teachers trust each other.

The Dilemma of Comparing School Trust Studies

To illustrate this problem, I compared two studies (Gray & Summers, 2015; Lee et al., 2011) with similar results. Both studies make similar claims about teachers' trust and indicate

that high-functioning professional learning communities (PLCs) are related to high teacher-to-teacher trust. Although this claim may seem obvious to the reader, the context for each study differs enough to challenge the extent and meaning of collegial trust.

These two studies differ in background. Gray and Summers (2015) investigate collegial trust in 193 educators in 15 South and Central American private international schools. The instruments they used include the PLC Assessment and the T Omnibus Scale for trust. Gray and Summers (2015) reveal that collegial trust has significant correlations with effective PLCs. Similarly, Lee et al. (2011) examine PLC faculty trust, but in Hong Kong. Their exploratory study also uses the PLC Assessment and Omnibus T scale to survey 660 teachers in 33 primary and secondary government schools, and they determine that the factors associated with PLCs were moderately correlated with faculty trust in colleagues.

Even though these two studies share similar methods and arrive at similar conclusions, I contend that their cultural differences affect the manner in which these teachers worked together. Hence, their contrast in culture makes their findings less comparable. For instance, a common generalization about Asian culture is that workers show greater compliance with authority. As the nature of international schools encourages much more independence, teachers from Gray and Summers' (2015) study would most likely be more autonomous as collaborators than the teachers from Lee et al.'s (2011) study.

Secondly, both studies (Gray & Summers, 2015; Lee et al., 2011) examine the whole faculty's trust generalized from multiple schools and teachers. Again, I agree that there is value in understanding collegial trust as a common construct produced through empirical research.

However, as previously established, school leaders and culture change the way teachers work with each other. Therefore, I question the interpretations drawn from both studies; both combine numerous schools with multiple kinds of school cultures and leaders to generate a measure of collegial trust.

The final limitation to interpreting these two studies concerns studying trust with statistical instruments. The Omnibus T Scale is by far the most common instrument in the literature for measuring collegial trust. Developed by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2003), this 26-item Likert tool assesses the faculty's perceptions of trust for each other in five dimensions. I concur that there is value in understanding trust as calculated from reliable measures. However, the synthesis of trust as a statistical construct isolates the conditions that lead to it. As a result, clarity on how trust authentically occurred in these two studies (Gray & Summers, 2015; Lee et al., 2011) is lost through the statistical analysis.

Limitations to Current School Trust Studies

Our current understanding of collegial trust is derived from literature using the Omnibus T Scale to identify faculty trust. Even within this narrow literature review, I found 13 studies that attributed their trust measurement to this scale. Most of these studies measure trust in relation to another variable; for instance, Smith and Birney (2005) attribute less collaborative teacher intervention to bullying from high faculty trust. This correlation comes from the variable trust (Omnibus T Scale) correlated with the variable of behaviors towards bullying (the Bully Scale). Similarly, Kalkan (2016) has determined that collegial trust is related to an organization's bureaucratic structure by testing the variable trust (Omnibus T Scale) with the schools' structure (Enabling School Structure Scale). In addition, Van Maele and Van Houtte

(2012) associate the improvement of trust and social relationships with increased job

satisfaction. They measure the variable trust (Omnibus T Scale) and job satisfaction (Job

Descriptive Index) to determine their conclusions.

In these studies (Kalkan, 2016; Smith & Birney, 2005; Van Maele & Van Houtte; 2012),

the facets which constituted trust are unclear since it is examined as a collective construct rather

than broken into its constituent parts. Hence for Smith and Birney's (2005) study, one might

wonder whether the nature of collegial trust was associated with the positive school bullying

intervention. Or, in the case of Kalkan's (2016) research, one could ask what types of collegial

trust emerge from these organizational structures. Concerning Van Maele and Van Houtte's

(2012) study, it is not clear what trust in collegiality led to job satisfaction. Although the

Omnibus T Scale is based on trust facets, the manifestation of such facets during the research

remains unknown. Moreover, understanding trust only at this level is impractical for educators'

practical purposes. Thus, I consider in-depth study into manifestations of trust within the school

context to be of greater value.

To summarize thus far, this literature review on collegial trust mostly concerns a

theoretical construct based on teachers' perceptions about multiple past events or interactions. I

concur that there is value in relying on a variety evidence for statistical significance. However, I

question instruments such as the Omnibus T Scale and their ability to synthesize a combination

of teacher perceptions from various dissimilar past experiences. More importantly, studying

trust without understanding its context restricts my interpretations of the nuances related to

teachers' professional interactions (Romero & Mitchell, 2018). Finally, without understanding

the authentic interactions that support trust, our current knowledge of collegial trust is impractical. Thus, there is value in the further study of trust regarding in-situ teacher collaboration.

Two significant works in teacher trust studies have attempted to clarify trust in practice. Bryk and Schneider (2002) combine insights from literature with field reports from teachers and principals to examine teachers' relational trust. Their extensive study over multiple schools and years reveals many stories that substantiate their facets of trust. Likewise, Tschannen-Moran (2014) provides similar, in-depth examination for her facets of trust in the study of three schools' principals, teachers, and community. Her findings also include a collection of teacher stories that validate her facets.

However, there are limitations to these studies' interpretations of collegial trust because the teachers' stories draw from many different past experiences (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Tschannen-Moran, 2014), and these diverse experiences make comparisons of individual stories difficult. Nevertheless, I believe that such studies provide empirical validity to the facets they describe. For instance, when describing the trust facet "openness among colleagues," Tschannen-Moran (2014) offers different instances in which teachers informally shared resources, personal information, and feedback with other teachers. Even though Tschannen-Moran (2014) provides ample evidence for each facet, I suggest that, without a common context for these stories, such trust may rely more on the inherent nature of the individual as opposed to the situation. Ultimately, the context in which teachers interact matters for interpreting collegial trust.

In conclusion, although the literature review provides evidence linking collegial trust with collaboration, it remains unclear about how such trust is developed. School trust studies have mostly drawn evidence from individuals from cumulative social interactions. We can conclude that some dimensions or facets of trust must have taken place for each interaction before a cumulative perception could be made. Nevertheless, there seems to be insufficient evidence to support trust as originating from a single authentic event, such as professional conversation. Therefore, studying a common social interaction is valuable. My inquiry is thus directed towards the study of trust within a single interaction.

Guiding Framework for Studying Trust

As stated earlier, defining the parameters of trust guides this inquiry. In this study, I draw upon two models that define my parameters for trust, and, in turn, this conceptual framework directs my analysis. The first model is the Facets of Trust (Tschannen-Moran, 2014), which defines five dimensions of trust. It is the most common trust model used in school studies and is the basis of the Omnibus T Scales, as discussed previously. The second model comes from Adams' (2008) model for building trust. This framework extends Tschannen-Moran's (2014) model to include how trust is developed with a conceptual feedback loop. In the next section, these models are further elaborated.

Facets of Trust

Tschannen-Moran's (2014) framework is based on the perceptions of another party's trustworthiness. As discussed above, trust is one's willingness to be vulnerable based on that person's perception about the other person's trustworthiness (Mishra, 1996). Tschannen-Moran's (2014) Facets of Trust framework classifies another party's trustworthiness as being "competent," "open," "benevolent," "reliable," and "honest." Perceiving another party to have

these five qualities or facets forms the core definition of what Tschannen-Moran (2014) considers as a trust occurrence.

As a side note, these facets are based on perceptions and have implications for our interpretations of trust. Because knowledge comes from individuals making sense of communications with others, these trust facets can be associated with a social constructivist framework (Creswell, 2013). In other words, trust facets are constructed by the meaning associated with a social interaction. When a social interaction increases one's perception of a trust facet, we interpret that trust has increased. Under this epistemological position, interpretations can differ based on individual perceptions arising from similar events. Consequently, multiple truths can exist for a single situation, and we should be open to different or contradictory perceptions of whether trust occurs.

In the following section, I elaborate on each of these five perceptions of trust from Tschannen-Moran's (2014) model. Although the five facets come from the Tschannen-Moran (2014) framework, I refer to other researchers whose definitions of trust parallel Tschannen-Moran's (2014). I hope that the explanations of these five facets provide the reader a sense of how teachers might interpret trustworthiness with respect to their colleagues. In addition, these five facets are important for defining trust in my research.

The first interpretation of a person's trustworthiness is competency. This facet refers to the perception of another person's ability. People trust individuals to be competent in the task to which he or she has been assigned. For instance, Tschannen-Moran (2014) uses the example of

teachers who view incompetent administrators as untrustworthy. Furthermore, because these

teachers cannot trust their administrators, they feel more vulnerable in their performance

(Tschannen-Moran, 2014). Bryk and Schneider (2003) suggest one reason why competency

matters for trust:

> "School community members want their interactions with others to produce desired
> outcomes. This attainment depended, in a large measure, on other's role competence"
> (p. 42).

In other words, teachers feel more vulnerable when their own effectiveness depends on

someone else's capabilities. When teachers depend on someone else, their trust is associated

with that individual's competency.

The second interpretation for a person's trustworthiness concerns openness. The

literature implies that openness involves disclosing relevant information and sharing influence

(Tschannen-Moran, 2014; Zand, 1997). Such open interaction reveals a trait of

straightforwardness and candor about that person. Mishra (1996) suggests that too much

openness can counter trust. For instance, when one is too transparent about another's character

flaws, this straightforwardness can be mistaken as being uncaring or as a lack of concern.

However, from a slightly different perspective, Bryk and Schneider (2002) moderate openness

with respectful talk interaction. They claimed that respectful conversations are an act of

authentic social interaction involving careful listening and appropriate responding (Bryk &

Schneider, 2002). It follows, then, that openness means perceiving someone as being

transparent and caring.

The third interpretation for a person's trustworthiness is honesty. Tschannen-Moran (2014) states that honesty is "concern[ing] a person's character, integrity, and authenticity" (p 25). Her description of honesty overlaps with Bryk and Schneider's (2002) concept concerning integrity; that is, these two traits point to a person's character. Meyer et al. (2017) synthesize honesty and integrity with the following indicators: "telling the truth, accepting responsibility, avoiding manipulation (through withholding information), and sharing information and power" (p. 222). In essence, honesty, openness, and integrity share similar aspects.

Reliability is the fourth interpretation for a person's trustworthiness. Tschannen-Moran (2014) defines reliability as perceiving trust as arising from "a sense of predictability with caring and competence" in another person (p. 33). In a similar vein, Bryk and Schneider (2002) view this predictability as originating in a person's integrity. Both Tschannen-Moran (2014) and Bryk and Schneider (2002) provide similar examples as to what reliability means in teachers. Such teachers put in additional work time for the benefit of their students. In short, reliable staff members show consistent commitment by expressing dedication to their work (Tschannen-Moran, 2014). Hence, one does not waste mental energy worrying about whether a reliable teacher will deliver on their responsibility (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000); they are perceived as consistently reliable in their profession.

The final perception of trustworthiness is the benevolence expressed towards others. This aspect is the perceived notion that a person has positive intentions to support other teachers while expressing fairness and maintaining confidentiality (Tschannen-Moran, 2014). Another definition expressed by Van Maele and Van Houtte (2012) is "the confidence that one's well-

being or something one cares about will be protected by the other party" (p 881). Bryk and

Schneider (2002) may summarize benevolence best as a personal regard for others; they suggest

that trust deepens when individuals view the other party as caring about them. Nevertheless, a

personal regard is difficult in the school context because social interactions are more intimate

than in other work organizations (Bryk & Schneider, 2002). In particular, the power dynamics

between subordinates and leaders and students and teachers complicates how either party

perceives benevolence (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998). Nevertheless, benevolence can simply

be viewed as kindness towards others. Because multiple interactions exist in a school's

ecosystem, the interpretation of fair treatment varies among stakeholders (Bryk & Schneider,

2002; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998, 2000). Even though this study focuses on collegial trust,

the benevolence expressed by administrators, parents, and even students can affect teachers'

trust in each other.

To summarize, the Tschannen-Moran theoretical framework was used to deconstruct the

concept of trust. It defines trust as a person's interpretation of "competence," "openness,"

"benevolence," "reliability," and "honesty" for another party. These five basic aspects of trust

frame this study's inquiry and analysis of trust.

Adams' Model for Faculty Trust Development

Having defined the dimensions of trust in this study, I turn our attention to how trust is built. The organizational literature provides many theories for building trust. Such trust-building theories are based on particular sets of people in particular work settings. For instance, Koeszegi (2004) has developed a series of tactics used for negotiation when building client trust. Meanwhile, Cosner (2009) has created a framework for actions school principals can take to support trust in their leadership. Fortunately, a model exists for trust-building between teachers, and this serves as the basis for interpreting this study's building of trust. Adams (2008) offers a model for building faculty trust over time. Adams' (2008) model for building faculty trust utilizes Tschannen-Moran's (2014) facets of trust and posits that collegial trust occurs between teachers. I thus chose this model to explore collegial collaboration in schools.

Adams' (2008) model (Figure 1) is a feedback system consisting of a trust mechanism that can be attributed to a trust facet for building collegial trust. That is, in a school system, trust mechanisms can be behavioral (teacher engagement, influence on decisions, principal's behavior, professional behavior), cognitive (teacher authenticity, collective efficacy) or affective (morale, openness). In Adams' (2008) model, these mechanisms can relate to a facet. When such mechanisms correspond to a facet, trust is built. For example, the behavior mechanism can occur when a teacher voluntarily helps another colleague; that teacher thus demonstrates professional behavior. In this case, this action aligns with benevolence because the teacher acts voluntarily. As a result of this action, the teacher contributes to building faculty trust. Subsequent actions, thoughts, or feelings, if aligned with the facets, increase the sense of faculty trust, and these mechanisms become the basis of increasing it.

However, in my research, Adams' (2008) collegial trust-building model (Figure 1) needed to be modified to explain how conversational trust developed. Since the context of my study is a protocol-driven conversation, I wanted to explore how trust can be built from a conversational perspective. Consequently, I have established some slight differences. The contextual conditions are limited to a protocol-driven conversation, and the trust mechanisms are behavioral (conversational actions), cognitive (thoughts during the conversation), and affective (feelings during the conversation). These aspects lead to a comparison with the trust facets which, in turn, are interpreted as affecting faculty trust.

Figure 1 Building Faculty Trust
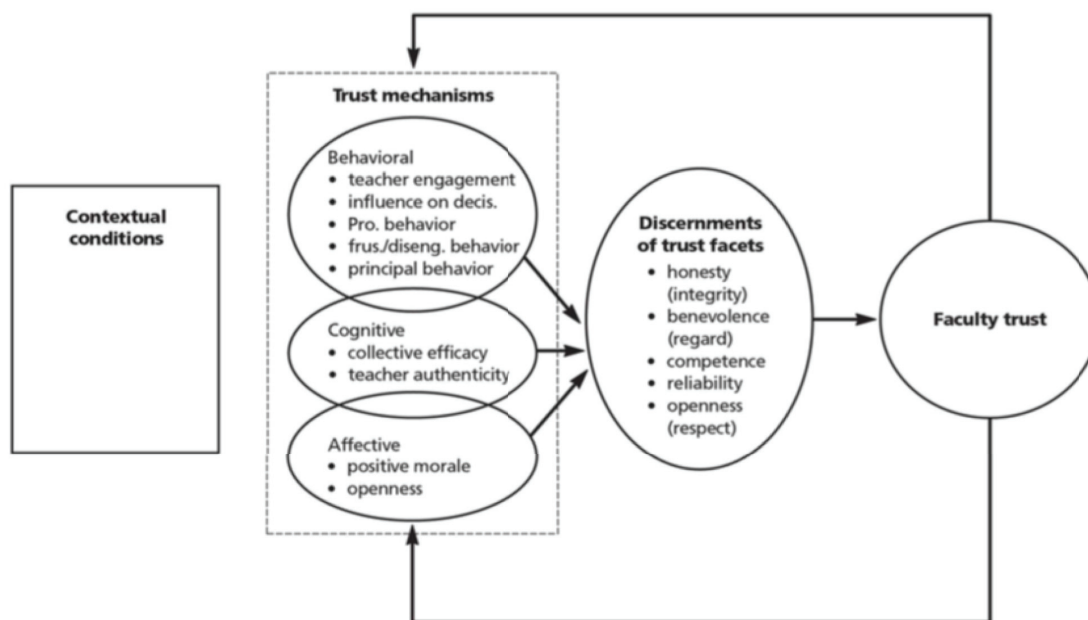
Figure 1. Reprinted from *Improving schools studies in leadership and culture* (pg 39), by C. Adams, 2008, Charlotte, NC: Information Publishing Inc. Copyright 2008 by the Information Age Publishing Inc. Reprinted with permission.

Protocol-driven Conversation

To reiterate, more attention is needed in studying trust facets in a single teacher collaborative interaction. Thus far, I have established a definition of trust and its facets, and I have provided a model to frame how trust is built in relation to those facets. The final consideration, then, is the choice of teachers' collaborative interaction for this study.

In the next section, I provide a brief background on PLCs, from which the protocols were developed. Just as the facets of trust demarcate the analysis of this study, the protocol serves to demarcate its procedures. After, I describe how protocols originated and the rationale for choosing the Fine Tuning Protocol for this study.

Professional Learning Community Background

Protocols originate from PLCs (Dufour & Eakert, 1998; Dufour, Dufour, Eaker, & Many, 2010; Hord, 1997; Stoll, Bolam, McMahon, Wallace & Thomas, 2006), a well-established conceptual framework for teacher learning groups. This framework focuses on the collaborative power of the group. The protocols are commonly leadership-created structures and processes that coordinate multiple teacher teams to work on common school goals or inquiries. Although most PLCs are initiated by schools, they still aim to give voice to the teachers on the teams. Hence, PLCs are an appropriate vehicle for developing teacher collaboration in schools. Nevertheless, variations of the PLC design exist; these differences come from the membership (who participated), leadership (how decisions were made), and organizational culture (how the PLC was conducted) (Blackenship & Ruona, 2007).

I chose to study a PLC model similar to Hord's (1997). First, many trust studies (Gray & Summers, 2015; Kalkan, 2016; Lee et al., 2011) have used PLC-A as an instrument; it was modelled after Hord's (1997) work. Hord (1997) established five basic components to her PLC model: 1) supportive and shared leadership, 2) collective creativity, 3) shared values and vision, 4) supportive conditions, 5) and shared personal practice. These tenets form the basis of PLC-A. Hord (1997) further describes this PLC as having a caring and trusting relationship. One of the

characteristics of a productive PLC is a willingness to accept feedback and work on improvement, which requires respect and trust among colleagues.

Based on this conceptualization of PLC, I narrowed this study to a protocol-driven PLC. That is, this study's conversation used protocols operating under conditions similar to Hord's (1997) PLC. These protocols were designed to conduct more effective conversations (Thompson-Grove et al., 2016) by structuring conversations so that members feel trust in sharing their professional practices with each other. I have thus used the term protocol-driven PLC to refer to using protocols in the context of Hord's (1997) PLC. In the next section, I elaborate on how such protocols work.

To reiterate from the introductory chapter, protocols are structured procedures that help support trust (Mattoon & McKean, 2015), and they consist of sequenced steps that a conversation follows and specific roles for participants to adopt (Allen & Blythe, 2004; Easton, 2009; McDonald et al., 2013). Constraining the participants' roles to speak, listen, and reflect on student or teacher work is important during group interactions. This delineation of tasks provides teachers with a common understanding about expectations. When facilitators honor these expectations, members feel that they can trust the group. Another aspect of protocols in PLCs is a restriction of the time teachers talk during the conversation (Allen & Blythe, 2004). Valuing the time given to members to speak and listen contributes to the group's integrity, and the facilitators' neutrality also helps build the group's trust (Allen & Blythe, 2015; Reid, 2014). Facilitators monitor and guide the group to speak using non-critical and exploratory language. Such an environment helps the group depersonalize the work or issues from the teacher. Hence,

protocol-driven conversations support trust in a PLC by providing a safe, objective environment

to discuss personal teacher work.

The Fine Tuning Protocol

The protocol studied in this research is the Fine Tuning Protocol (FTP). An examination

of FTP literature reveals an objective way for teachers to improve their work (Allen & Blythe,

2004, 2015; Easton, 1999, 2009; McDonald et al., 2013). This protocol is used by teachers who

want feedback on curriculum planning, student assessment, or instructional practice. The

literature reveals three common sequences in all FTPs: the presenter presents work, the

discussants (other participants) clarify and probe the presenter's work, and the presenter reflects

on the discussants' feedback (Allen & Blythe, 2004, 2015; Easton, 1999, 2009; Mattoon &

McKean, 2015; McDonald et al., 2013). During an FTP conversation, a teacher makes his or her

personal work transparent and poses a focusing question to the other participants or discussants.

The facilitator helps the discussants answer the presenter's question by encouraging critical yet

helpful trust-building responses. The discussants' ability to distinguish between clarifying

questions and probing questions is critical to depersonalizing the critique. During the

clarification stage of the conversation, the discussants seek to elucidate the context of the

presenter's work. On the other hand, the discussants' probing questions aim to broaden the

presenter's thinking. Thus the feedback is depersonalized from the presenter and focuses on that

teacher's work (Allen & Blythe, 2004; Mattoon & McKean, 2015). Finally, the presenter

reflects back to the group what he or she has heard. Even though the presenter is vulnerable to

the discussants' critique, the FTP minimizes this vulnerability by facilitating conditions that

respect the presenter in an authentic and caring manner (Mattoon & McKean, 2015). In short,

the FTP appears to provide a controlled environment for studying trust in a professional social

interaction.

Studying FTP culture can add to our understanding of school culture and leadership. As

discussed previously, studies have generalized trust, and this research calls for better a

understanding of specific school cultures. It is beyond the scope of this study to analyze an

entire school culture and its leadership in depth. However, one school of thought is that

individual PLC groups can be examined as their own culture. Lalueza, Bria, Sànchez, and

Luque (2004) posit that "all educational activity can be understood as a microculture, although

this is only possible if the participants appropriate the artefacts from which it is constituted" (p.

17). Thus, I liken the FTP to a microculture whose context is worthy of study. A common trait

of microculture requires intersubjective agreement among its members, (Lalueza et al., 2004).

In addition, FTP has its own artefacts, such as next steps produced as a result of the interactions.

Thus, these reasons justify studying the context of an FTP culture. Using a single FTP session

as the context of this study, I consider how the facets of trust can be manifested and developed

from the participants in this professional conversation.

Research Questions

    The overall research question is as follows: How is trust manifested in an FTP

conversation? To answer this question and provide direction for this inquiry, I further pose the

following questions:

- How are the facets of trust manifested by the presenter?

- How are the facets of trust manifested by the discussants?

- How are the facets of trust manifested by the facilitator?

Chapter 3: Research Setting and Rationale

Purpose of Study

The objective of this research is to explore how the facets of trust can manifest from an FTP conversation. The implications of this discovery can further our knowledge in understanding trust within the international school professional learning context. More importantly, as conversations have been instrumental to all PLCs, the findings have wider applications in the development of staff capacity. That is, understanding the connection between professional talk and trust is useful for other international schools. To better understand the underlying mechanism of trust during professional talk, I focus specifically on examining an FTP-facilitated experience. Thus, as discussed above, the primary research question considers the development of trust as defined by the trust facets based on the perspectives of different participant roles during the FTP session.

Organization of the Methodology Chapters

I have chosen to describe my methodology into two chapters. This chapter is intended to help the reader understand the context of this investigation. In this chapter's first section, I present the rationale for using a qualitative single case study. In this chapter's latter section, I elaborate on the chosen participants, research site, research phenomena, and FTP conversation topic. The next chapter will discuss the research procedures and analysis methods that I carried out.

Why a Qualitative Single Case Study?

Two assumptions about trust led to me to choose a qualitative approach for this study. First, trust was assumed to be an interpretative construct. That is, trust is interpreted by different

participants' perspectives concerning their experience with another party, and so different

interpretations for trust are deemed valid. Multiple truths can co-exist, and this reasoning led to

my second assumption: trust cannot be quantified by combining participants' perceptions.

Perceptions are recognized as unique and based on each individual's context and background,

such as professional identity and past experiences. Thus meaning is unique to each individual's

interpretation. Therefore, quantifying individuals' perceptions does not account for these

backgrounds. Instead, the meaning from perceptual data must be reasoned from individuals'

personal narratives, and such a method requires a qualitative approach.

A qualitative case study method was chosen to investigate trust in a professional

conversation context based on Yin's (2014) rationale for the case study method, which was to

"capture the circumstances and conditions of an everyday situation … because of the lessons it

might provide about the social processes related to some theoretical interest" (p.52). Such PLCs

can be considered regular events that call for interactions between teachers and curriculum

leaders. International schools' curriculum leaders often act as facilitators when working with

teachers to develop, analyze, and plan school curricula (Stuart, 2016). In this way, a facilitated

conversation is comparable to an everyday situation found in international schools. The fact that

facilitated conversations are social processes constructed by their participants also supports

Yin's (2014) rationale for using the case study. Studying this social process can add to our

understanding of how teachers interact socially. Finally, the FTP social process relates to the

theoretical interest in the conceptual framework Facets of Trust (Tschannen-Moran, 2014).

Thus, the lessons learned from this interaction can be related by these facets. In sum, the case

study method best captures how participants socially construct a conversation, and such findings also relate to the Facets of Trust (Tschannen-Moran, 2014).

A holistic single case study was chosen as the best approach to address this study's research questions. Yin (2014) describes a holistic single case study design as a case study operating under a single context and framed by a single unit of analysis. To elaborate, a case study's context refers to the setting of the inquiry, which includes the delineation of the boundaries such as time, people, and the scope of inquiry. In this research, the context is specific: it took place in a one-hour FTP session with a particular set of teachers from one international school in Hong Kong. Yin (2014) further defines the unit of analysis as the problem to be studied, which consists of defining its parameters to bind the case. For this research, the unit of analysis is restricted to the different FTP participant roles and how trust is interpreted by the different parties.

Why Choose the Researcher's Workplace for Sampling?

Because qualitative research calls for intimate knowledge about the participants in their institutional setting, I chose to study my workplace site. My argument is that, as a school-wide curriculum leader, I have access to rich information about the school and the faculty. Furthermore, my two decades at the school provide me with contextual understanding of the school's curriculum and historical context. I also have a history of facilitating group discussions there. Hence this familiarity with the faculty minimizes variability in conducting the protocol session. In this way, I gained personal insight on the facilitator's experience. Such insight could not have been discovered as an outsider observing the FTP phenomenon or by interviewing

someone else who facilitated the FTP. Therefore, conducting the FTP at my workplace offered

the most favorable option for collecting rich data.

Context of Study

To justify the use of my workplace as the research site, I considered what constituted a

typical school. I found a lack of literature defining the characteristics of an international school.

Blandford and Shaw claim,

> "international schools defy definition: they may include kindergarten, primary, middle
> and upper, higher or secondary pupils, or incorporate all of these in a combined school;
> they may range in number from 20 to 4,500; they could be co-educational or single sex.
> The governance and management of such schools might be determined by the school,
> the owner, the board, the senior management team or head of school, or a managing
> agency." (2001, p. 1)

Nevertheless, few common characteristics can be deduced from the literature. Generally

speaking, international schools hold the following similarities:

- They are often private, fee-paying schools (Bates, 2011; Hayden & Thompson, 2008).

- They have an internationally mobile student population (Bates, 2011; Hayden &

Thompson, 2000, 2008).

- They use a flexible curriculum that is transferable among international schools or to

their home nation's education system (Bates, 2011; Hayden & Thompson, 2008).

My workplace, pseudonym Asia International Academy (AIA), satisfies these attributes.

Under the East Asian Regional Council of International Schools (EARCOS), AIA is classified

as a medium-sized school serving a student population of 800. Located in Hong Kong, AIA

offers a North American education from early childhood to Grade 12. Many AIA graduates

attend North American and local universities. Furthermore, AIA is a private, fee-paying school. Because many aspects of AIA agree with the characteristics identified as those typical of an international school, choosing my workplace was appropriate according to the criteria for this study.

AIA Curriculum Context

The background of the AIA curriculum is helpful for the reader in understanding the professional work the teachers engage in at this school. The following description was derived from AIA's most recent Western Association of Colleges and Schools accreditation self-study document and the researcher's history with the school. AIA's program follows a North American yearly course system. Each course relates to a specific discipline or department, and, altogether, eight departments comprise AIA's curriculum framework: English language arts, mathematics, science, humanities, world languages, computer studies, visual performing arts, and physical education/health. Each department is managed by a department head who is also responsible for developing that discipline's curriculum with a team of teachers.

Different departments are at different stages in communicating their learning program. All departments have their own set of academic standards, and these standards vary in what is prescribed. Some academic standards are quite specific, such as in mathematics. In this case, the learning outcomes are well established, which constrains the course design. Nonetheless, computer studies' academic standards are more general, and as a result, the computer science teacher has greater flexibility in interpreting the learning outcomes and the types of learning activities developed. Due to differences in a discipline's nature and its academic expectations, different departments also vary in articulating their student learning outcomes, assessments,

common rubrics, learning activities, and lesson plans for their courses. Computer science is the least articulated department in the school.

Articulating AIA's computer science curriculum was difficult; many of the AIA computer science courses are related to engineering and design. As such, the ever-changing pace of new technologies and integration with other disciplines, such as visual arts and English, made permanent written plans not feasible. Furthermore, AIA's Computer Science Department is the smallest department, consisting of three members. With fewer members, the Computer Science Department is challenged with the task of writing a comprehensive yet adaptive learning program.

Recognizing the value for collaboration, the leadership team provides professional opportunities for the staff to work together. Teacher teams across the school were established, and times were set aside throughout the school year for school-wide curriculum development. DuFour's (2016) PLC framework was used by the school to guide staff collaboration. In addition, the school intentionally grouped staff from across disciplines to build a diversity of viewpoints into the teamwork.

The AIA Participants

A typical case sampling strategy (Creswell, 2013) was used to select the research participants. In this strategy, participants were selected based on their representativeness of the norm for their population, and they were in no way atypical (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2016). In this case, the population of interest was the international teacher. Hence the key to the participant selection depended on knowing first what constituted a typical international teacher.

Unfortunately, a single definition for an average international teacher is difficult to ascertain from the literature. International schools' context differs greatly; factors such as different host nations, school sizes, and curricula affect international administrators' hiring of teachers. Because international teachers' backgrounds and experiences vary, defining them as having a singular essence is not possible. Instead, I decided to create the criteria based on common characteristics drawn from the literature. Thus, the following section explains the criteria synthesized from the literature review of two characteristics of a typical international school and its faculty found in multiple sources:

● International teachers come primarily from English-speaking countries: the U.K., the U.S., Canada, or Australia (Brown & Lauder, 2011; Hayden, 2006; Hayden & Thompson, 2008).

● International teachers can be categorized as childless career professionals, mavericks (free-spirits), or career professionals with families (Hardman, 2001; Hayden, 2006; Hayden & Thompson, 2008, 2011; Odland & Ruzicka, 2009).

To clarify, the maverick category is a unique group of particularly mobile international teachers. Hardman reasons that mavericks are

> "some teachers [who] simply did not wish to renew [their] contracts once they had experienced everything they felt a country had to offer them: as free and independent spirits, often 'mavericks', the novelty of their situation had worn off." (2001, p. 130)

The sampled AIA teachers came from an English-speaking country and satisfied one of the career professional categories (Table 1). In this way, they represent a typical group of international teachers. All participants volunteered to partake in this case study, and this participation of their own free will further establishes the authenticity of this study's data.

Table 1

The Study's Participant Context

| | | Years of Teaching | | | | |
Teacher	Gender	Total	AIA	Nationality	Teaching Subject	International Teacher Category*
Bernie	Male	9	8	Canadian	Computer Science	Professional with Family
Bruce	Male	10	1	American	Chemistry	Maverick
Barry	Male	1	1	Dutch	Economics	Professional with Family
Walter	Male	20	15	Singaporean	Mandarin Chinese	Professional without Children
Lily	Female	5	3	Canadian	English Language Arts	Professional with Family
Sally	Female	5	2	British	English Literature	Professional with Family
Eileen	Female	6	2	American	Visual Arts	Professional with Family

*Definitions of international teacher categories taken from "Improving recruitment and retention of quality overseas teachers," by J. Hardman, 2001 *Managing International Schools* (pp. 130). London, UK: Routledge Falmer.

The Research Phenomena

This study followed a phenomenological approach. Creswell (2013) has described this type of study as the discovery of common meaning by several individuals' lived experiences of a phenomenon. He furthered explains that the purpose of phenomenological study is to capture these individuals' experiences to create a description of universal essence. In this study, the phenomena researched was a protocol-driven PLC. I wanted to capture the individuals' experience in such a PLC from the perspective of trust.

The protocol-driven PLC has common features (Allen & Blythe, 2004). These three considerations are typically found in the design of many protocol-facilitated conversations:

● Context: Is no context, some context, or detailed context initially provided for discussion?

● Roles: Are the participants observing, interpreting, or evaluating?

● Focus Question: Will the participants have a specific, general, or no focus question to discuss? (Allen & Blythe, 2004)

Other considerations include designating times for talking versus listening (Allen & Blythe, 2004; Easton, 2009; McDonald et al., 2013), structured versus open response (Allen & Blythe, 2004; Mattoon & McKean, 2015), and individual learning versus group learning (Allen & Blythe, 2004; Easton, 2009).

In this research's protocol-driven PLC, the specific protocol chosen was the FTP. The FTP was chosen for having many features typically found in many protocols. Adapted from the NSRF, the FTP used in this research designates times for participants to talk, listen, and give structured and open interactions for individual and group learning (Table 2). The FTP also provides detailed context of the problem by the presenter. Participants had a specific focus question for interpreting and evaluating the presenter's problem, and the FTP had a curricular-related purpose; that is, it enabled teachers to gain feedback on professional work, such as designing assignments, student exhibitions, and assessments related to their teaching practice. Because collegial critique of curriculum is a common way to utilize protocols, choosing FTP made this research relatable to a broader audience.

Table 2

Modified NSRF Fine Tuning Protocol*

Sections	Time	Description	Discussant Activity	Discussant Role
Setup	5 min	Facilitator introduces protocol.	Listening	Observing
Present	15 min	Presenter shares context to group.	Listening	Observing
Clarify	5 min	Discussants ask Presenter clarification questions.	Asking/ Talking	Observing
Silent Reflection	10 min	Discussants work silently on response.	Reflecting	Interpreting
Discussion	15 min	Discussants provide feedback.	Talking	Evaluating
Reflect	5 min	Presenter reflects learning from discussion.	Listening	Interpreting
Debrief	15 min	Presenter and Discussants reflect on using the protocol.	Talking	Evaluating

*Fine Tuning Protocol adapted from "" by Mattoon M., & McKean (2015), *Critical friends group: Coaches handbook.* (p. 35) Bloomington In: National School Reform Faculty

FTP Conversation Topic

Every FTP consists of participants critiquing a topic of professional interest presented by one of the teachers. In this case, the presenter was Bernie, and his professional dilemma concerned helping engage students in the classroom. Thus, in this section, I describe the presenter's dilemma, which was the basis for the participants to provide feedback.

Bernie's background includes previous collaborative work. His role in AIA is the Computer Science Head of Department. Previously, he has led his department to develop report card comments related to academic standards, and he has also worked with me in assessment design. Nevertheless, his work with curriculum development has been limited in comparison to teachers in other departments.

For this study's FTP, Bernie volunteered to present his curricular challenge to the group. His problem was engaging his students; specifically, he needed help with a unit of study on digital citizenship. Because this topic is too broad, Bernie decided to develop an unconventional approach to make the unit more manageable: he had his students work in pairs and debate a specific digital citizenship issue. Having his class watch other students debate on particular topics would expose them to multiple viewpoints related to digital citizenship. However, he discovered that, while some students debated, the rest of the class remained passive. This observation concerned him greatly because the unit requires an understanding of many positions. In addition, the class' lack of focus on the debaters hindered full understanding of the breadth of these perspectives. He thus felt strongly about audience involvement and welcomed

improvement in this area. Indeed, Bernie's curricular challenge was personally meaningful.

Bernie's challenge was also universally relatable. This FTP's topic of discussion on student

presentation and engagement is familiar to many international teachers. Regardless of the

teacher's subject, student presentations are a common strategy used for assessment in

international schools. For this reason, this FTP topic can be viewed as relevant and common to

many teachers.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I explained the context of this investigation. The overview provides a

rationale to the study's approach, and the choice of using a single qualitative case study was

explained. I discussed the research site, its participants, and the research phenomena in order to

situate the reader to this study.

Chapter 4: Research Procedures and Methods

Overview of Research Procedures Taken

Thus far, the discussion has aimed to help the reader understand the background information necessary for designing this study. In what follows, I recount the actual process of conducting this research. Through retelling the procedures undertaken, the reader can gain a better understanding of the approach of this systematic inquiry.

The layout of this chapter recalls the three stages conducted and their ethical considerations. The first stage is a preliminary preparation for the study, the second is data collection, and the final stage is interpreting the data to determine the results. This section also includes the ethics, trustworthiness, and limitations of this study. In short, the arrangement of this chapter justifies the procedure used to study the research questions.

Stage 1 Preparation

Initial Preparation

During the first stage, I prepared for data collection by determining the study's design constraints. This preliminary preparation was already discussed previously in the rationale, theoretical framework, and sampling sections. Such initial work involved researching the literature to understand the characteristics of trust as well as determining initial codes related to the theoretical framework for the future analysis of data (Table 3). This research stage helped inform the initial parameters needed for acquiring participants in this study.

Table 3

Interview Questions and Facets of Trust/Fine Tuning Protocol

Interview Question	Background	Facet of Trust					Fine Tuning Protocol
		Honesty	Benevolence	Competence	Reliability	Openness	
1. Can you tell me about your teaching background?	X						
2. Currently how would you describe your professional competency as a teacher?	X			X			
3. Have you had colleagues provide feedback about your teaching? How did you feel?	X						
4 What qualities do you look for in a teacher you can trust to give you feedback?		X	X	X	X	X	
5 Can you describe a time in your work that you depended on a colleague for professional advice?		X	X	X	X	X	
6 Can you share a time when you felt distrust in a meeting or conversation with a colleague?		X	X	X	X	X	
7 There were six parts to this Fine Tuning session: presentation, clarification, silent reflection, discussion, reflection, and debrief. What were you thinking/ feeling at these points in time? What was your trust level with the group during each stage? (Card- sorting activity)							X

Recruiting Participants

The first stage focused on obtaining the participants for this study. Permission was granted from the AIA's Head of School and principals to conduct the research. I obtained volunteers from the AIA faculty over a two-week period; 60 teachers were contacted through email, and seven teachers consented to be part of this study. The response rate from the sampled pool of teachers was 11%. After the participants were determined, I proceeded to the second stage of data collection.

Stage 2 Data Collection

Data Collection

In the second stage, the data was collected from two sources: the FTP video recording, with its corresponding transcription, and the participant interviews. The former yielded two

forms of data. First, the video provided the participants' spoken words during this conversation; the transcription of the video also provided these words with the turns of phrase used by the speakers and other verbal utterances. Second, the video recording also offered evidence of non-verbal conversational behaviors, such as head nods and eye contact, which offer visual evidence of participants' interactions with others during the FTP. In other words, the video provides participants' behavioral evidence, which is a component used to discern trust according to Adams' (2008) model of faculty trust (Figure 1). The other data source was participant interviews. These interviews gave insight into participants' thoughts and feelings from the FTP experience concerning the concept of collegial trust. This information supports the cognitive and affective aspects of Adams' (2008) model. Hence, the trust mechanism data of behavioral, cognitive, and affective aspects found in Adams' (2008) model can be accounted for through the video recording and interviews. Finally, there were seven participants in this study, and their behaviors, thoughts, and feelings are compared within each method to further refine the data.

The duration of the data collection lasted over four weeks. During the first week, data collection consisted of interviewing the presenter for the FTP. In the following week, a one-hour FTP session was scheduled and conducted in which I acted as the facilitator. This single session was video recorded. During the last two weeks, I devoted my attention to interviewing the participants regarding their perceptions of the FTP, and I re-interviewed the presenter about his impressions of the FTP session. Similarly, all participants were individually interviewed regarding their perceptions of the event.

The FTP Session

As the FTP facilitator, I recognized that I had a participatory role and needed to distance myself from the participants. I thus adhered to some norms of behavior to maintain impartiality. I kept my intrusions into the group conversation to a minimum and adhered to only three actions during the facilitation:

- Introduce and give directions for each FTP section

- Monitor the time for each FTP section

- Announce the closing of each FTP section

I made a conscientious effort to refrain from speaking within each FTP section. This action minimized my contribution to the group conversation.

Conversation Analysis Transcription

Another means of distancing myself from the study was to analyze the conversation using the Conversation Analysis (CA) approach. CA's exact and empirical approach to studying the structure and action of a conversation (Arminen, 2005; Heritage, 1998, 2009) provide impartiality to the data. The CA method consists of using the Gail Jefferson Transcription system (Table 4), recording speech production, and noting turn-taking organization (Wooffitt, 2005). Such detailed documentation allows me to inductively analyze the conversation.

Table 4

Common Symbols Used in the Gail Jefferson Transcription System

Common symbols used in the Gail Jefferson Transcription system

Transcription Notation	Description
(.)	A full stop inside brackets denotes a micro pause, a notable pause but of no significant length.
(0.2)	A number inside brackets denotes a timed pause. This is a pause long enough to time and subsequently show in transcription.
[	Square brackets denote a point where overlapping speech occurs.
> <	Arrows surrounding talk like these show that the pace of the speech has quickened
< >	Arrows in this direction show that the pace of the speech has slowed down
( )	Where there is space between brackets denotes that the words spoken here were too unclear to transcribe
(( ))	Where double brackets appear with a description inserted denotes some contextual information where no symbol of representation was available.
Under	When a word or part of a word is underlines it denotes a raise in volume or emphasis
↑	When an upward arrow appears it means there is a rise in intonation
↓	When a downward arrow appears it means there is a drop in intonation
→	An arrow like this denotes a particular sentence of interest to the analyst
CAPITALS	Where capital letters appear it denotes that something was said loudly or even shouted
Hum(h)or	When a bracketed 'h' appears it means that there was laughter within the talk
=	The equal sign represents latched speech, a continuation of talk
::	Colons appear to represent elongated speech, a stretched sound

Participant Interviews

An interview consisted of three parts. First, each participant described their teaching background. Second, each related their perceptions about trust and collegial feedback. Third, participants recalled their experiences from the FTP session. Cards labelled with each FTP section served as sorting props for this final part of the interview. In general, I began with the question but allowed my interviewees to elaborate and expand. When possible, I probed for a deeper understanding about the interactions in the FTP sessions.

Card Sorting

Card sorting was a technique used during interviews to elicit participant knowledge. The assumption with this technique is that interviewees construct meaning through categorization. By describing their own categorization, participants offer reasonable, valid, and reliable perceptions about their world (Rugg & McGeorge, 2005).

During the post-FTP interview, the participants were asked to rank each FTP component with their perception of trust level with the other participants. Cards labelled with each FTP section were provided for participants to arrange their levels of trust. They were instructed (Table 5) to place FTP sections with more trust higher. Photos (Figure 2) of these arrangements were examined. I used a virtual ruler to measure relative distances between sections.

Table 5
Sample Transcript of Card Arrangement Activity

Interviewer	I'm going to provide you will a list of cards labelled with each section of the Fine Tuning Protocol. I would like you to arrange these cards according to the level of trust you have in sharing with the group. Starting first with the presentation, clarification, discussion, reflection, and debrief. The lower the card, the lower the trust level. Do you have any questions?
Eileen	So the cards follow this order but I can move it up or down based on my comfort level?
Interviewer	Yes.
Eileen	Ok.
Interviewer	Take as much time as you need to think back on the experience.
Eileen takes a minute to sort the cards.	
Interviewer	I see you have arranged the cards in an upward fashion. Can you explain to me why you did that.
Eileen	At beginning I didn't know what to expect. So I would say, my trust level improved with time. You know, the more we talked the more we opened up. So I say it follows in an upward arch.
Interviewer	Can you tell me more why you think we opened up?
Eileen	There was one point where I shared my bullet points that I had written down. And I remember thinking. Oh that is kind of dumb. I wonder if that would be any useful or not. Because here I am coming from the elementary division and I don't know if I am giving anything useful to this group. For their students. And so there was some hesitant. But later on, some of the teachers said, "Hey that vocabulary BINGO idea was very cool. I'm going to try that." And I said "really?" So that encouragement that I got in the discussion period or maybe that was the reflection. That I thought some of those ideas were so run of the mill were useful for older students too.

Figure 2 Sample of Fine Tuning Protocol Card Arrangement
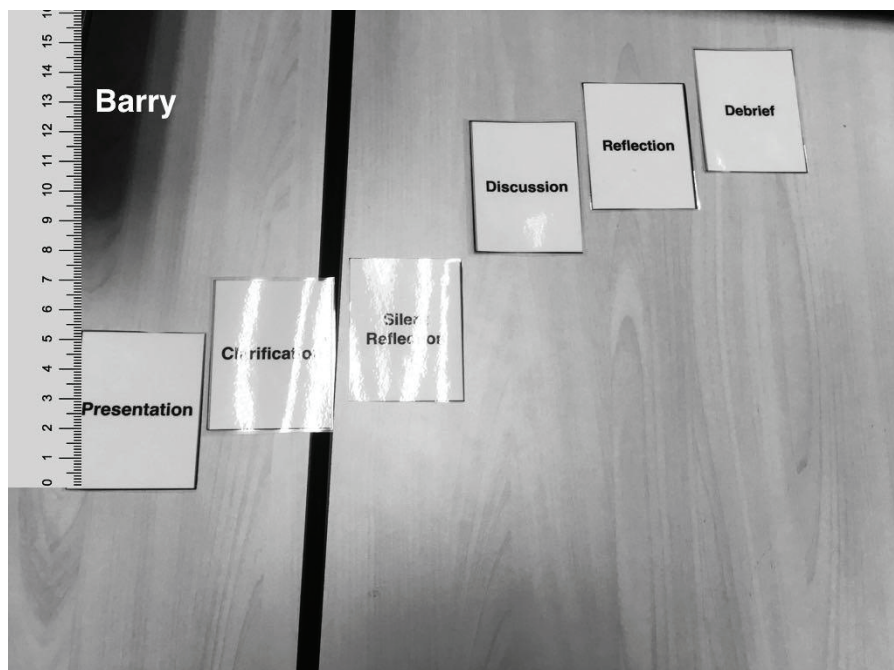
Figure 2 shows how the cards were arranged by one partiicpant. A virtual ruler was used to measure the height of each card, and this procedure provided a relative distance in levels of trust among the FTP sections. The higher placement of sections indicated greater trust. In this case, the participant felt the discussion, reflection, and Debrief sections were when higher and increasing trust levels occurred.

Summary of Data Collection

To summarize, this single-unit case study examined the phenomena of a facilitated conversational protocol from two perspectives. The first viewpoint was grounded on CA theory concerning how talk is constructed; this position took an objective viewpoint about the event. The second position used the perspective of the participants, and data consisting of participants' feelings, perceptions, and backgrounds provided a second point of reference.

Stage 3 Data Interpretation and Analysis

Overview

The two main purposes of the third stage were to interpret the data and synthesize the information to create new understandings. The process of analyzing the data consisted of examining each participant within each method. Ayres, Kavanaugh, and Knafl (2003) have

explained that this approach "combined across-case coding and sorting with a variety of within-case data management and analysis techniques to produce contextually grounded, generalizable findings" (p. 471). In this sense, each participant was viewed as an individual case within the broader context of the FTP case study. I used a combination of strategies with differing analytical focuses to produce the findings and discussion insights (Table 6). In summary, the process involved interpreting participants' viewpoints within each method (video and interviewing) and then synthesizing this interpretation with those of other participants.

Table 6

Within- and Across-Case Analytical Study of Discussants' Experience of a Fine Tuning Protocol

Data Collection Method	Analytical Focus of Data	Participant Cases	Result from Process
Fine Tuning Protocol Session's Video Transcript	Frequency of turn talk, repair, participant affecting sequence	Across all cases	Understanding the essential features of this particular conversation
	Documenting individual's non-verbal behaviors	Within each case	Identifying significant behaviors for each individual
	Organization of significant behaviors from FTP session	Across all cases	Analytical coding for common patterns and repetitions across cases
Participant Interviews	Retelling of teaching and career narratives	Within each case	Understanding individual's career background and experiences
	Card sorting activity for level of trust for each FTP component with recounting individual feelings and thoughts	Within and across all cases	Comparison of trust development for significance
	Card categorization for Facets of Trust	Within and across all cases	Sense of individual's thoughts and feelings about the concept of collegial trust
	Reconnecting significant behaviors with interview thoughts and feelings	Within and across all cases	Ascertain individual accounts from interviews to support behaviors observed in the FTP
	Intuition and critical reflection	Within and across all cases	Identification of finding statements for each FTP participant role
	Organizations of analytical categories, themes, and insights	Summary of main findings and insights	Findings report and analysis discussion

FTP Video and Transcript

Interpretation using Conversation Analysis

CA was chosen as the method to closely study the FTP conversation. As with all CA studies, this method intends to examine conversational actions as the basis for obtaining meaning (Clifton, 2012; Schegloff, 1996). In contrast to many other social science methods, CA concentrates on first-hand, observable actions rather than the accumulation of social actions or accounts (Schegloff, 1996). The assumption of CA is that first order actions can be regarded as the appearance of truth by speaker participants (Schegloff, 1996). Such an assumption comes from the belief that people orient their conversational actions by designing their talk based on interpretations of previous speakers and by establishing the norms and behaviors for the next speaker (Antaki, 2011; Heritage, 1998). Hence, the result of analysis using CA is an explication of the participants' conversation behavior.

Using CA to ascertain trust has been studied before by Clifton (2012), who distilled trust from a business conversation using CA transcription into a distancing device from the spoken language of the actions. He determines individuals' reality by observing repeating patterns of talk throughout the conversation and then juxtaposes repeated observations within the broader context of trust theories. In his case, he concludes that trust is developed when speakers in a conversation refer to personal experience, otherwise known as the theory of primacy effect. Hence, Clifton (2012) was able to impartially examine conversational data as related to a phenomena of trust.

In a similar manner, I derived my results by observing patterns of talk and then relating them to the facets of trust. The specific CA strategies used to examine the transcript are developed from Have (2007), who recommends exploring conversations through the following process:

- selecting a sequence

- determining the actions in the sequence

- considering speakers' organization of actions

- considering speakers' organization of turns

- considering the ways the actions imply certain participant identities, roles, and/or

relationships

Four strategies were recommended when examining the selected sequence:

- turn-taking organization (TTO)

- sequence organization (SO)

- repair organization (RO)

- organization of turn-design (OTD)

These strategies helped establish the participants' perceived realities based on their actions during the FTP conversation.

To elaborate, these four strategies (TTO, SO, RO, OTD) provide four perspectives from which to examine the transcription. TTO forms the basis of much of CA's approach to analyzing talk. This CA strategy consists of breaking conversation down into units from one speaker's turn in talking to another speaker (Sacks, 1995). These "talk units" of interchange

form the basis for determining how the talk is organized between speakers. Harvey Sacks, in a later publication of Lectures of Conversation (1995), has described these talk units as English constructions of sentences, clauses, phrases, and lexicon that transfer speakership. Beyond the grammatical language that constitutes the transferability between speakers, TTO also involves the examination of potential action taken by speakers; thus requesting, proposing, or accepting, even with a nod or gesture, can constitute a unit leading to TTO. This perspective is therefore one way to analyze the FTP conversation.

Considering how the FTP conversation was sequenced became a second means to analyze the data. In SO, the aim is to understand how conversational discourse leads to the type of utterances made by the speakers. Often, this conversational succession can be attributed to one speaker's action with an expected recipient response. For example, asking a question demands an answer, which furthers the dialogue. Hence, I examined the FTP conversation based on the actions taken in the context of the function. Using this CA strategy, I ascertained the function of the conversation parts.

The RO strategy is another way to observe the FTP conversation. This CA approach examines how speakers resolve difficulty in the flow of conversation. Typical hindrances include misunderstandings or not hearing the speaker. Subsequently, the speaker or recipient's next move calls for a repair to the situation. In other words, a speaker or recipient might initiate an action to repair the sequence. Instances of repair in the FTP conversation offered participant insight grounded in the observed evidence.

Have (2007) has described organization based on OTD as a less structured procedure in CA. OTD encompasses areas in the conversation not related to turn-taking, sequence organization, or repair organization (Have, 2007). The OTD concept centers on the speakers' interpretations of the conversation that influence their subsequent actions; that is, the direction of the conversational flow is influenced by strategic maneuvers made by speakers.

Sidnell and Stivers (2013) have discussed three ways that speakers use OTD: sequence, action, and recipient. The sequence turn-design (Sidnell & Stivers, 2013) is similar to the previous discussion on turn-taking and repair. Sidnell and Stivers (2013) have posited that speakers make intentional connections with their prior speaker. The conversation sequence is then created with the speakers' intention. The other factor for OTD comes from the speaker's knowledge of the recipient. Knowing the recipient's background, role, and position can influence what the speaker says and does.

In addition, the transcribed conversation is a source for analyzing verbal utterances. I sought common or frequent words and phrases speakers used to find insights in this study. This analysis also included pauses, tone inflection, speaking pace, and volume. Thus, the transcribed conversation, along with CA methods, offers valuable information about the FTP event.

Non-Verbal Analysis from the Video

A tally of participants' non-verbal behaviors provide further evidence of how they constructed the conversation. This video recording was analyzed at 50-second intervals, and non-verbal behavior was grouped into four categories: eye contact with the speaker; eye contact

with nodding to the speaker; writing notes; and non-eye contact with the speaker. Each

participant's frequency at each FTP section was noted for further analysis.

Coding Participant Interviews

Interviewing is a familiar method used by qualitative researchers to obtain data

grounded in participants' personal stories (Galletta & Cross, 2013; Legard, Keegan, & Ward,

2016). This study draws from several researchers' work (Castillo-Montoya, 2016; Galletta &

Cross, 2013; Legard et al., 2016) on the semi-structured interview as the technique used to elicit

participant narrations grounded in experience. A semi-structured interview is designed to have

structure as well as flexibility and interactivity for both interviewer and interviewee (Legard et

al., 2016). The interview design begins with alignment to the research questions (Castillo-

Montoya, 2016; Galletta & Cross, 2013), which were designed specifically with elements or

dimensions of the FTP phenomena (Legard et al., 2016) and a mixture of open and specific

questions to allow the participants' stories to emerge (Creswell, 2008). The interview protocol

consisted of questions aligned with theory and connected to the research inquiry.

Barnett's (2007) work on qualitative methodology offers the strategy of structured

sorting as a way to gain deeper insight into participants' perspectives. Barnett (2007)

recommends that this meaning-making should be done by encouraging participants to verbalize

their thinking when sorting. Thus, within the interview design, a structured sorting activity with

cards was incorporated for two events. First, participants were encouraged to talk and visually

arrange the cards for the sequence of the FTP sections as related to level of trust. Verbalization

of this activity offered understanding into participants' feelings as the FTP progressed. Second,

participants sorted by ranking their priority in trust facets. This activity also offers a visual

representation of the participants' values of collegial trust as well as their explication.

Participants' viewpoints from the interviews were analyzed through in-vivo coding,

emotional coding, and theoretical coding. To bring order and meaning to these codes, categories

were determined, and the results were mapped onto a conceptual model.

Using in-vivo coding, the initial data underwent a line-by-line examination of

participants' quotations that were deemed significant. Such significance came in the form of

clever phrasing, impacting nouns, action words, or repeated words. For example, the following

excerpt shows how I identified key words from Sally to develop a set of in-vivo codes:

> Being an examiner[1] and ah talked about Understanding by Design.[2] I am always thinking about how this is going to be assessed,[3] and I wanted to be clear in my mind the aim.[4] Was it a speaking exercise?[5] Was it a content?[6] I just needed in my mind to be sure what the objective was.[7] And it is about working backwards and what is comfortable with.[8] So that kind of drove my thinking,[9] like how can knowing that in Bernie's debate, what is the objective?[10] Is it debating skills[11] or getting other students to acquire knowledge?[12] So it is important to understand what the objective was.[13]

In-vivo codes:

[1] "being an examiner"

[2] "Understanding by Design"

[3] "going to be assessed"

[4] "the aim"

[5] "speaking exercise"

[6] "content"

7 "what the objective was"

8 "comfortable with"

9 "drove my thinking"

10 "what is the objective"

11 "debating skills"

12 "acquire knowledge"

13 "what the objective was"

These in-vivo codes were then listed to form outlined clusters that suggested categories of

belonging. For example, the 13 in-vivo codes were arranged into the following categories:

1. THINKING LIKE AN ASSESSOR

    "being an examiner"

    "Understanding by Design"

    "going to be assessed"

2. OBJECTIVE-FOCUSED

    "the aim"

    "what the objective was"

    "what is the objective"

3. KNOWLEDGE VERSUS SKILL

    "speaking exercise"

    "content"

    "debating skills"

    "acquire knowledge"

4. TRUST

    "comfortable with"

5. REFLECTION

    "drove my thinking"

Emotional coding was also used to determine the level of trust by the participants when

recalling their experiences for each section of the FTP. With this approach, I labelled emotions

the participant recalled or inferred them from the participant. For example, I used emotional

coding to determine the level of trust that Bernie felt during the FTP. The following interview

fragment demonstrates how emotional coding was used:

> The silent reflection, there was not even eye contact, most uncomfortable.[1] At the presentation, there was some eye contact that you can read.[2] At the discussion there was some dialogue and then the reflection, very connected dialogue, those were in the hierarchy.
>
> During clarification, I am not sure how I felt.[3] It wasn't negative or positive.[4] They wanted to understand more about text. Questions were not threatening.
>
> The other parts were high.[5] The discussion was the most powerful point.[6] The entire process has to happen. Discussion confirmed for me[7] what I was doing in my class a good thing. And my colleagues saw the value that I was doing. I think that when I stepped into the FTP, I was maybe sure what I was doing. But it was also good to hear that my colleagues supported what I was doing.

[1] "uncomfortable"

[2] "difficult to read"

[3] "unsure"

[4] "ambivalent"

[5] "very positive"

[6] "discussion was the most powerful point"

[7] "validation"

Tracking the emotional storyline for these codes provides the analytical strategy to determine

each participant's trust level in the FTP. From the example above, Bernie's emotions during the

FTP session can be clustered in the following way:

CLARIFICATION QUESTIONS: "unsure," "ambivalent"

SILENT REFLECTION: "uncomfortable," "difficult to read"

DISCUSSION: "very positive," "discussion was the most powerful point," "validation"

Using analytic memoing, I explored how the FTP section's emotional codes were connected. In other words, I determined the emotional story told by each participant. Bernie's emotional journey was described with the following analytical narrative:

> Bernie began his presentation UNSURE as to how the group would react to his teaching dilemma. During the presentation, he searched for eye contact to gain a sense of the participants' feelings. There was not enough eye contact from the participants, and thus Bernie was NOT CONFIDENT.

> During the clarification stage, Bernie remained UNSURE about how the group perceived his work. Based on the questions asked, he chose to be AMBIVALENT about the outcome for this FTP session.

> The silent reflection was UNCOMFORTABLE for Bernie because he did not have an active role. Since the other participants were busy writing, no eye contact was made with him. As a result, he had DIFFICULTY READING the participants' reactions and thinking. Subsequently, this situation added to Bernie's DISCOMFORT.

> The discussion was a turning point for Bernie. He found listening to the other participants talk about his problem to be VERY POSITIVE. In fact, he believed this section to be THE MOST POWERFUL POINT of the session. He felt VALIDATED and AFFIRMED by the participants' acknowledgement of his concerns.

The theoretical codes are based on the pre-determined categories (Table 3) from the trust facets and Adams' (2008) framework for building trust. This set of codes aligns the participants' perceptions with the research questions. There was overlap with these theoretical codes and the data using in-vivo and emotional codes. An example of how theoretical codes are used is illustrated by this interview fragment from Eileen:

You know, if you said something, you are going to do something. Or say you are going to be in a meeting,

for example. And it's not saying that you are dishonest. It's like, would the people trust you, would pull

your own weight. I would collaborate with you.[1]

REL[1]: Reliability of Colleagues

Thus far, the interpretation of data has been used to determine the finding insights for

the three main roles of the FTP: participants providing feedback, the participant presenting the

curriculum dilemma, and the facilitator of the FTP. By using a within- and across-case

approach, I can generate finding insights associated specifically with each participant role.

These findings are reported in the next chapter.

Development of Thematic Findings

The final analysis of the data involves the development of thematic findings based on

the second cycle coding strategy described by Saldana (2009). That is, analysis progressed from

an initial set of codes to reorganization iterations consisting of a select list of categories that

were condensed further into the study's central themes. For this study's second order coding, the

strategy employed was pattern coding of the initial codes for synthesis (Miles, Huberman, &

Saldana, 2014; Saldana, 2009). Miles et al. (2014) have used pattern coding to develop major

themes by searching for rules, causes, and explanations from data. The procedure employed

involved the discovery of patterns and combinations of codes. The data was then re-coded using

the exact words or phrases of the original codes to develop new insights (Saldana, 2009).

Conceptually similar codes were merged together, while first cycle codes deemed marginal or

redundant were reviewed or dropped.

The following account illustrates the theme development process during the analysis stage. First, the initial codes from the findings were reread and explored for patterns. When reviewing these codes, I produced categories that seemed most relevant to collegial trust and critique; that is, the development of the codes had to relate to trust in the context of a teacher professional critique.

For instance, during the initial stage, I classified the following sample quotes under the general category of motivation to partake in collegial critique:

"for making helpful suggestions" (Bruce)

"[colleague's] direction on the new thinking, that just sends you in a wonderful direction" (Lily)

"giving feedback for the reason to improve things" (Barry)

"as a senior examiner, I have to give feedback so we can get them back into the exam session" (Sally)

"we do a lot of informal meetings. Usually, we are talking about more general things, like classroom strategies" (Eileen)

"throughout my teaching years, I only have feedback from my direct supervisor. For my colleagues occasionally in class when I had a supervisory role" (Walter)

"Yes, my colleague and I have given a lot of feedback. We've talked about how do we do things, how do we come up with a rubric, as we reflect on our own assessments, how students perform" (Bernie).

The sample quotes suggest a perceived reason for collegial critique, and thus the general category of motivation was chosen.

During initial coding, I reiterated the sorting process by re-examining the data and generated four general categories:

- Motivation

- Feedback

- Vulnerability

- Responsibility

A surprising insight came from this process: when these general categories were re-examined, each category could be further subdivided into two similar groupings of teachers.

The previous example of motivation explains this point. Walter and Sally were one group of teachers in regards to motivation, and they tended to regard critique as part of their work and responsibility given their positions in the school. Thus, I grouped Walter and Sally in the subcategory of professional obligation. For the other teachers, there was a sense of personal goodwill and improvement of others which was not related to school duty. Eileen, for example, met informally with her colleagues to gain feedback. Bruce and Barry, meanwhile indicated that providing critiques was to a way to help colleagues improve professional practice. In other words, there was a sense of good intentions embedded in the way these teachers viewed critique. Thus the other subcategory for motivation was good intention.
 The subcategories are listed as follows:

- Motivation: professional obligations versus good intentions

- Feedback: superficial feedback versus meaningful feedback

- Vulnerability: personal vulnerability versus professional identity

These subcategories are further elaborated in Chapter 5; the synthesis of this research into these final themes was done through the combination of the first cycle coding and the second cycle coding processes. The first theme, *Trust through Reliability in the FTP Process,* was derived from the findings that had substantial evidence indicating that compliance, predictability, and

structure by all participants were integral to the trust found in the FTP. The second theme of

Trust through Openness as Connected to Teacher Identity was derived from the synthesis

during the second cycle coding of the subcategories. The surprising insight that a participant's

background mattered to their vulnerability and openness led the me to further conclude on

teacher identity as a factor. These themes are developed in Chapter 5.

Ethical Consideration

This research satisfies the operational guidelines and procedures outlined by the Human

Research Ethics Committee at the Education University of Hong Kong. Three considerations

ensure that the interaction between myself and participants was ethically sound. These aspects

consist of safeguarding the rights of the participants, ensuring minimum harm, and protecting

confidentiality.

The rights of the participants were safeguarded by informing participants before their

consent. Each participant thus determined for themselves their comfort with the research and

their personal rights. Additionally, I provided the option for participants to withdraw at any time

during the study. All participants volunteered with prior knowledge about the purpose, the

procedure, and the data collection of this research. This information was provided in the

participant consent form (Appendix A). Before starting an interview, I also asked the

interviewee permission to audio record their session. By being transparent, the participants had

full knowledge of various aspects of this study.

The risks were minimum for this study. No deception was involved, nor was any

participant placed in a situation of psychological stress or discomfort. Sensitive personal issues

about the participant's behavior, such as illegal conduct, drug use, or sexual conduct, were not addressed.

However, I recognize that, because I am the school's curriculum leader, some members might have perceived some risk in participating. Even though I was not responsible for evaluating teachers, a component of my work includes observing and documenting classroom practice. Such work could be misconstrued by participants as evaluative. To minimize this unbalanced power in our relationship, I took measures to lessen the teachers' vulnerability. These actions were communicated to the participants as follows:

- The study focused on interactions between teachers and not the individual.

- The data would not be used against them or shared with members to whom they were directly responsible, such as principals.

- They were allowed make generalizations from past experiences or use pseudonyms when referring to other individuals in the school.

- The results of the research would be provided in summary format.

Finally, measures were taken to maintain participants' confidentiality. Identification of the pseudonym information was stored separately from the interview and video transcript. These files were password-protected and only accessible by me and my supervisors. Non-text data, such as the video, was stored in a separate folder accessible only by me. All files related to the participants' identities will be destroyed five years after this study's publication.

Trustworthiness

Credibility

In qualitative studies, credibility has been related to accurate portrayals of participants' perceptions. In most studies, this credibility is increased by an acknowledgment of bias and the depth of understanding of the phenomena being studied. For this study, I took several measures to establish accuracy in my findings.

By providing clarity in assumptions and bias, the reader can better understand my subjectivity and perspective. One such bias was confirmation bias, which means that a person may be inclined to misinterpret ambiguous evidence as confirming one's current hypotheses about the world (Rabin & Schrag, 1999). I recognize that my confirmation bias comes from the study's research question. Generally, the research questions imply that trust occurs during an FTP session, and such an assumption could sway my view of the evidence. I thus made a conscientious effort to analyze the data as evidence showing mistrust.

Another potential bias may have occurred during the interview. I recognize myself as a less experienced interviewer. Question order, phrase or word usage, and body language could influence the interviewees' responses. Upon reviewing the interview data, I noted that I had tried to ask general questions before specific ones, and unaided questions before aided ones. Nevertheless, I noticed several instances in which some interviewees required more prompting for clarification. These occurrences were noted as potential credibility issues.

Having worked at AIA for a considerable amount of time, I have substantial experience at this school site and with its staff. This involvement adds to this study's credibility. In

addition, I have worked with each participant in various capacities, including professional

development using FTP. I thus possess in-depth understanding about FTP, the participants, and

AIA. Such knowledge allows me to convey details about the school site and its teacher

participants. Moreover, this depth of knowledge provides accuracy and precision to my account,

which further increase this study's credibility.

Triangulation of data from multiple sources (the conversation data, my observational

data, and the interview data) further add to the study's credibility. Corroboration from these

sources, which were gathered in different ways, supports the validity of the findings.

Nevertheless, when data did not corroborate, I treated these as exceptions worthwhile of

discussion. Challenges or contrary information were considered insight that had not been

explored. For example, only Bruce found the discussion section of the FTP uncomfortable.

Upon closer examination, I discovered that Bruce's self-identity as an experienced teacher made

him self-conscious about what he shared. Hence, even discrepancies were worth considering.

Another example of triangulation from this study was the conclusion that Eileen perceived trust

increased. First, from the post-FTP interview session Eileen claimed trust had occurred. To

further substantiate her claim, I found that she took more talk turns (analysis of the CA

transcript) in the later sections of the FTP. Video analysis revealed greater engagement such as

eye contact with speaker. These observations related to openness in sharing which is part of this

study's conceptual framework for trust. Hence, the different data sources would suggest that

Eileen's perceived trust could be backed by her behavior in being more open during the FTP.

The credibility for this research is also substantiated by my peers. I checked the accuracy of this analysis by having others review my work. Throughout the study, my doctoral supervisors acted as critical friends, challenging my assumptions and asking questions about the data. Such critique provided another perspective, and having a different viewpoint strengthens the study's credibility.

Dependability and Transferability

Dependability in qualitative research refers to the likelihood that the procedure and process can be replicated by another researcher. The dependability for most qualitative research resides in detailed descriptions of how data was collected and analyzed. In some ways, this chapter provides the reader with detailed descriptions of the collection and analysis of data. Similar to building credibility, the methodology feedback from my supervisors adds to this study's dependability. Another way to involve the scholarly community is to make the data available for other researchers to review. Thus, I will honor such requests made by other scholars.

Transferability in qualitative research is similar to generalization; it refers to how well a study's processes translate to readers' own settings. Transferability can be achieved by providing in-depth understanding of the processes involved at the research site. Geertz (1973) has used the phrase "thick description" as a way of developing a deep understanding of what was observed and systematically documented during fieldwork. By having rich, detailed account of the experiences, readers can make their own decisions about transferring a researcher's findings to other times, places, and people. Denzin (2001) has posed five areas that support thick description when reporting data:

- Biographical (who?)

- Historical (what led to this?)

- Situational (what is the context?)

- Relational (what is happening?)

- Interactional (what are the meanings and relationships?)

I employed this technique to describe my findings, and my purpose was to help the reader gain a deep comprehension of the study's findings.

Limitations and Delimitation

Some characteristics of this methodology impact the interpretation of this study's findings. A key limitation was the use of a single-unit case study. Although I have already made the argument for studying a single unit, restricting research to a single FTP session narrows what can be induced from this study. That is, the effects of repeated sessions, different teacher presenters, participants, and topics of discussion would have required multiple sessions. Hence, I recognize that what I could inductively reason is restricted to the context of one particular conversation.

Another limitation comes from the adoption of CA methodology to interpret the findings. Examining the conversation objectively through its structure is central to this research. However, an affective construct such as trust cannot be made directly with CA. In other words, CA data only reveal behaviors in a conversation. I thus made an interpretative connection between how trust was defined by trust facets and the behaviors observed from CA. It may be worthwhile in the future to explore other methods of examining conversations and their influence on the findings.

When analyzing the conversation, one other consideration is the interpretation of non-verbal observations. Video analysis of body language such as eye contact or nodding of head may not be indicators of trust. Rather they could signify other reasons such as engagement or boredom. Also, such behaviors could have been artefacts of the FTP structure rather than the development of trust. Hence the reader should be careful not to interpreting the findings from body language.

Limitations also exist in the card sorting activity. Measuring the cards' positions with a ruler is not completely valid and accurate way for determining the participants' perception of trust. Each person may have a different scale of reference due to the absence of a common horizontal scale. Hence greater value should be attributed to the conversations elicited from these props.

The interview design concentrates on the teacher presenting the curricular dilemma. The choice to interview only the presenter before the FTP session reflects a natural part of the protocol. That is, prior to an FTP session, facilitators determine a focusing question with the teacher presenter. Nevertheless, I used this opportunity to gain insight into the teacher presenter's personal stories regarding collegial feedback, background, and trust. However, a pre-FTP interview with other participants was not conducted, and this may have resulted in a more equitable examination of the participants' perceptions.

Ultimately, the choice to conduct a focused study on a conversation means that new knowledge can only be deduced from this one conversational context. However, despite this limitation, there is value to examining this FTP conversation. Such close study challenged my assumptions about the manifestation of trust in different ways. In this sense, the research generates new directions and questions for future research about trust.

Delimitation refers to the decisions made about the overall design of the study. Such choices define and clarify the study's conceptual boundaries. When considering delimitations, I examined what decisions impacted the findings and data.

One delimitation comes from choosing the trust facets framework to define trust. Variations in the models of trust (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Reina & Reina, 2006) exist in the literature. Bryk and Schneider (2002), for example, have defined trust as competence, respect, and personal regard. Reina and Reina (2006), meanwhile, have defined trust as character, capability, and communication. Small nuances in the concept of trust may have affected interpretation.

A second delimitation concerns the participants who volunteered. All participants satisfied the international teacher criteria, as discussed above. Nonetheless, by coincidence, six of the seven participants were high school teachers. Thus, the specialization of the participants may have affected the FTP discussion. For instance, teachers from elementary or middle school might have expressed their trust differently. It is also not clear whether teachers from different divisions would collaborate in the same way.

A third delimitation stems from my involvement with this research. I decided to be part of the study because I wanted to gain deeper insight through first-hand experience. Yet my leadership position at AIA could have influenced responses during the FTP session and interviews. Having another person facilitate or conduct the interviews might have created some distance between myself and the participants. Nevertheless, I was mindful of analyzing solely the interactions between teachers.

Chapter Summary

This chapter's research method section explained how data was collected and analyzed in this single FTP session. I described how the triangulation of the data came from two perspectives: empirical evidence from the FTP session and participant thoughts from the interviews. The process for analyzing the data came from a process of coding and recoding, and the final synthesis of the data emerged from themes drawn from these findings.

The final part of this chapter was devoted to a discussion of this study's ethics, trustworthiness, and limitations. I began by clarifying the procedure I used to inform participants before, during, and after the study. I then discussed the study's credibility and transferability. Perhaps the most important aspect was my recognition of my own bias. Finally, I discussed the limitations in the design of the study and how the choices made also restricted my interpretations.

Chapter 5: Results

Thus far, I have described the methodology used to investigate trust. In this study, trust was analyzed in the context of a professional conversation. Specifically, the conversation focused on an FTP discussion among seven international school teachers. The research questions sought to examine how each FTP participant (presenter, facilitator, and discussant) developed trust. I used a conceptual framework developed by Tschannen-Moran to examine trust. Her conceptual framework consists of five trust facets: benevolence, honesty, competency, reliability, and openness. The intention was to use these facets to analyze participants' behavior. In accordance with the research questions, the findings were categorized under the perspectives of each of the main FTP participant types (presenter, facilitator, and group participant). In particular, I sought to determine the influence that each role had on the group's trust.

Based on the purpose of this study, this chapter's results are organized by FTP participant types for each method, video transcription and participant interviews. Insights were determined based on analysis of this data. These insights were organized into three categories by discussants, presenter, and facilitator. The data from the discussants were analyzed by comparing their spoken words during the interviews with their conversational behaviors during the FTP. Data from the presenter, Bernie, was analyzed through his account of the FTP experience and his behavior during the FTP. In contrast, the facilitator's perspective was analyzed from only the other participants' viewpoint. Using the other participants' voices helped separate from my bias from the study. In summary, the organization of this chapter presents the results by each participant type.

As stated in previous chapters, the research questions concern how trust develops from a protocol-driven conversation.

- How were the facets of trust manifested by the presenter?

- How were the facets of trust manifested by the discussants?

- How were the facets of trust manifested by the facilitator?

The insights were also aligned with these research questions. Five insights were determined through analysis of the data. The major insights from this study are as follows:

Discussants

1. Trust was perceived to have occurred by all participants after participating in the FTP.

2. Conversational behavior was associated with openness and reliability.

3. The participants in an FTP session nonverbally cued others' turns to talk.

Presenter

4. The presenter became more open as the FTP session progressed.

Facilitator

5. The facilitator provided reliability to the FTP structure, which contributed to participant trust in the process.

Discussant Trust in FTP

The first part of the results section concerns the participants who provided Bernie with feedback. These participants consisted of Bruce, Barry, Eileen, Lily, Sally, and Walter. Their

perspectives came from examining their perceptions revealed in the interviews and the video transcripts. The connection between participants and across these two methods help synthesize the first three major results.

Interviews with Discussants

From the discussant's interview data, the main result was that these participants perceived an increase in the trust level as the FTP session progressed (Figure 3). The participants interpreted this "trust" as a "level of comfort." Except for Lily, all teachers gained this trust during or after the FTP's discussion section. Lily was unique in that she highly trusted her colleagues prior to the start of the FTP session. Bruce also differed from the other members: his comfort level during during the discussion dropped (Figure 3). He explained that, as a new teacher, he was self-conscious about sharing with his colleagues because he was afraid of being judged. Nevertheless, all participants expressed higher trust compared to the start of the FTP session. In short, the evidence from the interviews substantiates the first insight: *trust was perceived to have occurred by all participants.*

Figure 3 Discussant's Perception of Trust for each Fine Tuning Protocol Section
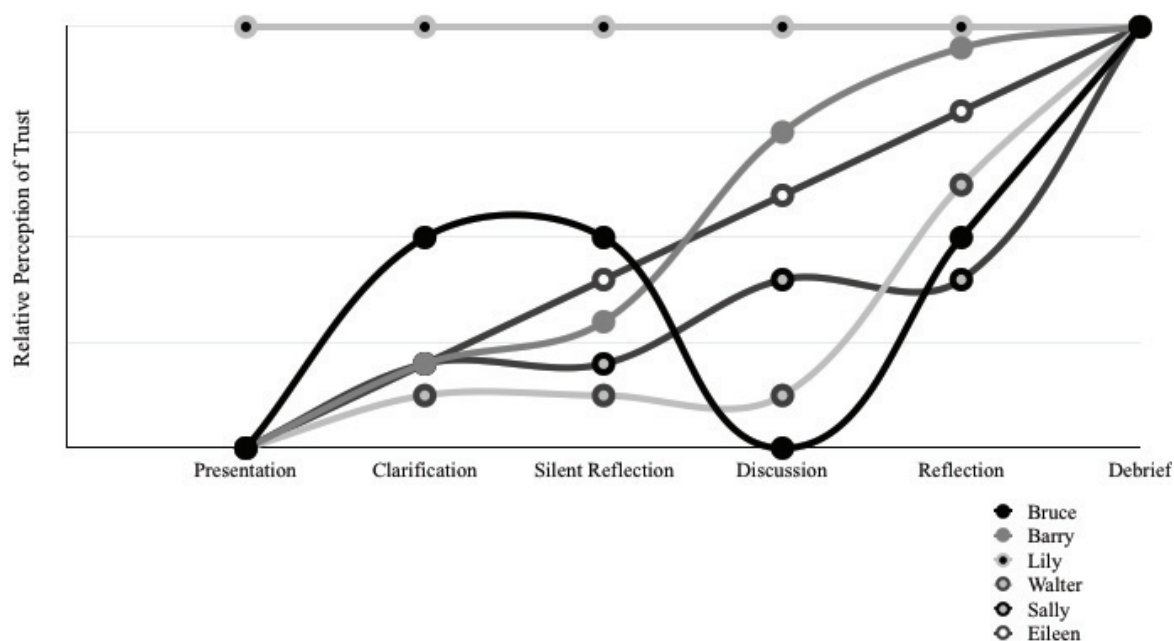
The interview data also reveal two participants types. These two groupings of

participants were analytically coded using the facets of trust (Table 7). The final results were

inferred from the participants' choices and explanations during the card-sorting activity. One

group of teachers valued colleagues who were transparent or open in expressing their ideas. In

particular, this group of teachers most valued receiving feedback from impartial or unbiased

colleagues. The teachers inclined towards the facet of openness were Barry, Bruce, and Lily. On

the other hand, another group of teachers valued reliability from their colleagues. These

teachers felt that their more accountable peers were trustworthy and dependable. The teachers

inclined towards the reliability facet were Sally and Walter.

Table 7

Discussants' Perspective on Facets of Trust from Interviews

	Facet of Trust	Significant Participant Quote	Key Words/ Phrases
		Q1 Which facet was most important during collegial feedback?	
Barry	Openness Benevolence Competency	I think openness speaks for itself. I think if you want to have a discussion, you want to have people that are open, you want to have people sharing and feel comfortable sharing. But also with openness as perspective and be open minded. That they are not stuck in one thing, but they can think outside the box.	comfortable sharing open minded openness as perspective
Bruce	Openness	Not all teachers are all that open. Some teachers are afraid that they will be judged for not being good enough. So for example, if I am talking to someone and I am looking for feedback and somebody is afraid to give feedback. I'm not going to be receiving good feedback.	not afraid of judged open
Eileen	Honesty	Well, the reason that honesty is at the top is because that's the first thing I think of when I think about trust. Is this person telling the truth or are they lying to me. You know, that's huge.	telling truth lying
Lily	Openness	I think openness is number one [for trust] because it doesn't really matter if they are willing to give it, I would love to hear it. It will give you a different perspective.	different perspective openness
Sally	Reliability	I put reliability high because coming previously as senior examiner, I can always help a colleague who was not competent. However they need to be reliable in order to do the work in the first place	reliable to do work
Walter	Reliability	I choose reliability because I can rely on the person to get the job done and things to work out.	rely job done
		Q2 Which facet was least important during collegial feedback?	
Barry	Honesty Reliability	It's great to be honest but there is a level of compassion for other people. If I put honesty and you have people just sharing everything, you lose the context of the situation. It scares off other people in this environment.	compassion lose context
Bruce	Reliability	I am not sure if reliability matters when getting collegial feedback—whether or not they have a predictable way they are going to respond. Sometimes the best ideas you get are completely out of left field.	out of left field best ideas
Eileen	Benevolence Openness Competency Reliability	If you and I are working on a project, are you reliable. You know, if you said something you are going to do something, or says you are going to be in a meeting for example. And it's not saying that you are dishonest. It's like would the people trust you would pull your own weight which is not the same as getting feedback.	reliable [indeterminable]
Lily	Benevolence	I think it isn't meaningful if not honest. After all it would be hard to hurt my feelings when it comes to a critique	honest not hurt feelings
Sally	Benevolence	I think talking as a professional benevolence is least important.	professional benevolence
Walter	Benevolence	Benevolence is about empathizing and being in the shoes of that person. This is personality.	personality benevolence

To summarize, I established that the discussants gained trust during the FTP session (Figure 3). Furthermore, openness and reliability were most valued by many discussants for collegial trust (Table 7). This result suggests that elements of openness and reliability must exist in the FTP conversation for the perception of trust to increase. Thus, in the next section, CA methods are used to determine how such conversational behaviors also relate to the facets of openness and reliability.

Fine Tuning Protocol—Conversation Analysis Methods

The FTP session was transcribed using CA transcription and analyzed for verbal and non-verbal interactions (Table 8). The conversation was studied from four CA perspectives: TTO, SO, RO and OTD. To review, TTO refers to how one speaker passes his or her turn to another speaker, SO describes how speakers affect the sequence of the conversation through their utterances, RO indicates when speakers adjust or make corrections during a conversation sequence, and, finally, OTD denotes a speaker's specific intentions in the conversation.

Table 8

Discussants' Behavior as Related to Conversational Analysis Methods

Discussant	Turn Taking Organization (TTO)	Sequence Organization (SO)		Repair Organization (RO)		Organization Turn Design (OTD)		
		Talk turns affecting next turn		Talk turns to correct conversational error		Talk turns with purpose		
	Action to end talk turn	Frequency	Description	Frequency	Error Description	Frequency	Description	Total talk turns
Barry	Lowers voice	1	asks questions	0		2	offers encouragement	
	Pauses					3	offers critique	9
	Slows rate of speech					3	shares self-reflection	
Eileen	Lowers voice	1	declines sharing	0		2	offers critique	4
						1	shares self-reflection	
Lily	Verbal indication	3	asks questions	1	speaking same time as another participant	1	offers encouragement	
	Asks a question					3	offers critique	12
						4	shares self-reflection	
Walter	Lowers voice	1	asks question	0		1	offers encouragement	
						1	offers critique	4
						1	shares self-reflection	
Sally	Lowers of voice	0		1	speaking same time as another participant	1	offers encouragement	
	Indicates end					2	offers critique	6
						2	shares self-reflection	
Bruce	Lowers voice	2	asks question	0		1	offers critique	4
						1	shares self-reflection	

The TTO analysis reveals that most participants signaled the completion of their talk turn by pausing, slowing their rate of speech, or lowering their voices (Table 8). In some cases, such utterances were inaudible to me. These observations occurred mostly during the discussion and debrief sections. There were two reasons to signal closure to other participants. First speakers spoke in a lengthy narration, following the storytelling format (Have, 2007; Sidnell & Stivers, 2013). These self-moderated long talk turns required closing cues to help other speakers join. The other reason was that participants self-selected their talk turns during the discussion and debrief sections. Without the facilitator determining the next speaker, participants were more attentive to the completion of a talk turn.

In a few instances, a speaker verbally indicated the end of his or her talk turn. For instance, after Lily offered many recommendation on making student presentations interactive, she closed her suggestions at line 263. Lily's statement, "That's my feedback," was an explicit end to her suggestions, and Barry quickly picked up this cue.

263   Lily   you can have that counter-argument what I think it is. So that's my

                      feedback then.=

264   Barry   =I had a quick note on the engagement what kind of ( ) you want them to

Thus, the TTO for participants consisted of speakers signaling unnoticeable closure. These signals offered the opportunity for the next speaker to begin a new talk turn. As a result, I infer that the participants were mindful of their talk time, and they recognized the protocol time constraints, which had been previously communicated by the facilitator.

Based on reviewing the video transcript of the FTP, the discussants only used questioning to affect the conversation sequence. Table 7 indicates that the SO was driven by asking questions during the clarification section. Because this protocol only permitted questioning at that point in time, the SO in fact adhered to FTP structure. Hence, I posit that protocol procedures strongly dictated the participants' behavior.

RO occurred only once during the FTP conversation (Table 8). This instance of repair comes from an exchange between Lily and Sally.

161	Barry	So I think it's really good the acknowledge that I see how engage them
162		(2.7)
163	Lily	[I
164	Sally	[um
165	Lily	go ahead
166	Sally	um I like too am as an English teacher like in this rubric key, it refers to the speaking skills

Barry concluded his narration at line 161. The distinct pause afterwards cued the end of his turn and prompted Lily and Sally to simultaneously enter the conversation. Lily, recognizing that they had both started together, invited Sally with "Go ahead." Consequently, Sally accepted the invitation.

The lack of repair sequences during this FTP session is of particular interest. It may imply that there was no need for correction. Another reason I postulate is that the protocol offered time for participants to craft their spoken message. Allocating time for participants to think minimized errors and misunderstandings. For example, Lily described the importance of having silent reflection in the protocol to help develop thinking:

> "The silent reflection, I am never silent. So to have that time to not to go into now, but enough time to really think about it … Sally like to have a bit more time to think about things, and that reminded me that when I want to do some things, there has to be a bit of silence to let people catch up."(Lily)

Needless to say, not having repair sequences suggests that the conversation behavior was more controlled, which is also consistent with the behaviors from the earlier analysis using TTO and SO approaches.

Finally, the FTP conversation's OTD also confirms that the discussants' behaviors matched the expected conduct for the protocol. Again, during the discussion and debrief, participants' talk turns reflected three purposes: offering encouragement, offering critique, or self-reflection (Table 8). These actions were the discussion's warm feedback (encouragement), cool feedback (critique), and self-reflecting during the debrief section. As these were the expected behaviors during the protocol, they demonstrate compliance with the FTP rules. Complying with the protocol enabled the discussants to provide balanced feedback, both positive and negative. Hence this protocol created the conditions for the expression of multiple viewpoints from all participants. Furthermore, Tschannen-Moran (2014) has interpreted openness as the spirit of sharing resources and ideas. Openness also means that the environment is non-threatening. In this sense, the willingness of all participants to give warm and cool feedback (Table 7) contributed to a feeling of openness.

The CA methods (TTO, SO, Repair, and OTD) indicate that the discussants complied with the protocol structure. As a result, the conversation flowed in a predictable manner. That is, compliance with the protocol helped build reliability. Secondly, the protocol established a secure environment to share ideas and suggestions, which supported the participants' openness. These pieces of evidence are relevant to the second insight: *the participants' conversational behavior was associated with openness and reliability.*

Fine Tuning Protocol—Conversation Analysis: Verbal and Non-Verbal

      Discussants commonly affirmed speakers through verbal utterances or non-verbal language, such as eye contact. Sidnell and Stivers (2013) referenced spoken evaluations such as "yeah" and "wow" to be affiliative tokens made by recipients to indicate their positive stance toward the speaker. Verbal utterances were common, such as as "yeah" and "mhmm," and these sounds were frequently voiced by Barry and Lily (Figure 4).

Figure 4 Frequency of Verbal Affirmations by Discussants
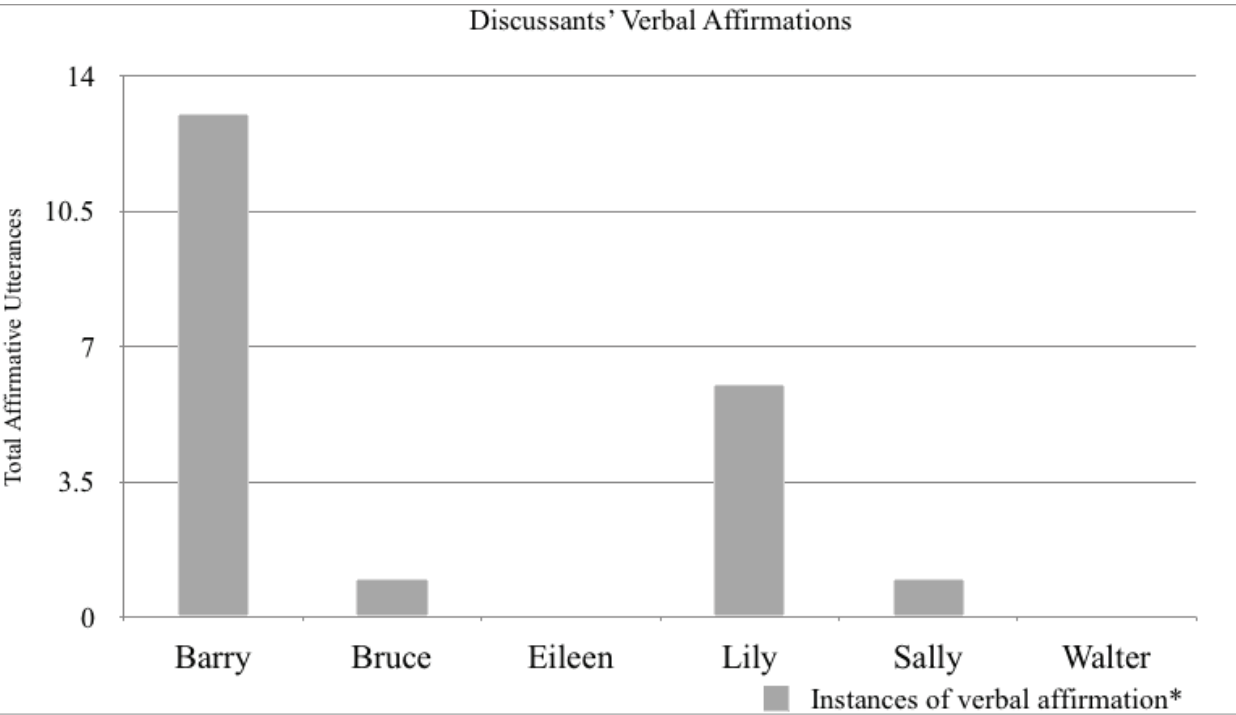
*Verbal affirmations refer to common utterances such as "yeah" and "mhmm"

      The results reveal that, generally, greater eye contact and nodding occurred more later in the FTP than earlier (Table 9). For instance, Walter, who made no eye contact during the presentation and clarification sections, increased to nine instances during discussion and six

during the debrief. Similarly, Lily grew in acknowledging other speakers by increasing head

nods during the discussion. All these observations provide evidence for the third insight: *the*

participants in an FTP session nonverbally cued others' turn to talk.

Table 9

Conversation Analysis of Discussants' Non-Verbal Instances

Fine Tuning Protocol Section	Behavior	Frequency of Behavior					
		Barry	Eileen	Lily	Walter	Sally	Bruce
Presentation	Eye contact to speaker	2	0	3	0	2	0
	With nodding to speaker	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Writing notes	0	0	0	0	2	0
	Non-eye contact to speaker	3	5	2	5	1	5
Clarification	Eye contact to speaker	5	0	5	4	2	2
	With nodding to speaker	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Writing notes	2	5	2	2	4	2
	Non-eye contact to speaker	0	5	3	4	3	5
Silent Reflection	Eye contact to speaker	0	0	0	0	0	0
	With nodding to speaker	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Writing notes	5	5	5	4	5	5
	Non-eye contact to speaker	0	0	0	1	0	0
Discussion	Eye contact to speaker	13	13	7	9	10	18
	With nodding to speaker	4	2	10	2	4	0
	Writing notes	0	1	0	1	4	0
	Non-eye contact to speaker	4	4	2	8	1	3
Reflection	Eye contact to speaker	3	5	3	4	4	5
	With nodding to speaker	1	0	2	1	1	0
	Writing notes	1	0	0	0	0	0
	Non-eye contact to speaker	1	1	1	1	1	1
Debrief	Eye contact to speaker	7	8	8	6	10	9
	With nodding to speaker	3	2	3	0	3	0
	Writing notes	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Non-eye contact to speaker	1	3	0	7	1	1

Summary of Discussant Trust in FTP

In this study, the participants developed trust by adhering to the protocol. That is, their compliance contributed to this conversation's predictability and thereby established reliability for the participants. For instance, participants knew the time allotted for each section, and they modified their speaking behavior accordingly. By providing structure, the FTP minimized participants' vulnerability in sharing positive and negative feedback, and such feedback was associated with trust-building to help participants be more open.

The mechanism that developed this openness occurred during the discussion section. A pattern emerged from the analysis of the FTP conversation, and this pattern provided the reliability needed for the group to socially construct their conversation. A speaker started a talk turn by communicating an opinion. The other participants affirmed this speaker's opinion through verbal affirmations and non-verbal body language (heads nods and eye contact). At the completion of a talk turn, the speaker signaled closure by lowering his or her voice or slowing speech. This action cued the group to self-select the next speaker. Thus, this recurring cycle for transitioning from one speaker to the next provided increasing trust in the process and opened the group to sharing ideas.

Presenter's Trust in FTP

The presenter, Bernie, had a critical role in the FTP. As discussed earlier in this chapter, Bernie's curricular dilemma was central to the conversation during the FTP. I studied the presenter's perspective through Bernie's interview accounts and by watching his video-recorded behavior during the FTP. This gathered evidence substantiates the fourth insight related to presenter and his openness during the FTP.

Interview with Presenter

   I coded Bernie's interview for emotions by inferring feelings from his account of the

FTP experience. These codes helped determine Bernie's emotional storyline. After, a narrative

was produced to explicate Bernie's emotions as the FTP progressed. Bernie's feelings are

analytically categorized and described in Table 10.

Table 10

Coding of Presenter's Quotes

Fine Tuning Protocol Section	Presenter Quotes	Codes	Explication of Presenter's FTP Experience
Presentation	"At the presentation there was some eye contact that you can read."	DIFFICULT TO READ	Bernie started his presentation unsure as to how the group would react to his teaching dilemma. During the presentation, he searched for eye contact to gain a sense of the participants' feelings. There was not enough eye contact from the participants. So Bernie was not confident.
Clarification	"During clarification. I am not sure how I felt. It wasn't negative or positive. They wanted to understand more about text. Questions were not threatening."	UNSURE AMBIVALENT	During the clarification stage, Bernie remained unsure about how the group perceived his work. Based on the questions asked, he chose to be ambivalent about the outcome for this FTP session.
Silent Reflection	"The silent reflection there was not even eye contact most uncomfortable."	UNCOMFORTABLE	The silent reflection was uncomfortable for Bernie because he did not have an active role. Since the other participants were busy writing, no eye contact was made to Bernie. As a result, Bernie had difficult reading the participant's reactions and thinking. Subsequently, this situation added to Bernie's discomfort.
Discussion	"At the discussion there was some dialogue and then the reflection very connected dialogue those were in the hierarchy."	ASSURED	The discussion was a turning point for Bernie. He found listening to the other participants talk about his problem to be very positive. In fact, he believed this section to be the most powerful point of the session.
	"The discussion was the most powerful point"	EXHILARATED	
	"The entire process has to happen. Discussion confirmed for me."	VALIDATED	
Reflection and Debrief	"The other parts were high."	VERY POSITIVE	He felt very positive because Bernie was validated and affirmed by the participants' acknowledgement of his concerns.

The presenter confirmed that trust did occur during the FTP. From the card-sorting activity,

Bernie (Figure 5) revealed increasing trust as the FTP progressed. He explained that a drop in

the comfort level that occurred during the silent reflection arose from his uncertainty in

interpreting the other participants' perceptions. Nevertheless, he positively received the

affirmations he heard during the discussion and proceeding sections. Hearing the other

participants talk validated Bernie's opinions, which reassured him.

Figure 5 Trust Level of the Presenter
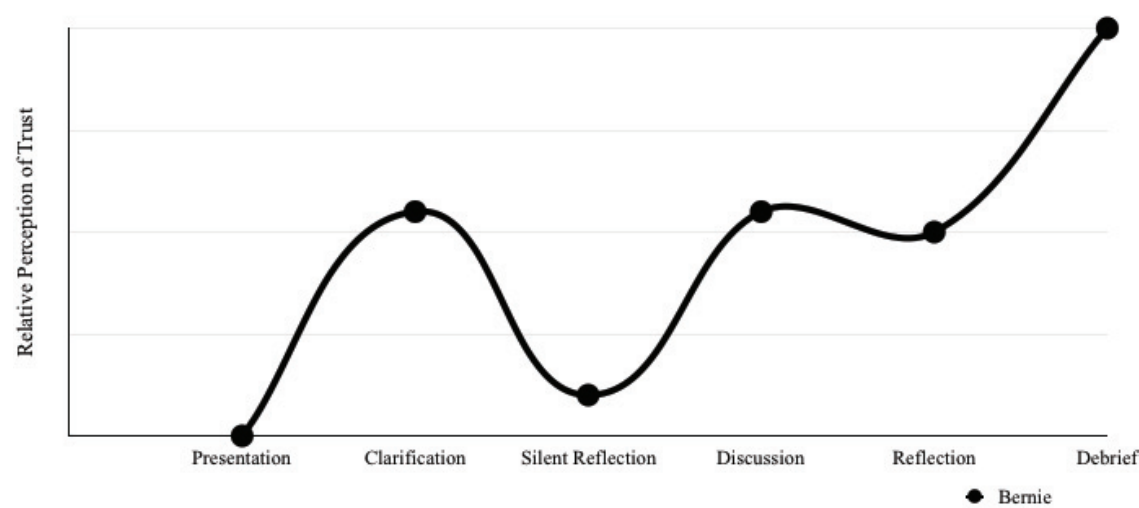
Fine Tuning Protocol—Conversation Analysis Methods

The presenter was more open at the end of the FTP. Of the 10 talk turns made by the

presenter, one was for the presentation, six were for responding to the discussant's clarification

questions, and three turns for presenter's self-reflection (Table 11). Such actions followed the

protocol, and Bernie kept his presentation and answers brief. These actions matched with his

feelings of being less than confident and uncertain during the presentation and clarification

sections of the protocol (Table 10). At the end of the FTP, Bernie was more open; he

volunteered to self-reflect in front of his peers for two talk turns during the debrief (Table 10).

Likewise, he made significantly more eye contact with his peers during the debrief than at the

start of the FTP (Table 12). Hence, Bernie changed in his openness: compared to the beginning

of the FTP, he was more vulnerable in body language (eye contact) and verbal expression (self-

reflection).

Table 11

Summary of Conversation Analysis for Presenter

Presenter	Turn Taking Organization (TTO)	Sequence Organization (SO)		Repair Organization (RO)		Organization Turn Design (OTD)		Total talk turns
	Action to end talk turn	Talk turns affecting next turn		Talk turns to correct conversational error		Talk turns with purpose		
		Frequency	Description	Frequency	Description	Frequency	Description	
Bernie	lowers voice slows rate of speech verbal indication	6	responds to questions	0	-	1 3	presents shares self reflection	10

Table 12

Frequency of the Presenter's Non-Verbal Behaviors

Fine Tuning Protocol Section	Behavior	Frequency of Presenter's Behavior
Presentation	Eye contact to speaker	0
	With nodding to speaker	0
	Writing notes	0
	Non-eye contact to speaker	1
Clarification	Eye contact to speaker	1
	With nodding to speaker	0
	Writing notes	0
	Non-eye contact to speaker	1
Silent Reflection	Eye contact to speaker	0
	With nodding to speaker	0
	Writing notes	0
	Non-eye contact to speaker	5
Discussion	Eye contact to speaker	0
	With nodding to speaker	0
	Writing notes	0
	Non-eye contact to speaker	1
Reflection	Eye contact to speaker	0
	With nodding to speaker	0
	Writing notes	0
	Non-eye contact to speaker	1
Debrief	Eye contact to speaker	8
	With nodding to speaker	1
	Writing notes	0
	Non-eye contact to speaker	2

Summary of Presenter Trust in FTP

To summarize, the presenter described a change in trust with his colleagues compared to the start of the FTP. His trust came from the affirmations received by listening to his peers critique his dilemma. Thus, the FTP structure helped create a safe environment for the presenter to make himself more vulnerable. This finding supports the fourth insight: *the presenter became more open as the FTP session progressed.*

Facilitator's Trust in FTP

The Researcher as the Facilitator

My role to participate as a facilitator was intentional. I was one of two staff members trained by the National School Reform Faculty to facilitate protocol-driven conversations. As part of the school's PLC initiative, I had previously conducted multiple FTP sessions, and these occasions contributed to the staff's trust in having me conduct this study's session. Hence, I was best qualified to abide by FTP facilitation procedure and to control potential variations. In addition, my extensive history with the school and staff provided additional insight into the participants' conversational interactions. Therefore, I was able to establish typical FTP conditions while gaining a deeper understanding of the perceptions of the facilitator.

As discussed in Chapter 3, I aimed to depersonalize my position in the FTP. The results related to the facilitator came from a combination from each of the seven participants' perceptions about the facilitator and my behavior during the FTP (Table 13).

Table 13

Participant's Perception of the Facilitator

Participants	Quotation associated with facilitator	Code	Theoretical Code (Facet of Trust)
Bruce	"The only issue I have with trust is when we had to share recommendations and the facilitator was not directing."	LACK OF CONTROL	RELIABILITY
Lily	"I think facilitation adds to the formality, which I quite liked… Especially we go on tangents and we lose our way back … but as professional development, this was really handy to, let's think, let's discuss, let's have that person reflect back to us. It really was a different process that I don't think we get anywhere else, professionally."	CONTROL PROFESSIONAL GUIDANCE	RELIABILITY
Barry	"No, I think the facilitator—I think he did a good job to keep the momentum going, and if you interrupt, it is always hard to pick up again. So at that particular moment, it is important to let the discussion go. And addition to that, I did see that, to keep time, the facilitator gave opportunity at the end of the time to but haven't said anything yet. And I think it was good to do it at that stage, it was still the beginning of the discussion, so I think the momentum would be lost."	NON-INTERFERING	OPENNESS
Sally	"I felt that facilitator prompting, I was kind of waiting for that. Just because it's set up in a way that allows every person to speak and have their turn. Maybe it's my background, but there are processes to a conversation, and this isn't a conversation. And so I was very mindful of that, and so I wanted that prompting to ensure equity and people giving feedback, so it does not move in the normal rules of conversation because you give non-verbal cues … It certainly for me in a very positive way, and I knew that the facilitator [you] being there would invite me in. So I knew I didn't have to fight my way with verbal and non-verbal cues."	EXPECTATION	RELIABILITY
Walter	"I guess that anyone would be more or less facilitated would be the same … Even if the administrator was the facilitator, it would be same. To me, if I was administrator, was part of group, so I would not worry … We are all out to help a colleague."	HAVING GOOD INTENTIONS	BENEVOLENCE
Eileen	"Whenever we have group discussions informally, there's always a chance that we don't have the group discussions to speak. It may be they didn't have the time to speak or they didn't have the time to talk over them. So I like the fact that the [facilitator] was keeping track of who hadn't spoken yet and asking others, do you have something to add. I think that was good."	MONITORING EQUITY	RELIABILITY OPENNESS
Bernie	"I do feel like … all of us teachers feel open and sharing things with the [facilitator]."	ALREADY TRUST FACILITATOR	BENEVOLENCE

Perspective about the Facilitator Based on Participant Interviews

The participants related reliability of the facilitator with increasing their trust. This result came from the synthesis of quotations from each participant during the interviews. The participants referred to the facilitator as the one managing the conversation. This control was particularly welcomed by Sally, Lily, and Bruce. For instance, Sally expected the facilitator to direct the conversation, as it was not considered normal conversation. Likewise, Bruce also relied on the facilitator to direct the conversation and found the absence during the discussion

discomforting. Hence, these aspects supported participant trust in the facilitator providing

reliability.

The other common expectations from the participants were openness and benevolence.

Walter and Bernie felt the facilitator acted with good intentions based on their shared history.

On the other hand, Eileen and Barry valued the facilitator as a neutral member of the

discussion who did not interfere with the participants' opinions. In particular, Barry considered

the facilitator's non-intrusive role to be valuable in giving other members a voice.

Fine Tuning Protocol—Conversation Analysis of the Facilitator

The CA of the facilitator's body language also indicates increasing openness towards

participants as the FTP progressed. In particular, the facilitator increased eye contact with the

other participants after discussion (Table 14). Increased eye contact with head nodding affirmed

speakers and invited others to be part of the discussion.

Summary of Facilitator Trust in FTP

The facilitator's behavior also supported reliability, which the participants appreciated.

There was consistency in the facilitator's 14 talk turns (Table 15) in only providing directions

and inviting participants. The facilitator did not offer his own opinion. Such observations mean

that the facilitator adhered to the protocol, which provided predictability to the participants. The

facilitator's eye contact and nodding also affirmed the participants. In other words, the

facilitator increased trust by offering reliability to the process by ensuring that the group

followed the protocols and affirmed group members. Therefore, these final results support the

fifth insight: *The facilitator provided reliability in the FTP structure, which contributed to*

participant trust to the process.

Table 14

Frequency of Facilitator's Non-Verbal Behavior

Fine Tuning Protocol Sections	Behavior	Frequency of Facilitator's Behavior
Presentation	Eye contact to speaker	2
	With nodding to speaker	0
	Writing notes	1
	Non-eye contact to speaker	2
Clarification	Eye contact to speaker	3
	With nodding to speaker	0
	Writing notes	0
	Non-eye contact to speaker	5
Silent Reflection	Eye contact to speaker	0
	With nodding to speaker	0
	Writing notes	2
	Non-eye contact to speaker	3
Discussion	Eye contact to speaker	11
	With nodding to speaker	10
	Writing notes	0
	Non-eye contact to speaker	0
Reflection	Eye contact to speaker	3
	With nodding to speaker	2
	Writing notes	0
	Non-eye contact to speaker	0
Debrief	Eye contact to speaker	8
	With nodding to speaker	5
	Writing notes	0
	Non-eye contact to speaker	0

Table 15

Summary of Conversation Analysis for Facilitator

Summary of Conversation Analysis for Facilitator

	Turn Taking Organization (TTO)	Sequence Organization (SO)		Repair Organization (RO)		Organization Turn Design (OTD)		Total talk turns
	Action to end talk turn	Talk turns affecting next turn		Talk turns to correct conversational error		Talk turns with purpose		
		Frequency	Description	Frequency	Description	Frequency	Description	
Facilitator	verbal indication	4	invites participants	0	-	10	gives direction	14

Chapter Summary

This chapter advanced the five major insights uncovered by this study. These insights were organized according to the three different types of participant roles in an FTP, and these perspectives were related to the research questions. Data from direct transcription of the FTP and individual interviews were collected; these pieces of evidence revealed how trust was developed. Typical of qualitative research, this chapter utilized quotations from each of the participants to establish the different perspectives. These quotations helped the reader gain an accurate understanding of how the participants viewed the FTP experience. The exception was the facilitator's results, which came from the synthesis of other participants' perspectives.

The main finding from this study is that trust occurred in an FTP context. This result came from the consistent pattern among the participants of increased feelings of trust. The second insight substantiated the facets of openness and reliability for building trust among the participants. The data suggest that some participants were inclined to value openness more, while others preferred reliability. The third insight proposed a system for affirming and validating speakers. This mechanism was particularly important during the discussion section of the FTP. During this section, participants had to self-select their talk turn. The insight was that the protocol's structure contributed to helping the presenter be more vulnerable with the group.

This result came from the presenter's description of the FTP event and his self-reflection during

the protocol. Finally, the fifth insight indicated that the facilitator established reliability by

conforming to the protocol. This facet seemed to be most valued by members in the group.

Chapter 6: Discussion

To reiterate, my aim for this study is to gain an understanding of how teachers socially construct trust through talk in a methodical manner. By studying a single FTP session, I observed a sample group of international teachers interact by providing feedback to their colleague. The investigation took place in an international school as part of the teachers' professional development. Over a one-hour period, I acted as the facilitator and conducted the FTP session with seven participants. I recorded the FTP session on video and later transcribed the session using the Gail Jefferson transcription system. In addition, I conducted semi-structured interviews to better understand participants' feelings and thoughts about the FTP session and collegial trust. The transcript was analyzed using CA techniques. After, the interview data were processed through two cycles of coding. The end results produced five insights that respond to the research questions and two themes from the synthesis of the study's data.

The aim of this chapter is to connect these insights on FTP and trust. My main argument is that trust depends on the individual's professional background. The notion of professional identity as the context for conversational trust was suggested by two themes in this chapter: *Trust through Reliability in the FTP Process* and *Trust through Openness as Connected to Teacher Identity.* For each theme section, I explain how the themes were developed. I also connect the literature to these new insights. Finally, I conclude this chapter with a discussion on the limitations of this study's findings and thematic interpretations.

Trust through Reliability in the FTP Process

Theme Development

The first theme, *Reliability in the Process,* originates primarily from a synthesis of the previous chapter's five insights. All five finding insights had one common similarity: they were associated with the FTP process. That is, this study's participants expressed dependency on the protocol's structure, which produced predictability in the conversation. Re-examining the five insights reveals this reliability.

To reiterate, the five insights are as follows:

1. Trust was perceived to have occurred by all participants after participating in the FTP.

2. Conversational behavior was associated with openness and reliability.

3. The participants in an FTP session non-verbally cued others' turns to talk.

4. The presenter became more open as the FTP session progressed.

5. The facilitator provided reliability in the FTP structure, which contributed to participant trust in the process.

From these insights, two thoughts contribute to the notion of the reliability of the FTP process.

First, trust was supported by participating in the FTP process. This is seen in statements 1, 2, and 4. In statement 1, all participants perceived an increase in trust levels after taking part in this FTP session. Such an assertion by seven people indicates that the FTP experience itself built trust. In statement 2, the openness in conversational behavior refers to the participants' willingness to share. Such openness is also indicative of trust. We can thus say that this trust

manifests itself with increased sharing or openness in the conversation. In statement 4, the

presenter further supports that trust occurred by revealing his increased openness as the FTP

progressed. Thus, the findings imply that trust occurs as a result of participating in the FTP

process.

Second, this trust can be attributed to the reliability that the FTP process offers. Such

assertions of reliability can be seen in finding insights 2, 3, and 5. Statements 2 (participants)

and 5 (facilitator) rely on the FTP by following and complying with its structure. Such

adherence creates reliability for the process governing the conversation. In this way, the

facilitator plays an important role in structuring accountability into the conversation. Thus, it

can be argued that the reliability of the FTP (facilitator direction and protocol structure) serves

to increase openness. By complying with the structure of the FTP sequence, participants

conform to increasing contributions (talk turns) in the conversation.

More specifically, the mechanism for this reliability of process comes from open sharing

during the FTP. In statement 3, participants cue other speakers. This action makes the exchange

for taking turns to talk predictable. In other words, even when the facilitator does not control the

conversation, the participants socially construct reliability into their dialogue. Thus, trust

happens because participants comply with the protocol and voluntarily create reliability.

Another piece of evidence supporting the process's reliability concerns participants

complying with the facilitator's directions. When I re-examined the video, I noted that

participants closely followed the protocol's rules of behavior; they were conscientious in taking

turns and following their assigned roles. My thoughts are that this compliance comes from the participants being assured that the process would adhere to the protocol. For instance, as a facilitator, I provided guidance that ensured everyone had a chance to share, and I indicated that I would adhere closely to the protocol. Throughout the FTP, I also provided information on how the section would be conducted, which gave further assurance of the reliability of the process. By not deviating from the FTP, I felt that the participants understood the structure and norms for the session would be honored.

One final evidence supporting the reliability of process comes from the participants' quotes indicating that the protocol gave them a sense of assurance and dependability. Lily, for instance, valued the timed component of the protocol; it assured her that the group would not deviate from the discussion topic:

> "I think it adds to the formality, which I quite liked. It added to a timed amount in the staff room. Especially, we go on tangents, and we lose our way back." (Lily)

Sally relied on the facilitator to direct her turn talk. Her assurance that the facilitator would give her a chance to talk was valuable to her:

> "I wanted that prompting to ensure equity and people giving feedback so it does not move in the normal rules of conversation because you give non-verbal cues. I find that this protocol does change. It certainly for me was very positive, and I knew that the facilitator being there would invite me in".

Walter pointed to the assurance that the protocol could alleviate differences in opinion. Following the FTP, he mentioned,

> "There might be a slight difference in the way we do things. But somehow or other, the mainframe or the structure was there."

Finally, Bernie observed that the process that naturally emerged from the discussion also gave

him assurance. He noted,

> "It came at the discussion in terms of, I think, about the dialogue that we were having, as
> I came back to the circle, I began to see that back and forth dialogue that they were
> having to the dialogue that added to the reliability."

In short, from the participants' own words, reliability was attributed to a sense of assurance that

this protocol provided.

Reliability and FTP Conversation

Linguists have explored the notion that reliability can be built from conversations.

Reliability had been previously connected to the predictability of speakers using language. In

his book *Reliability in Pragmatics*, McCready (2015) explains that the behaviors of speakers are

predictable based on one's willingness to be cooperative in furthering the conversation. He

describes such cooperative behaviors as actions showing truthfulness, informativeness,

relevancy, and clarity (McCready, 2015). The linguistic devices used by speakers to signal their

listeners towards such cooperative behaviors provide this reliability, which is needed to engage

others in the conversation. For instance, McCready describes the concept of hedging, or

lessening definitive language word choices, to strengthen truthfulness. Sert and Seedhouse

(2011) have also suggested that language could provide reliability. In their study of language

learners, they have found that speakers depend on spoken patterns they have made routine

through repeated participation in other contexts. In short, the language spoken provides cues to

speakers that clarify the direction of the conversation.

However, the facilitator is a critical difference in this study. Because reliability

depended on a single person, the facilitator added a different component to the existing

linguistic literature on reliability. That is, most linguistic research has concerned the study of natural talk. In such everyday conversations, speakers must provide sufficient language context and cues to direct the listener to join in. In contrast, the FTP conversation did not have such demands for its speakers in navigating their talk; rather, this navigation was done by the facilitator, and the concept of conversational reliability by an outsider was not well investigated. Thus, I felt my research begins a discussion into how the facilitator can potentially add reliability to group talk.

In addition to the facilitator's role, reliability may be embedded in the FTP design. Since not all researchers think alike, some may challenge my claim that reliability can be designed into an FTP conversation. For instance, Little and Curry (2008) have asserted that the protocol structure is not important to the flow of professional conversation. Instead, they view group members as having established prior goals to be more critical for effective professional outcomes (Little & Curry, 2008). Nonetheless, I challenge Little and Curry's (2008) stance regarding this lack of importance; I believe that the FTP design supports a gradual increase of vulnerability by constraining the talk turns of participants. Further, the literature review provides insufficient evidence to challenge the assertion that the gradual incorporation of participant voices in the FTP design increases vulnerability. I contend that there is value in designing reliability into the FTP, and this reliability design recommendation is further discussed in the next chapter.

Conversational Mechanism for Reliability

Understanding the mechanism of conversational reliability is relevant to an international school community; such schools lack stability due to their transient faculty and student

population (Chandler, 2010; Hayden & Thompson, 2011). Such instability has been attributed

to a deficit of institutionalization in the culture of international schools (Bunnell & Fertig,

2016). That is, an ever-changing staff creates a setting that is not conducive to long-term

planning or institutionalizing school rituals. In addition, transient leadership, a condition

prevalent in international schools, has been detrimental to decision-making and building staff

confidence in the follow-through of school initiatives (Romero & Mitchell, 2018). This

uncertainty in the organizational environment creates mistrust (Mishra, 1996). Hence

understanding how reliability can be strengthened in professional talk is meaningful to an

international staff.

Such conversational mechanism can build clarity in communication. As this case study

reveals, clarity results when facilitators provide specific directions and establish goals for each

activity. Supporting this clarity in conversation, Boschman, McKenney, Pieters, and Voogt

(2016) have found that the use of explicit goal setting and precise explanations supports PLC

effectiveness. This form of communication minimizes uncertainty and unreliability. Lencioni

(2012) has best described this communication style for leaders as "creating so much clarity that

there is as little room as possible for confusion, disorder, and infighting to set in" (p. 73). We

can conclude that it is important that the facilitator brings clarity to expectations to establish

reliability.

From the perspective of the participants, relinquishing their conversational control to the

facilitator was also a conversational mechanism that supported reliability. Unlike everyday

conversations, in which speakers manage their turns to talk (Have, 2007; Sacks, 1995; Sidnell &

Stivers, 2013), FTP participants give up this privilege. Normally, under other circumstances, handing over control or power places teachers in a position of vulnerability; that is, their weaknesses could be more exposed to others when someone else has control of the conversation (Kelchtermans, 1996). Such weaknesses can result in feelings of powerlessness or inefficacy, which would destroy trust (Kelchtermans, 1996). However, this study contradicts these expected feelings associated with relinquishing control. Instead, giving one's control in a conversation to the facilitator supported trust. I posit that participants must give up conversational control in order to gain a sense of predictability and reliability in a professional conversation.

In short, the mechanism of creating reliability in a FTP consists of minimizing confusion and directing the group towards appropriate learning behaviors. In contrast to FTP conversations, normal conversations require listeners to constantly evaluate the next possible actions of a speaker (Antaki, 2011; Heritage, 2009). In a group discussion, such work requires individuals to interpret prior speakers' actions to predict the flow of the talk (Antaki, 2011; Cockburn, 2014). Thus, talk can be likened to a contract made between speaker and listener. Such everyday conversations create difficulty in maintaining this "contract." After all, individuals continuously try to correctly interpret and construct meaning in an evolving conversation (Sert & Seedhouse, 2011). In this study, the facilitator acted as a negotiator of these conversational barriers. Having determined the norms of the conversation, the facilitator could steer through difficulties by referring back to the agreed-upon expectations. Facilitating reliability in conversation thus means guiding the participants to construct meaning in their talk and redirecting them away from confusion.

Aside from reliability, not all of the other trust facets are applicable to discerning a mechanism to build conversational trust. Tschannen-Moran (2014) has considered the facets of trust a necessity for building long-term relationships among faculty members: "Each of the five facets of trust contributes to teachers' trust in one another ... as long as teachers are not dependent on the teaching competence of their colleagues" (Tschannen-Moran, 2014, p. 140). Interestingly, Tschannen-Moran (2014) has found that benevolence, and not reliability, is the most mentioned facet by teachers towards their colleagues. To reconcile this difference, a possibility suggested by Romero and Mitchell (2018) is that all facets must be present but in varied proportions. That is, under different circumstances, a particular facet might be more relevant than the others, even though all dimensions of trust are present.

Trust through Openness as Connected to Teacher Identity

Theme Development

The theme of teacher identity was developed through analytical coding. Using second cycle coding (Saldana, 2009), I discovered that participants exhibited a range in their willingness to being open. The general categories yielded during this coding stage were motivation, feedback, vulnerability, and flexibility. By analytically grouping the participants within these general categories, two subcategories were created, and a pattern emerged. Walter and Sally's perceptions of collegial critique point to professional obligations, superficial feedback, a sense of personal vulnerability, and accountability. On the other hand, Barry, Bernie, and Lily's perceptions of collegial critique indicate good intentions, meaningful feedback, a sense of professional identity, and adaptability. Eileen and Bruce remained neutral

in that they exhibited characteristics from both sets. Bruce was more inclined towards the first

group, while Eileen was closer to the latter. These groupings lead me to conclude that a

continuum exists in how willing teachers are to share with their colleagues, and it ranges from

being completely closed to fully open. In the following section, I elaborate on how this

continuum of openness relates to teacher identity.

Teacher Identity as a Continuum

An individual's adaptability relates to his or her openness in the context of FTP

conversations. That is, Barry, Bernie, and Lily can be considered as experiencing growth and

having an adaptable mindset (Dweck, 2006). They were more open to sharing during the FTP

conversation. Studies have recognized that a malleable way of thinking improves one's empathy

(Schumann, Zaki, Dweck, Simpson, & Kawakami, 2014) and problem-solving skills (Ehrlinger,

Mitchum, & Dweck, 2016). At the other end of this continuum, Walter and Sally valued

professional obligation, superficial feedback, and personal vulnerability. They were less

inclined to be open and waited on the facilitator to direct their sharing. Eileen and Bruce

appeared to be in the middle of this continuum. I saw a relationship between these two

continuums: from closed to openness in sharing and from fixed to adaptable mindset. A teacher

closed in sharing was most likely fixed in their mindset thereby unwilling to accept or

contribute to new ideas. In contrast, adaptable teachers had the mindset of learning new things.

Hence they would be more willing to hear new ideas and share to others their own ideas.

This continuum of a fixed to adaptable mindset is comparable to a continuum related to

teacher identity. Clark and Flores (2014) have defined teacher identity as "informed by the

choices that teachers make in how they respond to the lives in those they are teaching and the

contexts in which they practice" (p.23). Teacher identity can be shaped by past career events and experiences (Kelchtermans, 1996), personal life stories (Flores & Day, 2006), and cultural backgrounds (Tran & Nguyen, 2014). However, regardless of these factors, Clark and Flores (2014) have posited that all teachers undergo similar transformation stages in establishing their identity. There were four stages in Clark and Flores' (2014) model: lack of awareness and needs of contact; searching for identity and exploring socio-cultural aspects; knowledge, defining, creative and salience; and self-realization, acceptance, empowerment and revitalization. One can compare these teacher identity stages to the continuum I establish with teachers at various stages of adaptability and openness.

Clark and Flores's (2014) teacher identity stages can account for differences in teachers' vulnerability. In the early stages of their model, teachers formed their own identity, and they had a narrow perspective on teaching. At this stage, these teachers were most vulnerable to challenges to their sense of self as professionals. Thus, it is logical that such teachers would be the least open to sharing. In contrast, teachers with well-established identities are less vulnerable to collegial critique. They have wider perspective of experiences and have more flexibility in incorporating these experiences into their identity. Therefore, teachers at the later stages of Clark and Flores's (2014) teacher identity model are more open to collegial feedback.

This FTP case study substantiates Clark and Flores's (2014) model and teacher openness. I will elaborate with examples from this case study. Sally, for instance, lacked awareness of other teachers' perspectives when describing collegial trust. She reported that she valued consistency when marking exams and claimed, "as an examiner, the worst thing you can

have is someone who is inconsistent." This statement shows that Sally has a narrow perspective on marking exams based on her previous work as an external examiner. Her sense of self and others matches Clark and Flores's (2014) model of the earlier stages in teacher identity. As predicted, Sally was also less open (fewer talk turns and eye contact with others) during the FTP conversation. On the other hand, Lily is an example of a participant who was self-aware as a teacher. Her openness and eagerness to share during the FTP conversation substantiate that she has a strong sense of self and is willing to make herself vulnerable. The evidence indicates that teacher identity is a factor in openness in conversation.

Second-Career Teacher Identity and Trust Facet Openness

Related to this discussion on teacher identity, one interesting discovery resulted from participants who identified themselves as second-career teachers. Second-career teachers are a distinct group of individuals whose previous professional identities concern non-teaching careers (Nielsen, 2016). This study's second-career teachers were Lily and Barry, who both worked in the business field prior to joining AIA. During the interviews, these participants expressed more willingness to be vulnerable concerning feedback from their colleagues. For instance, Barry expressed his feelings about peer critique: "I think in general my colleagues are very open to give me feedback. I think it is a very good environment to get feedback." Likewise, even when critiquing others, Lily remarked, "I would like to hear what they got out of it. If there was anything beneficial. Saying that, I actually do like feedback myself. And I think I see myself as a learner still." This openness and confidence regarding feedback is usually associated with teachers who have many years of teaching experience and have undergone a transformation in their identity (Clark & Flores, 2014). Interestingly, Barry is a first-year teacher, and Lily has less than four years of teaching. The findings imply that second-career

teachers have a more mature professional identity, similar to the later stages of Clark and Flores's (2014) teacher identity model. Therefore, although second-career teachers are new to the teaching profession, their professional identity is more established, and they are more open to challenges and conflict.

The literature supports the conclusion that second-career teachers are more open then beginning teachers, thereby validating the behaviors of Barry and Lily. Such teachers are more aware of the broader professional perspectives in teaching (Nielsen, 2016) as they have more life experience (Marlies & Wil, 2016). As such, they are more direct in communication and tend to challenge other perspectives or share their own experiences (Nielsen, 2016), which suggests greater transparency and openness (Tschannen-Moran, 2014) and the latter stages of Clark and Flores's (2014) model for teacher identity towards empowerment and transformation. This evidence from other studies agrees with the observations from this FTP session. Despite having more years of teaching experience, Sally and Walter were less open with sharing compared to Lily and Barry. Marlies and Wil (2016) have noted that second-career teachers are application-orientated and want to apply their knowledge in the workplace. This desire to understand the real-world applications of teaching is consistent to Barry's and Lily's behaviors. They were open to learning from others and unafraid to challenge their colleagues' perspectives. As a result, the identity of second-career teachers is a factor to the construction of openness in conversation. Therefore, the second-career teacher identity affects the group's trust.

International School Teacher Identity and Trust Facet Openness

Equally relevant to this discussion on teacher identity is the concept of international teacher identity. Much literature alludes to distinct aspects of international school teachers that differ from their domestic counterparts. Tran and Nguyen (2014) have indicated that international teachers re-negotiate their identities by making appropriate shifts and changes in response to their international students and institutional needs. Such a re-invention of teacher identity by international educators includes a shift towards a more pastoral role and support for international students (Tran & Nguyen, 2014); emotional investment with greater demands from international stakeholders (Sunder, 2013); and being critical of their own beliefs, attitudes, and practices as a result of cross-cultural experiences (Alfaro & Quezada, 2010). Some participants reveal difficulties they faced when first join AIA: teaching young international students (Eileen); developing curricula foreign to personal schooling background (Barry); and assessing students whose practices differ from home country system (Sally). In other words, the unique international context poses challenges to new and experienced teachers' previous knowledge and skills. Hence, even this study, international teachers vary in their challenges to their teacher identity.

Such a re-evaluation of teacher identity led this study's participants to self-reflect. Bruce, who has over 10 years of teaching experience, commented, "when you change schools, you are obviously walking into a different learning culture." Similarly, Walter realized that, even as a long-term member of AIA, technology has been a catalyst for re-evaluating his professional identity. He remarked, "especially technology, I find myself less equipped than what I have been brought up. And there is a new direction at AIA for IT, and this is the time that I need to embrace such change." Additionally, the other participants, Eileen, Sally, Barry,

and Bernie, reported their review with colleagues when challenged by AIA school culture. This study's findings indirectly support the conclusion international teachers experience a reassessment of their professional identity.

In summary, given the challenges faced by international teachers in a culturally new environment, I propose that international teacher identity does matter to trust in an FTP conversation. Regardless of background, international teachers are situated in an environment that requires re-examination of their teaching identity, and this re-examination affects their ability to be vulnerable with other faculty members. Such vulnerability is similar to teachers in the early stages of Clark and Flores's (2014) model for teacher identity transformation, or to a fixed mindset. With this in mind, international teachers need to transcend their own personal biases and prejudices among their diverse colleagues. In addition, this struggle to reconcile their professional identity is important, and this challenge is a factor of trust. Thus, the phenomenon of trust in FTP conversations can be explained by the degree to which international teachers feel secure in their own professional identities. As suggested earlier, second-career international school teachers appear to have established stability in their identity and are therefore more likely to be open and trusting. Thus, in addition to the perception of reliability in conversation, vulnerability in the form of willingness to share can be an outcome for international teachers' resolution of a professional identity.

Limitations to Interpretation of the Results

There are limitations to this study's interpretations due to its methodological approach. In this section, I describe the general CA perspective on examining a phenomenon objectively, followed by the limitations due to subjectivity and generalizations.

Generally, CA methodology attempts to examine socially constructed talk in an unbiased method (Heritage, 2009). Hence, CA begins with transcribing the conversation and its nuances at face value and then making determinations based solely on conversational features. Only after these features have been determined does the researcher seek meaning from sociological theories such as gender, class, ethnicity, or psychological dispositions to explain the content of the conversation (Heritage, 2009). Understanding interactional talk structure has been used in numerous conversational studies with teachers, such as design conversations of teacher training (Boschman et al., 2016), teacher talk with second-language learners of English (Sert & Seedhouse, 2011), and post-observation conferences with teachers (Waring, 2017). Based on the structure unearthed, these studies provide a theory to explain the observations. For instance, Waring (2017) used CA to conclude that the mentor-teacher evaluation conversation follows a structure of problem identification and solution planning. Waring (2017) then theorized the concept of depersonalization for problem identification and invoking principles as a means to suggest solutions. In a similar manner, I employed CA methods first to understand the underlying structure of the conversation and then related it to the conceptual framework of trust. Nevertheless, such an approach poses inherent limitations to interpreting conversation data.

Using CA methodology involves a level of subjectivity that originates in the researcher, in this case, me. The transcription process alone consists of practical compromise by the researcher (Have, 1990). My informal understandings and interests about the participants' talk and utterances could predispose certain hearings during the conversation. Another area of

subjectivity arises from the selection of talk fragments deemed critical to the phenomena (Have, 1990). In this sense, the chosen examination of interesting talk could come from preconceived notions of expected participant reactions. However, I have tried to make sense of observed talk phenomena using common sense or the generally expected norm for the situation. Perhaps this subjectivity has been balanced by comparing multiple similar instances, as evidenced by more than one participant (Have, 1990). Nevertheless, such subjectivity in CA methods should be taken into consideration.

Causal inferences generally cannot be drawn from case study research. Even though case studies allow for the study of complex social interactions such as trust, this study involved the perspectives of seven international teachers from a single school. Their responses may or may not represent international teachers at other schools. Rather, these findings may suggest considerations for other protocol-driven PLC teams in other international schools. However, quantitative methodology is needed to explore the findings' generalizability.

Chapter Summary

This chapter described how trust was supported by international teachers in a protocol-driven conversation. In summary, the prior discussion explained that the complexity of trust was affected by multiple factors associated with reliability, vulnerability, and teacher identity. The discussion revealed that reliability was central to teachers' trust when seeking collegial feedback. It offered the explanation that such reliability was offered by the structure of the protocol and the guidance of the facilitator. Vulnerability was associated with teacher trust and was seen in participants' openness and transparency, which were demonstrated in their conversational behavior. Such vulnerability was indirectly connected to the teacher's

professional identity. The literature thus suggests that teachers who are more established in their

professional identity are more open to new ideas and perspectives.

A word of caution should be considered when interpreting the analysis of the data. First,

this was a single case study with a unit of analysis of a single conversation. The reader is

cautioned against generalizing the findings. Second, the abstractness of the trust measurement

mean that this study relied on participants to express the truth. Because trust is personal, it is not

appropriate to compare degrees or levels of trust between participants. Finally, facilitated

conversations lend themselves well to the reliability aspect of trust. To a lesser extent,

conversational behaviors can be extended to openness. However, such findings would not

necessarily negate the other aspects of trust (competency, benevolence, and honesty).

Furthermore, I acknowledged that additional bias could have arisen from the nature of

CA methodology. Throughout the CA process, researcher bias could have arisen from the

determination of conversational patterns, identifying instances that exemplified the FTP trust

phenomena, and their explanation. In addition, I recognized that my own participation in the

FTP session shaped my analysis of the data. The reader should remain open to other

possibilities of interpreting these phenomena.

Chapter 7: Conclusion

This single case study intended to determine how international school teachers could encourage trust by using the FTP to provide their colleagues with feedback. The research questions directed this exploration and were organized by the participants' different roles. After collecting the data to answer the research questions, five insights were determined, and these conclusions also led me to two thematic findings gleaned from this study.

In this final chapter, I discuss the implications of these themes as related to the research questions from the three roles of participants: discussants, presenter, and facilitator. These themes are generalized to the broader educational context based on this study's main themes. I then conclude the chapter with recommendations on what these generalizations mean to international schools, administrators, and future research.

The Discussants Trusted the FTP Process

Trust was built by the discussants' reliance on the process of using the protocol. This idea emerged from my findings that all participants benefited from the facet of reliability. When participants knew how the conversation would unfold, the FTP offered them a sense of certainty. In other words, the facilitating process of the FTP was associated with Tschannen-Moran's (2014) facet of reliability. Aspects of reliability also came from the predictability found in the structured sequence, the expected content for discussion, and the actions that participant roles required during the interaction. In addition, the process offered conversational predictability by having explicit instructions for speakers' and listeners' actions beforehand. Such practice is unusual in everyday conversations; however, when participants knew what would occur next, they could concentrate on their messaging or critique. In this way, adhering

to the process offered more meaningful conversations, which made the collaboration more effective. In this sense, successful collaboration fosters more genuine conversations and thereby builds collegial trust. Participants thus encourage trust with each other by knowing that they can depend on the process of the FTP.

Our theoretical knowledge about trust has been extended by this insight on the trust facet of reliability from this study's protocol-driven process. Not all facets should be regarded as having equal weight in the context of a facilitated conversation. Instead, this FTP case study has shown that reliability alone can unite teachers of diverse backgrounds in displaying trust. One might argue that such trust was artificially created by the imposed structures of the protocol. However, I contend that what was created in one session will only become more natural if this group continually conducts FTP meetings. I have gained a new appreciation for the reliability facet of creating trust through all participants' adherence to the protocol. That is, the trust facet of reliability relates to the collective group.

The Presenter's Trust in Being Vulnerable was Related to Teacher Identity

On the other hand, the trust facet of openness was related to the presenter's past experiences and professional identity. Openness concerns an individual's ability to be comfortable with being vulnerable and sharing difficulties with others. This willingness to be open differed among individuals. For instance, the presenter related to his early teaching experiences and discovered his own willingness to be vulnerable with a more experienced teacher:

> Let's go back to my first year of teaching. I was teaching general science, and I think my biology was really crappy, and I think it still is. Though I think I have made some improvements since then. I was supposed to do an experiment with some students, and I

don't think I did enough work to understanding what the learning the outcomes was. Besides, the technicians knew things went wrong, and they went to speak to Head of Biology. He said, "Did you know what you were doing? If you don't understand something, you can speak with the other teachers. You can speak to the Biology teacher, he is a nice guy." He didn't say more than that. And I knew that I had did something wrong, and it was obvious very early in my teaching career. And the next time that there was a biology practical, they had the students had to do, I did understand what the topic was. That feedback, that advice, I was very glad to have. (Bernie)

In contrast, Walter shared an instance of a distrustful teacher that led to him to feel more guarded about how he conducted himself.

> During a department meeting, we were sharing ideas. Somehow or another, after the meeting, things got distorted about what I said. Some of it was malicious and not true, finger pointing. I was a little bit frustrated. I guess being a professional, we need to bring our professionalism into our work. I find that I couldn't trust this person because this person was not professional. So I was a little bit frustrated in the sense that I could not do much. I felt that I was not in the position to do any more. So I kept quiet.

Therefore, if Walter were the presenter, he would be less open to sharing his weaknesses.

These stories illustrate that individual events matter for teachers' vulnerability; such teaching experiences shape the individual's self-perception or professional identity.

Challenges can strengthen teachers' professional growth and identity, which is transformed through a constant evaluation of the teachers' authentic self with the work they have done (Palmer 2010). In the international school setting, teachers constantly face new teaching practices and different viewpoints that challenge their former schema about teaching (Tran & Nguyen, 2014). Regular participation in protocol-driven PLCs would offer these international teachers growth in professional identity through self-reflection on their teaching practices.

In addition, a mature teacher identity can help teachers be more trustworthy of their colleagues. This maturation comes from self-beliefs towards self-empowerment and security in one's teaching (Clark & Flores, 2014), and such changes in belief systems include an acceptance of other viewpoints (Clark & Flores, 2014). Being impartial to other perspectives helps teachers become more vulnerable to each other's criticism; therefore, developing teachers' professional identity develops their personal character, making it more transparent and authentic with their colleagues. Because transparency relates to the trust facet of openness, teachers with a mature sense of their professional identity are perceived as trustworthy.

I conclude that teachers with a secure sense of their professional identity are best suited to present their teaching practices to their colleagues in an FTP setting. These teachers already have a strong sense of security in their teaching, and such sharing can model affirming vulnerability to other FTP participants. These FTP presenters would also be able to incorporate multiple teachers' perspectives into their own understanding. In other words, they could demonstrate how they interpret the given feedback in a new context. Having such teachers with a growth mindset present their dilemmas to an FTP group would model openness and thereby strengthen trust in a PLC team.

The Facilitator Must Balance Reliability with Openness to Support Trust

Having ascertained that FTP conversations manifest trust through reliability associated with protocol structure and openness associated with the teacher mindset, I posit that facilitators must find balance in providing and relaxing control during the conversation. Since international teachers have both fixed and growth-oriented mindsets, individuals vary in their need for conversations to be controlled. The authority to direct and steer the conversation rests with the

facilitator. As the third finding insight demonstrates, participants view the facilitator as the leader of directing the conversation. Furthermore, participants are willing to relinquish their autonomy concerning when to talk and when to refrain from speaking. The control granted to the facilitator means that the FTP conversation can potentially be designed to increase reliability and openness in the conversation.

One design component of the FTP is the timing of the protocol sections; more time allotted for teachers to talk encourages increased sharing and openness; vice versa, less time allotted for teacher talk shifts the control to the facilitator. In this sense, facilitation would give the appearance of greater structure in the conversation since the conversational flow would shift more quickly from one activity to the next. I propose that, when allotting times for each FTP section, the facilitator should consider the participants' mindsets. That is, if a group has many teachers who are mature in their professional identity and adaptable in mindset, the facilitator might consider lengthening the open discussion time. In a similar fashion, an FTP group with many fixed-mindset teachers would benefit from less time allotted to sharing and more structure in the process. Likewise, the facilitator should be flexible with timing during the FTP conversation. When conducting the FTP in real-time, the facilitator should increase or decrease the length of the sections depending on the participants' willingness to share. Regardless of whether the results are planned or unplanned, adjusting FTP sections' timing would acknowledge the teachers' needs.

Another FTP consideration is designing strategies or activities that support reliability and openness within the conversation. Being intentional about informing participants about the

FTP procedure contributes to the conversation's reliability. One way is to have an agenda readily visible to all participants throughout the FTP talk. Another strategy is to determine beforehand the ways participants will take turns talking. This approach would build on the reliability of the process during open conversation. At the same time, the facilitator should be mindful about supporting openness in the conversation. One way to do this is to give more control to teachers in deciding when to share and when to remain silent. For instance, during this study's FTP debriefing section, Lily suggested a strategy she learned from an off-campus professional development workshop:

> "Well, to counter fighting for speaking time, they [workshop organizers] had popsicle sticks that were colored and given two or three or whatever it was. And then when you've said your thing, you put in the middle. So that way, you can try to see who hasn't spoken. Just so that if you want people to have that opportunity, but it also encourages everyone to share." (Lily)

Simple changes in the protocol design could contribute to balancing reliability with openness during the conversation, and purposeful design of the speaking activities can strengthen trust.

To summarize, this study concluded that trust develops when participants can rely on the process of the facilitated, professional conversation; this reliability comes from the predictability of the conversation. Nevertheless, this predictability was also restricted by individuals' differences in levels of vulnerability and willingness to share. That is, teachers differed in their need for structure and reliability in a conversation. Subsequently, these variations in openness to providing feedback made the FTP conversation unpredictable. As a result, the facilitator plays a critical role in ensuring the division between beliefs and sharing. Thus, the insight from this study suggests designing the protocol-driven PLC experience to

provide a sense of reliability to the discussion process and also offer openness to different levels

of sharing.

Implications

Based on the need to incorporate reliability and openness in the protocol-driven PLC

experience, I make the following recommendations, which result from my understanding of

international schools and the implications of developing reliability and openness facets in the

school's PLCs. Practical implications are discussed for international school administrators and

teachers. Additionally, considerations for future research in trust with PLCs are also examined.

Implications for International School Administrators

For international school administrators, building a culture of trust is valuable. As I have

previously discussed, staff collaboration in a learning environment is important, and

administrators should develop or maintain PLCs to foster a positive, collaborative school

culture. Furthermore, because administrators control the operation of PLCs at a macro-level

(Dufour & Earkert, 1998; Hord, 1997), they can incorporate structure and reliability into their

staff's collaboration, which would further support trust. At the same time, international leaders

need to be cognizant of international teachers' differences. Leaders should thus create

appropriate experiences to match the different levels of teacher vulnerabilities. For this reason, I

have focused my recommendations for international school administrators on how protocol-

driven PLCs support a culture of trust.

Using protocol-driven conversations as part of teacher induction can strengthen trust with a transient faculty (Chandler, 2010; Hayden & Thompson, 2011). As mentioned above, protocol design, time allocation, and participant activity can be adjusted for diverse teaching backgrounds. Having such facilitated conversations with new teachers introduces them to their professional work and a collaboration format encouraged by the school. Furthermore, administrators should regularly review the progress of new staff and how future protocols can be designed to meet their changing professional identities. In this way, adapting future protocols to the levels of faculty vulnerability builds a culture of trust.

Established organization systems and expectations should be considered as starting points for building a school's trust culture; priorities for establishing systems are needed in international schools. First, many international schools have a deficit of institutional systems (Bunnell & Fertig, 2016), and determining such systems would nurture the school's stability. Secondly, this study found that all participants benefit from the facet of reliability offered in an FTP. Thus, establishing expectations to build institutional systems that provide a sense of reliability for teachers is beneficial for international schools.

Furthermore, administrators can support this reliability in their school culture by establishing clear expectations in their protocol-driven PLCs. One exception is to clarify how PLC members conduct their meetings, such as determining agendas beforehand with clear goals and establishing procedures, times, roles, and behavioral norms. PLC members should make themselves accountable for these expectations. Likewise, administrators should recognize these expectations as starting points. As PLC groups organically grow in trust, they should be

encouraged to form their own expectations and norms. In other words, administrators should

view establishing their school's PLC structure as a catalyst for growing a culture of trust within

teacher teams.

In contrast to viewing teachers as part of a PLC group, administrators should also

support teachers as individuals pursuing professional growth; they should recognize that

international teachers vary in professional identity and in their willingness to share with their

colleagues. Therefore, school leaders should become well acquainted with their faculty

members as individuals and consider ways to support the growth mindset of all educators.

Understanding teachers as individuals also promotes professional capacity (Hargreaves &

Fullan, 2012), and nurturing individuals who are mature in their teaching profession benefits the

school in the long term. In particular, these individuals should be encouraged to grow as

facilitators of PLC groups. Through regular encouragement and opportunities, individuals can

be cultivated in the environment of the international school system.

Implications for International School Teachers

For international teachers, building trust with colleagues can be challenging. However,

the insights gained from this study allude to ways in which a teacher can lessen mistrust during

a professional conversation. In this section, I make several suggestions concerning how teachers

can encourage trust with each other at a conversational level based on the findings of this study.

To begin, international teachers should know themselves as professionals. As previously

stated, this professional identity is connected to teachers' willingness to share their workplace

vulnerabilities. Therefore, the more one understands him or herself as a teacher, the more

authentic he or she can be with revealing teaching practices (Palmer, 2010). Such authenticity can be developed through ongoing self-reflections about one's practice. Teachers should also find opportunities to share their reflections with others they trust. In so doing, they would develop an openness to other viewpoints of their professional mental schema.

When engaging in professional conversations, teachers should seek understanding and clarity when confused. The structure of the FTP demonstrates that conversations can be deconstructed into questioning and clarifying to overcome miscommunication. Due to international teachers' diverse backgrounds, misunderstandings during conversation can easily occur. Therefore, teachers benefit from addressing their assumptions by asking questions in order to clarify their understanding. Similarly, the FTP promotes occasions in which participants listen to other speakers. In the same way, teachers also benefit from careful listening to their colleagues during professional conversations and withholding judgement.

Implications for Future Research

For future studies on conversational trust, researchers should consider extending this study to other settings. Because this study is an initial exploration of conversational trust in a single setting, replication of its results in other contexts is of interest. The theoretical knowledge gained suggests that the facets of reliability and openness are closely related to the context of the FTP. However, I wonder whether this new theoretical understanding of trust could be more widespread. I thus make the following recommendations on how this research can be conducted to consider other factors.

First, reproducing this methodology in other international school settings will help us understand the extent to which trust with protocol-driven conversations can be generalized. I suggest that a similar method be used to study other international school sites; that is, researchers should investigate using CA and interview coding to determine manifestations of trust. Since different research sites offer many variables (teachers, topic of FTP, school culture), reproducing this study will offer new knowledge of a similar construct of conversational trust. For instance, it may reveal to what extent the facets of reliability and openness manifest in a different school. In fact, even studying trust in another international school from Hong Kong can also provide new insights, given that each international schools is unique. Hence the replication of this study is valuable.

Another component worthy of deeper study is the connection between professional identity and international teachers' openness during professional conversations. For example, when replicating this study, researchers should consider investigating teachers' backgrounds and mindsets as they relate to their conversational behavior during discussion. Such studies can draw from data about each international teachers' background and by observing their actions during the protocol-driven conversations. Other evidence that connects professional identity with vulnerability would support the findings of my study.

Finally, a consideration in developing a way to measure trust in conversation would be worthwhile. This suggestion may seem daunting, but the analytical work initiated in this study offers a basis for other researchers. That is, in my methodology, I have begun coding reliability based on conversational behaviors, such as talk turns and nonverbal cues. I wonder whether this

notion can be extended to include conversations in other circumstances. The idea that a conversation can provide insight into participants' trust levels has beneficial applications. For instance, recognizing talk sections when trust was increased or decreased could help PLC groups improve their collaborative communication. Although a metric for conversational trust would be valuable, I recognize that this area is the least developed in our understanding of professional talk.

Researcher's Final Reflections

In the beginning, I believed that competent teachers were key to student learning effectiveness. From my past experience, international teachers are instrumental to affecting learning since they have significant autonomy in their classrooms. Even though international school leaders are responsible for guiding the school, ultimately, teachers interact directly with students. However, teacher competency and care are not the only factors; rather, I have come to believe that teachers who trust each other are important to international schools.

Several critical incidents related to teacher trust led me to draw conclusions on its powerful influence on students. I once experienced a situation in which high staff turnover and poor induction for new members caused a mistrustful environment among returning and new staff. School operations were hindered by the faculty not trusting each other and their inability to complete tasks, resulting in poor staff morale. As a result, the students' learning program was hindered because teachers were not devoted to teaching. In another instance, I remember staff mistrust with a new leader.

Such mistrust led to hindrances in implementing a new leader's vision and the student learning program. In fact, this situation made some teachers purposefully undermine the leader's goals. When teachers mistrust the faculty and leadership, a destructive effect results for the organization and eventually affects students negatively, as well.

Initially, I assumed that teachers' trust was transactional. In other words, I thought that trust was similar to money that could be stored in an individual's bank account. When many teachers build trust or deposit into this bank account, a school is positioned to have greater trust as a whole. Similarly, when many teachers break down trust, they withdraw from their bank accounts, creating a deficit of school trust.

However, since recognizing in this study that trust relates to professional identity, I have changed my metaphor to a personal journey. Brown (2017) provides a simile of trust as a self-discovery journey in the wilderness, comparing this process to finding the authentic self in the unknown. Such authenticity comes from discovering how one can be part of greater group and still stand alone in the wilderness. Only by finding one's authentic self can an individual gain strength through being vulnerable with others and thereby trust them. Much like traveling, the journey requires charting a course, navigating unexplored territory, and responding appropriately to new challenges in the wild. Indeed, such a journey has been relevant to my personal growth in trust.

Charting the course required me to understand my boundaries in term of vulnerability. Knowing my boundaries to working with others was like finding a road on a map: these

boundaries involved discovering my authentic self when working with others. Additionally, much like a map showing safe and hazardous places, these boundaries delineated my areas for helpful and destructive interactions. For instance, I learned in my career that it was helpful for me to set and maintain respectful interactions. At the same time, I learned to set aside my need to be liked by others and the fear of disappointing others. By determining my boundaries, I have increased my vulnerability, which has given me confidence to trust myself first.

Another aspect of this journey concerned navigating unexplored territory to practice my authentic self. After knowing what my boundaries were, I needed put my authentic self into practice. Such practice involved not over-committing or over-promising in order to protect and maintain my authentic self. These actions helped me maintain safety in my vulnerability when navigating an unexplored environment, such as the changing international school context. Being consistent with myself in my actions was important to growing in my professional identity and thus trust with others. In this way, my consistent and reliable actions towards my authentic self-built my professional identity, and these actions reinforced my ability to trust.

Finally, as in the wilderness, the international school system holds many new challenges that call for an appropriate response. I have learned that these challenges are beneficial, and they have helped shaped my professional identity. There were occasions in my career that challenged me to step up and to take risks. On other occasions, I have learned to apologize meaningfully and let go of blame for others. Whether with my colleagues or my students, how I respond to circumstances must align with my personal integrity. The more I remained authentic, the braver I was towards being vulnerable; at the same time, I also strengthened my trust in others. In

short, my journey has been as much self-discovery as it has been building trust; trusting others

began with trusting myself.

> Clifton (2012) describes the power of CA as
>
> "fine-grained analyses of doing trust that reveal the 'seen but unnoticed' discursive
> resources by which trust is enacted and answer criticisms that academic research is
> distant from the practitioner" (p.129).

When I began this journey to discover trust, I did not expect to be surprised by studying a single

conversation. However, this close examination has revealed action that indeed makes the

academic research of trust less distant. This journey has helped me realize that the theory of

trust is as tangible as a conversation. By grounding trust in an actual conversation, all school

stakeholders have access to and can impact the phenomenon of building trust. Indeed, trust has

such wide implications, regardless of international or domestic schools, that I appreciated the

significance of carrying out this study. In short, this research's "fine-grained" analysis of

conversational trust added not only to the body of literature on trust in education but also

created hope that trust can be manifested in today's international schools.

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Appendix A: Sample Participant Consent Form

THE EDUCATION UNIVERSITY OF HONG KONG
Curriculum and Instruction

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Trust in teacher conversations: A case study of a Fine Tuning Protocol session in an international school

I ███████████ hereby consent to participate in the captioned research supervised by Professor Cher Ping Lim and conducted by Mr. Marlon Ng.

I understand that information obtained from this research may be used in future research and may be published. However, my right to privacy will be retained, i.e., my personal details will not be revealed.

The procedure as set out in the **attached** information sheet has been fully explained. I understand the benefits and risks involved. My participation in the project is voluntary.

I acknowledge that I have the right to question any part of the procedure and can withdraw at any time without negative consequences.

Name of participant ████████████

Signature of participant ████████████

Date ████████████

INFORMATION SHEET

Trust in teacher conversations: A case study of a Fine Tuning Protocol session in an international school

You are invited to participate in a project supervised by Dr. Cher Ping Lim and conducted by Mr. Marlon Ng, who are staff / student members of the Curriculum and Instruction Department at The Education University of Hong Kong.

Introduction

The aim of this research is to study how trust can be built from a Fine Tuning Protocol conversation. You were chosen as a teacher interested in sharing or supporting your colleague with fine tuning their curricular work.

Methodology

Six teachers will participate in this study. You will participate in a Fine Tuning Protocol session lasting approximately one hour. At a later time, you will also be interviewed on your perceptions about this experience and collegial trust. In total you will be asked to make a two hour commitment for this project within a two week period.

Potential Risk to Research

There are no physical or psychological risk to participating in this study. Your participation in the project is voluntary. You have every right to withdraw from the study at any time without negative consequences. All information related to you will remain confidential. Your identity in the data will be protected through codes only known by the researcher.
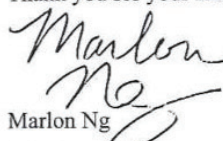
Dissemination of Results

The study's results will be disseminated as a published dissertation as part of the researcher's doctoral program. These findings may also be shared with a larger audience through journal articles and educational presentations.

If you would like to obtain more information about this study, please contact me at telephone number ███████ or my supervisor Dr. Cher Ping Lim at telephone number ███████████.

If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research study, please do not hesitate to contact the Human Research Ethics Committee by email at ███████████ or by mail to Research and Development Office, The Education University of Hong Kong.

Thank you for your interest in participating in this study.

Marlon Ng
Principal Investigator