HABITS OF MINDS AND HEARTS IN NEOLIBERAL ACADEMIA: A QUALITATIVE INQUIRY INTO ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATORS' PROFESSIONAL AND POLITICAL ROLES AND PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
OF
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

BY

ZEYNEP AYSAN ŞAHİNTAŞ

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR
THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN
THE DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

FEBRUARY 2023

Approval of the thesis:

HABITS OF MINDS AND HEARTS IN NEOLIBERAL ACADEMIA: A QUALITATIVE INQUIRY INTO ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATORS' PROFESSIONAL AND POLITICAL ROLES AND PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY

submitted by **ZEYNEP AYSAN ŞAHİNTAŞ** in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of **Doctor of Philosophy in English Language Teaching, the Graduate School of Social Sciences of Middle East Technical University** by,

Prof. Dr. Sadettin KİRAZCI
Dean
Graduate School of Social Sciences _____

Prof. Dr. Nurten BİRLİK
Head of Department
Department of Foreign Language Education _____

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Betil ERÖZ TUĞA
Supervisor
Department of Foreign Language Education _____

Examining Committee Members:

Prof. Dr. Kemal Sinan ÖZMEN (Head of the Examining Committee)
Gazi University
Department of Foreign Language Education _____

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Betil ERÖZ TUĞA (Supervisor)
Middle East Technical University
Department of Foreign Language Education _____

Prof. Dr. A. Cendel KARAMAN
Middle East Technical University
Department of Foreign Language Education _____

Assist. Prof. Dr. Duygun GÖKTÜRK AĞIN
Middle East Technical University
Department of Educational Sciences _____

Assist. Prof. Dr. Gülin DAĞDEVİREN KIRMIZI
Başkent University
Department of Foreign Language Education _____

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Name, Last Name: Zeynep AYSAN ŞAHİNTAŞ

Signature:

ABSTRACT

HABITS OF MINDS AND HEARTS IN NEOLIBERAL ACADEMIA: A QUALITATIVE INQUIRY INTO ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATORS' PROFESSIONAL AND POLITICAL ROLES AND PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY

AYSAN ŞAHİNTAŞ, Zeynep
Ph.D., Department of English Language Teaching
Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Betil ERÖZ TUĞA

February 2023, 525 pages

This qualitative case study analyzes how English language teacher educators construct their professional identities in a particular research-oriented university in Turkey. In addition, how their professional roles are projected in official policy documents produced in national and institutional higher education contexts, and how they fulfill their political roles in relation to their professional roles are other points of focus in this study. To answer related research questions, document analysis, in-depth semi-structured interviews and course observations were carried out. The analysis of the data revealed that researcher role is prioritized over others by official policy documents. Also, point systems and incentives have established an external control that both regulates and standardizes type, content and number of academic works expected from English language teacher educators. Moreover, the findings revealed that their professional and educational biographies; professional roles and work; and instiutitonal and national higher education contexts influence their professional identity formation. In addition, external, stringent and competing demands of their

professional roles as well as promotion criteria are an impediment to constructing a robust professional identity. Lastly, it was found that the participants' contribution to pre-service teachers' critical political socialization to their future profession is limited and on an ad hoc basis. The overall findings allow the conclusion that their professional identities are vulnerable to policies and external requirements driven mainly by neoliberal managerialism. Given all, their professional identities can be conceptualized as a fragmented, individualized, responsibilized, multiple, contextual and complex structure; a constant struggle; an emotional ambivalence; and an agentic power.

Keywords: Teacher Educators, Professional Identity, Professional Roles, Political Roles, Neoliberal Universities

ÖZ

NEOLİBERAL AKADEMİDE ZİHNİN VE KALBİN ALIŞKANLIKLARI: İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENİ EĞİTİMCİLERİNİN MESLEKİ VE POLİTİK ROLLERİ İLE MESLEKİ KİMLİKLERİ ÜZERİNE BİR NİTEL ARAŞTIRMA

AYSAN ŞAHİNTAŞ, Zeynep
Doktora, İngiliz Dili Öğretimi Bölümü
Tez Yöneticisi: Doç. Dr. Betil ERÖZ TUĞA

Şubat 2023, 525 sayfa

Bu nitel durum çalışması, İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimcilerinin mesleki kimliklerini, araştırma odaklı bir üniversitede nasıl inşa ettiklerini incelemektedir. Ayrıca, İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimcilerinin mesleki rollerinin ulusal ve kurumsal yükseköğretim bağlamındaki resmi politika belgelerinde nasıl yansıtıldığı ve politik rollerini mesleki rolleriyle ilişkili olarak nasıl yerine getirdikleri bu çalışmanın diğer odak noktalarıdır. İlgili araştırma sorularını yanıtlamak için doküman analizi, yarı-yapılandırılmış derinlemesine mülakatlar ve ders gözlemlerinden yararlanılmıştır. Veri analizleri, araştırmacı rolünün resmi politika belgeleri tarafından ön planda tutulduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Ayrıca, puan sistemleri ve teşvikler, İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimcilerinden beklenen akademik çalışmaların türünü, içeriğini ve sayısını hem düzenleyen hem de standartlaştıran bir dış kontrol oluşturmuştur. Buna ek olarak, bulgular, mesleki ve eğitimsel biyografilerin; mesleki roller ve işlerin; kurumsal ve ulusal yükseköğretim bağlamlarının da mesleki kimlik oluşumuna etki ettiğini göstermektedir. Ayrıca, atama yükseltme kriterlerinin yanı sıra mesleki rollerin diğer dışsal, zorlayıcı ve birbiriyle yarışan talepleri sağlam bir mesleki kimlik oluşturmanın önünde bir engel olarak durmaktadır. Son olarak, katılımcıların öğretmen adaylarının gelecekteki

mesleklerine eleştirel politik sosyalleşmelerine katkısının hem sınırlı olduğu hem de planlı ve sistematik bir yapıdan uzak olduğu görülmüştür. Genel bulgular, İngilizce öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleki kimliklerinin esas olarak neoliberal yönetimcilik tarafından yönlendirilen politikalara ve dış gerekliliklere karşı korunaksız olduğu sonucuna varılmasına olanak sağlamaktadır. Sonuç olarak, mesleki kimlikleri parçalı, bireyselleştirilmiş, sorumlu hale getirilmiş, çoklu, bağlamsal ve karmaşık bir yapı; sürekli bir mücadele; duygusal bir karmaşa ve eylemsel bir güç olarak kavramsallaştırılabilir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Öğretmen Eğitimcileri, Mesleki Kimlik, Mesleki Roller, Politik Roller, Neoliberal Üniversiteler

To those resisting colonization of hearts and minds by neoliberal academia, and daring to reclaim scholarship

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Writing this dissertation was long, often overwhelming, but eventually very edifying and rewarding work. There are people, places and institutions that became parts of this study, and thus deserve due appreciation. First, I would like to express my sincere thanks for my supervisor Assoc. Prof. Dr. Betil Eröz Tuğa who provided valuable support to improve my work. I would also like to thank Prof. Dr. Cendel Karaman who gave valuable feedback on both final and earlier drafts of this study. Likewise, I am also grateful to Assist. Prof. Dr. Duygun Göktürk Ağın who is a source of inspiration as a teacher and researcher. Her feedback and suggestions truly broadened my mind. In addition, I owe thanks to Prof. Dr. Kemal Sinan Özmen and Assist. Prof. Dr. Gülin Dağdeviren Kırmızı. I sincerely appreciate both their showing the courtesy to sit on the exam committee and the very useful feedback they gave.

It is surely beyond doubt that my participants who were gracious and generous with not only their time but also sharing their experiences and insights deserve special mention. They made enourmous contribution to the study, and this dissertation could not have been written without their invariably courteous help.

I also would like to express my sincere gratitude to all members of METU Department of Foreign Language Education including my dear workmates Esra, Emine and Aycan. I feel very privileged to have had the opportunity to study in a program out of which I learned much as a student. In addition to academic gains, I also gained professionally as a research assistant working at this particular department whose members can be characterized by work commitment. I will always feel as a proud METUnian. Additionally, this dissertation was written in Carrel 24. Therefore, I had the pleasure of working in the METU Library throughout writing process. I would be remiss in not mentioning the efforts of all staff who make the library a perfect place each and every day to study. I also would like to thank TÜBİTAK who provided me with financial support through National Graduate Scholarship Program during my doctoral study.

Last, but definitely not least, this dissertation would not be possible without never-ending support and encouragement of my family. I owe my deepest gratitude to my brother and mother who have always trusted in me. Furthermore, I feel very fortunate to have my beloved daughter, Beril, who has brought us perfect happiness as well as my dear husband, Erdem, who was wonderfully tolerant and supportive, and who did his best to ease my responsibilities throughout this process. I feel very blessed to have them as my family.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AHCI	Arts & Humanities Citation Index
AKP	Justice and Development Party
CEFR	Common European Framework of References
CIMER	Presidential Communication Center
CoHE	Council of Higher Education
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
ELTE	English Language Teacher Education
EU	European Union
IB	Interuniversity Board
IELTS	International English Language Testing System
KPSS	Civil Servant Selection Examination
LGBT	Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender
MoNE	Ministry of National Education
NGO	Non-governmental Organization
SCI	Science Citation Index
SCI-Expanded	Science Citation Index Expanded
SET	Student Evaluations of Teaching
SSCI	Social Sciences Citation Index
SWOT	Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
TÜBİTAK	The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey
ULAKBİM	National Academic Network and Information Center

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This first chapter serves as an introduction to the study. It principally gives a concise background information about the study. Then, purpose of the study is presented and research questions are listed. Lastly, significance of the study is discussed in a way indicating the importance of the foci of the study and peculiarity of the context.

1.1. Background to the Study

The pervasive influence of neoliberal ideology has manifested itself boldly nowadays. It basically functions on three main principles: deregulation (freeing capital mobility), privatization, and liberalization (including weakening trade protection and tariff reductions) (Stromquist, 2002). Cotoi (2011) argues that contrary to Keynesian model of economic activities, neoliberalism does not intrude on the market but on the society in order to ensure that the impact of its policies broadens in each and every part of the system such stated previously by Foucault (2004/2008) as the technical, juridical, demographic and social levels.

Since neoliberalism began to take effect worldwide towards the end of the 1980s, it has aroused considerable attention in academia as a transdisciplinary issue. Harvey (2005) points to the fact that neoliberalism, as a hegemonic discourse embodied even in the common-sense of people, manipulates how they perceive and understand the world they live in, and therefore underscores that proponents of neoliberal policies have a substantial impact at all levels of education including both universities and think tanks. In other words, education in general, and specifically higher education is one particular area through which neoliberal policies are carried out. Thus, the literature that has aimed to explore the relationship between neoliberalism and higher education institutions, namely universities and academies, has flourished for several

decades. In other words, many researchers all over the world conduct both conceptual and empirical research investigating not only this relationship in general but also the complex dynamics of academic roles and identities (e.g., Crouch, 2011; Dudley, 1998; Harvie, 2000; Levin, 2007; Levin, 2013; Levin & Aliyeva, 2015; Levin et al., 2011; Pusser et al., 2011; Slaughter & Leslie, 1997; Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004). Moreover, a number of studies on higher education demonstrate that designs and performances of universities have been reconstructed globally including both capitalist and developing countries (Johnson, 2008). The fact that these countries, as stated by Naidoo (2008), have experienced a substantial reduction of public aid and increase of private investment by international companies shows "the transformation of higher education into a global commodity" (p.86).

How the existence and the mission of academia has been built up and evolved in the course of time can be traced to various economic, social, political, and historical agents both globally and locally. Based on them, it is apparent that nowadays academia has been experiencing profound effects of governments' economic policies and global missions regarding knowledge economy as well as institutional urges to comply with international academic standards and higher rankings in university ranking systems. As a result, the functioning of the system in academia has been influenced in many unfavorable ways including a growth in precarious work, the criteria of rankings, benchmarking, productivity, increasing importance of project works, quality of the publications, international mobility, performance-related pay, limitation of faculty members' academic freedom and universities' autonomy. Under this heavy siege resulting from sociopolitical and economic developments, it has become challenging and demanding for academics to act their professional roles and construct robust professional identities in academia.

1.1.1. Neoliberal Universities

Which kinds of 'mutilations' are necessary to survive in the academy?

Maria Puig de la Bellacasa, 2002

During the 1960s and 70s, governments in the West were still responsible from financially supporting social institutions in order to increase the quality of human

capital, particularly assuming that universities, one of the social institutions getting financial backing, would contribute with favor in the realization of their plans regarding productive society and national defence (Davies et al., 2006). Namely, considering that the govenments were highly generous in their support for students grants and as scholars were still enjoying academic freedom to do research in the way and on the areas they found appropriate or necessary, only little was expected back (Wissema, 2009) from them regarding productivity; and governments believed that they can put their policies into practice easily through and with the support of universities. However, in 68 riots not only students but also leftist scholars showed resistance to many political and social issues including that research conducted at universities was expected to be connected to military and industry (Davies et al., 2006). However, this 'disorder' of social movements, only one of some other factors, accelerated the construction of a new world 'order' guided by neoliberal premises. As Saunders (2010) points out, "throughout the past four decades, the economics, structure, and purpose of higher education, as well as the priorities and identities of faculty and students, have been altered to better align with neoliberal practices and ideology" (p. 42). This new order has been projected on universities through a new managerialism system. Managerial systems in academia basically work on four premises (Santiago & Carvalho, 2004, p. 433):

- the separation between teaching and research as a way to increase their efficiency and productivity;
- the development of "entrepreneurial research" or "strategic research", oriented towards knowledge transfer and technological innovation in companies;
- the replacement of higher education's traditional socio-cultural goals, inherited from the welfare state, by utilitarian ones;
- the submission of curricula design to labour market requirements.

In this system, academics have turned out to be "managed professionals" (Blackmore, 2003, p. 5) because their autonomy as well as collegiality have faded out as managerial systems have faded in universities (Olssen, 2000).

Morover, the decrease in financial support provided by the state has urged universities to explore new source of funds, and thus they have become based on the market principles ranging from accountability to efficiency (Ylijoki, 2013). Also, in this new

entrepreneur system that has continued to penetrate universities for several decades, competition and performance are guiding principles that organize both academic and managerial issues at universities whose utmost aim is to enhance institutional prestige as well as to create income generation potentials (Marginson & Considine, 2000). As Bessie also (2013) puts

> …education policy discussions sound indistinguishable from a board meeting at a No.2 pencil-factory: productivity, efficiency, metrics, data-driven, value. And the technical, humanity-free jargon … which places utter, near-religious faith in this highly technical, market-based view of education: … education, like all human enterprises, can (and must) be quantified and evaluated numerically, to identify the 'one best way,' which can then be 'scaled up,' or mass-produced across the nation, be it No. 2 pencils, appendectomies, military drones or lesson plans on thesis statements. (para. 11)

Consequently, an apparent market-driven discourse has been permeating both educational policies and practices in ways that constantly impose "unchecked competition, unbridled individualism, and a demoralizing notion of individual responsibility" on academics (Giroux, 2012, p. 16).

To begin with the particularities of neoliberal universities, implementation of managerial systems spoils both wider society and and aim of education which is to produce citizens with a critical awareness and commitment for democracy (Beckmann & Cooper, 2013). Knowledge has come to be associated with economic value rather than intellectual rigor as well as personal and professional development in the era of knowledge economy in neoliberal universities; and this understanding affects the type of knowledge being prioritized (Mackinnon & Brooks, 2001). Universities, showing entrepreneurial characteristics particularly with government-backed initiatives, have begun to act as hubs of technology-oriented companies who they do research with that can produce applicable results (Wissema, 2009) or they simply act as subcontractors to do research for the use of industry. As a result, corporate funds for research has started to replace state funds, and additionally technical and technological programs are on the increase while programs under Humanities and Social Sciences have been receiving decreasing attention (Raimondi, 2012; Mackinnon & Brooks, 2001) with decreasing funds. This situation has resulted in the fact that some essential intellectual projects were marginalized, and also academics with critical stance received even less funding for research whose language, data or results had to be fiddled in order to

conform to neoliberal discourse (Darder, 2012; Harris, 2005). Research discontinues to be an intellectual practice for both researchers and audience due to dealing with "what works" (Ball, 2001, p. 266). As social sciences in general terms do not produce scientific research for the direct use of the market, they seem to have lost some of their status, and therefore it is usually the social science related departments that are closed down in technical universities (Lynch, 2006).

Additionally, competition is of the essence in neoliberal systems, including universities. George (1999) gives a straight explanation for the underlying importance of competition in neoliberalism:

> The central value … of neo-liberalism itself is the notion of competition - competition between nations, regions, firms and of course between individuals. Competition is central because it separates the sheep from the goats, the men from the boys, the fit from the unfit. It is supposed to allocate all resources, whether physical, natural, human or financial with the greatest possible efficiency. (p. 3)

This explanation clearly corresponds to the situation in higher education. Universities and more specifically departments act as entrepreneurial units who strengthen competition and increase rankings, and thereby welcoming "little capitals" who are also in a constant competition for self-entrepreneurship to increase their value and rank (Brown, 2015, p. 36).

In line with competitive nature of higher education, the trend of being a world-class institution has been fostered by university ranking systems for more than a decade. As the term world-class readily implies, rankings are a direct result of globalization process through which universities endeavor to achieve an international standing with bigger shares from the market (Hazelkorn, 2011). Higher education industry is composed of numerous universities and the fact that most of them are in a fierce competition (Hodgins & Mannix-McNamara, 2021) of prestige and status that are reproduced through rankings (Marginson, 2009). Although such ranking systems are composed of a variety of categories that can be listed as publications and citations, institutional reputation, quality of education and doctoral graduates and the quality of faculty, the category that has the largest share in the total score is publications and citations, 48.37% (Konan & Yılmaz, 2017). Therefore, universities who aim to feature

in ranking lists are in a “reputition race”, and therefore have been undergoing a “collective anxiety”, particularly in countries in Asia (Peters, 2019, p. 11) to publish and receive more citations.

What is problematic about these ranking institutions is that although they belong to private sector (Hodgins & Mannix-McNamara, 2021), they measure and rank universities most of which are public instiutitons (Peters, 2019). Hence, increasing popularity and impact of commercial ranking systems clearly demonstrates that higher education system has been taken hold by market driven policies (Lynch, 2006). Moreover, it is also discussed that ranking systems lead to hierarchisation based truly on market principles and are actually political and ideological apparatus of controlling universities (Amsler & Bolsmann, 2012) since they are “external, constraining and oppressive” in addition to being comprised of “easy-to-read, decontextualised numbers, however faulty” (Shore & Wright, 2015, p. 27).

It seems that university league tables have already rooted in higher education systems in a way that directs both governments’ and universities’ policies. They undervalue the importance attributed to academic practices such as quality instruction, service and research offering benefit to not only academics’ careers but also wider community (Lynch, 2006) with their reductionist criteria. Moreover, the tendency to overlook the value of scientific disciplines related to social sciences and art, paying little attention to local and culture-specific knowledge, sovereignity of publication in English (Peters, 2019) are other results of ranking criteria that universities try to meet eagerly.

Another issue is culture of productivity in universities. Universities are tasked with the production of knowledge by states who aim to participate in competition of “global social order”; and in turn universities land academics with production of the “commodity of knowledge” to pursue better rankings in university league tables (Uzuner-Smith & Englander, 2015, p. 79). And thus, universities’ increasing expectation of academic performance from faculty steadily gains impetus. This, in turn, has led academics to adopt a survival strategy by producing more (Brew & Lucas, 2009). Such an expectation highlights production but undervalues experience implying that previous experience is no more than a starting point for an improved performance in getting “more publications, more research grants, more students”

(Ball, 2012, p. 30). On the other hand, new managerialism has caused the growth of bureaucratization in research work as academics have to allocate more time to administrative issues such as writing and submitting grant applications and managing projects (Coccia, 2009; Gornitzka et al., 1998). This process has been found to have a negative influence on research productivity of both individual academics and universities (Baccini et al., 2014; Coccia, 2009). Additionally, high level of academic productivity is desired as it brings prestige to departments and universities, and graduates of departments and universities with high productivity are preferred over others considering that they can produce more (Long &, Fox 1995). Although publication records during doctoral studies as well as the length of time required to finish doctoral studies are better indicators of postdoctoral productivity, prestige of universities and department that academics have received their doctoral degrees has become a key factor for committees that hire academics (Burris, 2004).

In order to increase research and publication productivity of academics, both governments and universities around the world have started to introduce performance-related pay (Franzoni et al., 2011). The motive behind this type of pay is to advance the institutional production by increasing the academics' motivation, and in turn their productivity and commitment to their work (Baron, 1983). Although there is evidence that performance-related pay can be favoured by academics (Sarwar et al., 2014); some other research indicates that it cannot succeed to increase motivation and performance; it is bound to contextual factors; and implementation does not go in parallel with planning (Stazyk, 2012, p. 253). As crowding theory also shows monetary incentives is detrimental to emplloyees' intrinsic motivation (Deci et al., 1999) and may even weaken public service motivation (Moynihan, 2008). Holmlund (2009) draws attention to two problems with incentives in academia. First, he argues that the fact getting paid for research productivity is a fragmented view since academics are multitaskers who also teach and provide external and internal service. In addition, he discusses although research is mostly associated with instrinsic motivation and intrinsic rewards such as recognition and non-monetary awards, compensation pays represent academics as employees working for only financial gains (Holmlund, 2009).

Audit culture also puts pressure on academics to report to university councils or committees about various academic issues such as teaching hours, research funds, the number of publications and citations they get (Hodgins & Mannix-McNamara, 2021), which implies that academics as "untrustworthy beings*"* and should be monitored closely to prevent them from "slacking off" (Roberts, 2007, 362). As academics are now evaluated based on "numbers of papers, positions in lists of authors, and journals' impact factors" (Lawrence, 2003, p. 259), they work under pressure to be able to meet the performance-based expectations for various reasons ranging from getting promotion to becoming eligible for higher fundings. As a result of audit culture and performance-oriented academic environment, academics have been undergoing a period in which they experience rivalry more and colleague support less, which in turn affects their welfare as well as the characteristics of scientific studies (Hodgins & Mannix-McNamara, 2021).

Student evaluations of teaching (SET) worth mentioning as a particular form of performance measurement and management used by universities (Baldwin & Blattner, 2003) that draw on audit culture. This tool provides university managers with auditable information to what extent academics meet expectations regarding teaching (Bedggood & Donovan, 2012). Moreover, SET is employed by many universities as "the most important, and sometimes the sole, measure of an instructor's teaching ability" (Wilson, 1998, p. A12). Additionally, it may have a place in tenure and promotion processes in some universities (Poyas & Smith, 2007). As a result, SET can be viewed as a tool through which academics are made accountable to not only students (Sawyer et al., 2009) but also university managements.

Although it is believed that SET can be viewed as a means for students to show their contentment with teaching, and for academics to receive feedback to enhance their teaching (Johnson, 2000), it poses a reductionist framework of items that neglects other components of teaching such as academics' efforts for professional learning and engagement in global educational issues (Kam-Por, 1999). Additionally, a growing body of literature demonstrates that it can also function as a tool for surveilling academics' performance that leads to a consumer-like attitude towards students (Germain & Scandura, 2005); "student-focused emotional labor" and an urge to "conform" (Blackmore, 2009; Ogbonna & Harris, 2004, p. 1192); and lastly gender

bias as male instructors can be graded higher than females (MacNell et al., 2015). In addition, that the students grade the instructors in direct proportion to the grades they get upon completion of a course (Maurer, 2006) may cause grade inflation and poor teaching (Lewis, 2007; Stroebe, 2020). Therefore, Singh (2018, p. 491) depicts the situation as such: "these new 'datafication'… mechanisms firstly construct the 'teacher-as-problem' or barrier to quality learning, and then embed accountability/responsibility instruments into schools to fix the 'teacher problem".

Moreover, the authority of the market urges universities to adopt performance and accountability criteria (Olssen & Peters, 2005) through which faculty members are controlled (Raimondi, 2012). This controlling mechanism is also used against faculty members to keep them away from criticizing their institutions; and additionally an increasing number of universities have started to draw on public relations units to make sure that criticisms and negative news are not made public (Olssen & Peters, 2005). As a result, although it was believed that the universities' objectives were to "develop intellectual independence" and "accept a role as critic and conscience of society" (Harland et al., 2010, p. 86) they currently refrain from even self-criticism. Thus, academia under the pressure of the market has been experiencing a process of indifference to academic freedom.

1.1.2. Academics as Neoliberal Subjects

> *— we scientists have enthusiastically colluded. What began as someone else's measure has become our (own) goal.*
>
> Peter A. Lawrence, 2003

> *unwillingness to go by precedents and suspicion against accumulated experience … are now seen as the precepts of effectiveness and productivity. You are as good as your successes; but you are only as good as your last successful project.*
>
> Zygmunt Bauman, 2005

It is apparent that neoliberal reforms have been affecting universities at the macro level. Moreover, as Brown (2015, pp. 35-36) puts it, neoliberalism has a "termitlike" characteristic spreading wide over "the trunks and branches of workplaces, schools, public agencies, social and political discourse, and above all, the subject". Therefore,

it should be noted that academics are not immune from the destructive effects of neoliberal higher education policies at the micro level. Thus, academics, undergoing a process of re-making of the individual as a result of macro level reforms (Beck, 1999), try to align with new requirements influencing their everyday professional practices and identities.

Academics are expected to demonstrate increased performance just like any other individual in the system; as they become flexible, productive and collaborative with the governmental fiscal programs through better aligning their work to the use of the governments (Davies & Petersen, 2005). As performance culture in universities becomes the norm, the characteristics of "successful academics" are redefined (Uzuner-Smith & Englander, 2015). To this end, they are, as individuals, held self-responsible and it is imposed on them that they can be successful by becoming entrepreneurs of themselves (Walkerdine, 2003) who internalize the idea that even if funding is not abundant, they need to continue to produce (Davies et al., 2006). As a consequence, these self-responsible individuals turn out to be *research entrepreneurs* (Ozga, 1998) in the context of academia. In the end, the entrepreneurial understanding of academic work has become embedded in all academics' minds, even that of the most cynical ones about managerialism (du Gay & Salaman, 1992).

Additionally, when they abide by the promotion criteria, they not only increase their own professional status but also meet the expectations of both the university and the state so that they can enhance their rankings in the academic and global marketplace (Uzuner-Smith & Englander, 2015). In the academic marketplace, "self-worth" is not determined internally; rather, is stringently measured by the rankings and ratings of academics, departments and universities; and if somebody "wins", somebody "loses" (Bullough, 2014, p. 23). This process imposes a heavy demand on academics considering that they have to adjust their identities to the external expectations and institutional identity (Harris, 2005). As a result, academics become more inclined to take strategic decisions enabling more funding rather than investigating topics they have a preference for; and thus this practice "colonizes the identities of researchers themselves" (Marginson, 2000, p. 193). However, there are also academics who still value carrying out research work based on their own interests and tempo, particularly in social sciences (Ylijoki, 2013).

On the other hand, receiving funds and grants may not be adequate for an academic. In addition to that, the best performing academics are also expected to count the number of publications, socialize through academic meetings and disseminate their work to increase their value as entrepreneurs (Brown, 2015). Roberts (2007, pp. 359-360) goes into more detail on the activities carried out by academics who adopt the performance culture:

> Academics will be encouraged to publish their work in "better" journals and with more prestigious book publishers. They will feel pressured to seek out external funding for their work, or, where their interests are unlikely to generate external funding, to change the focus of their research. There will be strong incentives for academics to market themselves as potential keynote speakers, supervisors (for top students), award winners, or members of high powered research teams. Increasing one's rating will provide a stronger motivation than pursuing curiosity driven research agendas. Those who succeed in the system will become highly efficient at producing in the right amounts, with the right people, in the right places. Institutions and individuals who know how to work the system effectively could become like well oiled … machines, producing an ever increasing number of impressive outputs, more and more Masters and doctoral students, and larger and larger amounts of externally generated research income.

Ball (2003, pp. 215-216) names this situation as “terrors of performativity” and academics feel that they have to turn away from their own “personal beliefs and commitments to live an existence of calculation”. Hence, an important part of professional development of academics particularly in research universities is steered into a researcher role through the promotion of activities such as learning successful techniques of grant writing and having a high profile in academic environment and leaving teaching and community service aside (Darder, 2012). In line with this process, academics have restricted themselves to their own communities of researchers (Schwartz, 2014).

Focus on productivity also pushes academics to publish in certain indexed and English medium academic journals (Ingvarsdóttir & Arnbjörnsdóttir, 2018; Brock-Utne, 2001); and a widely accepted fact that 90% of academic journals are English medium accelerates the push for publication in English (Curry & Lillis, 2022). Additionally, these journals are largely based on Anglophone-originated indexes such as SCI and SSCI despite being called international (Lillis & Curry, 2010). Academic journals compete to meet the requirements of and be selected for ISI indexes (e.g., SCI, SSCI,

AHCI) (Testa, 2003). A similar competition also applies to indvidual academics who strive for getting accepted for publishing in journals covered by ISI indexes. ISI indexes usually do not include journals published in languages other than English; and in turn journals that have high impact factor are usually English medium ones (Lillis & Curry, 2010). In other words, English holds a considerable power being as the dominant language of knowledge published in social science indexes (Yeung, 2001). Also publishing in journals with high impact factors has become a high-stakes academic activity due to its determining effect on academics' recruitment, appointment, promotion and research funding although use of impact factors for such purposes "can be misleading and prejudicial" (Cameron, 2005, p. 105). As a result, academics compete to publish in international journals with high impacts as not only they target wide and varied readers and become a part of academic exchanges but also these journals are prioritized in institutional, national and international standards to be able to receive various academic rewards (Lillis & Curry, 2010).

In line with performance culture, merit pay has become focus of attention for majority of academics. The basic aim of merit pay is to reward outperforming academics through pay increase (Schulz & Tanguay, 2006). Most of the time, this increase is added on academics' basic salaries (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002). Research has found that merit pay is favoured in direct proportion with the level of base salary of the institution (Murnane & Cohen, 1986). Moreover, the extent it motivates employees to outperform depends on the support it gets from the employees (Terpstra & Honoree, 2009). In other words, merit pay is largely related to perceptions, and may crowd out intrinsic motivation if employees feel that they are controlled by means of it; however, it may also crowd in intrinsic motivation if they feel that it supports their professional endeavor (Frey, 1997). The concerns about its fairness or its conforming to "academic values" may lead to "conflict, confusion, and distrust" among academics (Amey & VanDerLinden, 2002, p.21).

Despite working within the confines of audit and performance culture, academics usually strive to stay devoted to their disciplines and willing to carry out research even in the lack of time for a thorough reading and examination of research topics; under the stress of cuts to funds; onerous burden of teaching, supervising, and administrative service (Roberts, 2007). Their struggle makes them feel "ontologically insecure:

unsure whether we are doing enough, doing the right thing, doing as much as others, or as well as others, constantly looking to improve" (Ball, 2003, p. 220). As a result, they suffer from both a state of mental, physical and emotional strain; and a conflict between work and family/individual free time/extended environment (Roberts, 2007).

Furthermore, academics are also driven by neoliberalism's depreciation of social and moral. Academics' indifference to critical and/or creative intellectual labor becomes a common practice in academia. Academics as neoliberal subjects fulfill a purpose of producing outputs based on the governments' demands and their heavy concentration on outputs may result in neglecting creative and critical work (Davies & Petersen, 2005). In addition, academics working at understaffed universities due to budget-cuts have to cope with increasing teaching loads, which results in insufficient "critical engagement with students" and "feedback on student writing" (Nussbaum, 2010, p. 124). This prevailing mindset also leads to oversimplification of pedagogy towards a mechanic one that separates teaching from its moral and intellectual underpinnings that help educating students to be committed and critical citizens (Giroux, 2014). Schwartz (2014) discusses how neoliberal universities control intellectual interests of academics:

> At the same time, faculty who write for more general political or intellectual audiences are often subject to disdain by their more "academic" colleagues; this is another way in which the neoliberal university disciplines "academic subjects." The academy today mostly produces academics, not intellectuals; it channels wider intellectual interests into more narrow, niche forms of "methodologically sophisticated" inquiry. This also leads to an increasing separation between the demands of research and meeting the intellectual needs of one's students, particularly undergraduates. Many tenure-track and tenured faculty teach their current research interests; not just in graduate seminars, but even in undergraduate courses. We lament the loss of public intellectuals in the academy… (518-519)

Moreover, while neoliberalism depreciates social and moral, it promotes individual. Each neoliberal subject can also be considered as a "Darwinian subject" as only the fittest can survive the competition in an academic marketplace against the others (Davies & Petersen, 2005, p. 89). Neoliberal management also requires these individualized subjects to be self-responsible who can be described by "loyalty, belonging and acceptance" (Saul, 2005, p. 13). Unnoticing the impact of neoliberal

management that implicitly forms the subjects' thoughts, aims and expectations, the subjects turn out to be supporters of these managerial techniques and policies and even take a stand against the other subjects who show resistance (Davies & Petersen, 2005). The neoliberal subjects are more easily governed by means of competition and self-responsibility that promote individualism (Davies et. al., 2006). The subjects are expected to be flexible, adaptable and autonomous in neoliberal management (Davies & Petersen, 2005; Walkerdine, 2003).

Individualism combined with flexibility, adaptability and autonomy has implications for job security as well. Neoliberal subjects are expected to rise to the occasion and live through continuous change in work, earnings, ways of living as they have to be entrepreneurs who are committed to "lifelong learning" and "multiple career trajectories", and who are also supported through psychological counseling and therapies (Walkerdine, 2003, pp. 240-241). They are assured through the practices of neoliberalism as a form of governmentality that if they cannot readily adopt themselves to sustained insecurity and changes, they should question themselves, not the institutions; and work to become high achievers in the system (Davies et. al., 2006). Therefore, academics, especially junior faculty, try to wind their way along a twisting road of academia despite descending number of tenure-track positions and ascending number of doctorate degree holders (Altbach, 2000; Darder, 2012).

Expectations of flexibility and adaptability turn out to be a heavy load on academics. Although it is believed that flexible working conditions provide them with freedom, they depend largely on internet connection to bounce between courses they teach, online meetings and even pre-meetings, answer their phone calls and e-mails continuously (Troiani & Dutson, 2021). This new form of communication sets "an informal obligation to be always available and ready to respond" (Ylijoki, 2013, p. 246), and delays the academics' release from daily professional works to such an extent that the line between work and life becomes vague, and this results in stress and burnout (Schaffner, 2017). As is seen, flexibility and adaptability is accompanied by a sense of acceleration of time in neoliberal academia. Time is never enough to get things done and they feel the pressure both at home and at work. At home, they may feel that they do not have enough patience to feed a child or become involved in familial activities; and at work, they may feel blessed with the cancellation of an

arranged meeting as they can find an opportunity to enjoy some isolation and privacy (Bullough, 2014).

Time press hastens the speed of publications in a way that discourages academics from research that takes longer time to design and carry out, and therefore encourages them to publish several articles out of a single study rather than a comprehensive report of all findings (Bauerlein et al., 2010). Moreover, overwhelmed by the amount of information, academics cannot find time to read thoroughly; they mostly draw on state-of-the-art articles; and allocate their time to scan and separate out what works for them and identify articles not to be read but to be cited (Bullough, 2014; Menzies & Newson, 2007). Scarcely any academics read one another's publication even if it is in their own disciplines; and if it does not inform their own research, reading means no more than a reduction in their own production speed (Schwartz, 2014). Time pressure is also evident in some project works based on external sponsorship. Academics are usually expected to accomplish project works within a short period of time so that the findings can quickly yield an edge over other competitors in the industrial marketplace (Ylijoki, 2013). In the end, academics may suffer from a variety of feelings such as anxiety, rush for time, powerlessness, and failure to catch up with schedule and succees, which are all intertwined (Ylijoki & Mäntylä, 2003).

Furthermore, adaptability and flexibility affect how academics create and take charge of their own career trajectories. In neoliberal times, Gee (2004, p. 96) argues that individuals become "shape-shifting portfolio people" who view themselves as entrepreneurs responsible from administering "their own risky trajectories through building up a variety of skills, experiences, and achievements in terms of which they can define themselves as successful now and worthy of more success later". From Gee's perspective, their portfolios, composed of skills, experiences, and achievements, should be open to change and reorganization for changing conditions. In this respect he suggests that "if I am now an 'X', and the economy no longer needs 'X's, or 'X's are no longer the right thing to be in society, but now 'Y's are called for, then I have to be able to shape-shift quickly into a 'Y'" (Gee, 2004, p. 96). Despite the fact that shape-shifting portfolio people concept indirectly suggests a sense of individuality, Gee (2004) also argues shape-shifters engage in both collaboration and project work more as these are promoted as groups of people act more quickly than

individuals to investigate and disseminate knowledge. Similar to any shape-shifters in other sectors, academics as shape-shifting portfolio people are expected to be responsive to contextual changes and requirements. He believes that not jobs and salaries but portfolios have become providers of security in the new market order, and this is why people with no portfolios are in danger (Gee, 2004).

As for academic employment, hiring contingent academics having different professional titles and status but sharing similar insecure working conditions has become typical of universities (Tirelli, 2014). In accordance with the increase in demand for university education, there has been a growth in the number of academic job positions offered by universities; however, such positions decreasingly offer "non-exploitative remuneration, good benefits, and decent working conditions" (Schwartz, 2014, p 512). Yet, neither state funds nor the number of academics has caught up with the growth in student numbers, and this has resulted in more burden of teaching and less financial support on behalf of academics (Altbach, 2000). Additionally, academic remuneration can neither hedge against inflation nor catch up with pays in other sectors; and therefore, academics cannot have even a financial standard of middle class any more for most places in the world (Altbach, 2000).

Neoliberal trends have enhanced mobility and professional networks in academia. Thus, an increasing variety of academic mobility types has started to exist in the global higher education system. Based on this variety, Horta (2013) developed a comprehensive taxonomy of academic mobility types. According to his taxonomy, pure inbreds are considered academics who have not only studied but also worked in the very same instiutiton throughout their careers. Mobile inbreds are the ones who have either changed their institutions for a limited time during PhD studies or moved to another institution for post-doctorate before having been recruited by their PhD universities. Adherents (non-inbreds), on the other hand, change their institutions only once a lifetime, from the instiution they received their PhD degrees to the instiution they have been recruited. Given the increasing trend of hiring mobilized academics that fall into second and third categories, international degrees and careers have become important assets for academics in neoliberal universities (Nikunen & Lempiäinen, 2020). Professional networking can be defined as individuals' establishing and sustaining links that can support them throughout their career

trajectories (Forret & Dougherty, 2004). As Elliot and Urry (2010) state who you know has become more important than what you know in today's world. Participation in academic meetings, collaboration with colleagues through research projects and time spent abroad can be listed as various means of gaining "transnational social capital" through networking (Leemann, 2010, p. 616). In a rapidly changing academic environment, when individual academics and institutions network with unfamiliar counterparts, it is believed that this networking process can promote learning and creating new knowledge (Gee, 2004). It is also believed that professional networking has a high potential that leads to achievement in professional work (Arthur et al., 1999), and therefore individuals are usually encouraged by institutions, which demonstrate the advantages of and the strategies for expanding professional connections with others, to be a part of networks (Raj et al., 2017).

Moreover, professional networking becomes important for academics due to precarious working conditions as well. Academics tend to work in groups where especially novice researchers are hired to be temporary knowledge workers in this day and age (Storme et. al., 2017). Considering that novice researchers go through instable working conditions, professional networks turn out to be the only permanent thing that they can carry over into their prospective professional contexts (Defilippi & Arthur, 1994). Professional networking is considered as a form of social capital and it lends itself to "cultural capital (publications, internationally oriented habitus, language skills) and symbolic capital (reputation, credit, power)"; and academics, who cannot accumulate and make use of such social capital, can no longer survive in academia (Leemann, 2010, p. 616).

Furthermore, academics' mobility has increased in direct proportion to the increase in professional networks and internationalization process of higher education (Ackers, 2008). Although such mobility has also started to be considered unmaintainable due to financial, environmental and social expenses (Beaverstock et al., 2009), it is undeniable that they increasingly carry out more and more professional work beyond the institutions they are affiliated with. Attending academic meetings is highly important for academics since it helps for the growth of network capital (Storme et al., 2017). In other words, academics may feel forced to take especially short term trips in

order not to stay away from current and innovative knowledge they can have access to through their networks (Lassen, 2009).

Moreover, long term mobility which can be in the form of studying in a PhD program abroad is increasingly and widely born up. Balter (1999, p. 1524) underlines the importance of "stint abroad" as "crucial for many European PhDs who want to become academic researchers". Constrained with their economic and scientific sources, universities in developing countries try to be associated with scientifically outstanding universities abroad in order to prevent "scientific provinciality"; and therefore, PhD students who study in those outstanding research centres are expected to transmit knowledge from "centre to periphery" when they become faculty members (Kyvik et al., 1999, p. 379). As a result, this long-term international mobility is encouraged to achieve excellence in research through international cooperation and competition (Ackers, 2008). Therefore, beyond individual preferences, mobility, moreover, has turned out to be almost a requirement both to advance academic careers and for job security (Morano-Foadi, 2005).

Still, individual agency and mobility restrictions based on gender need to be taken into consideration. Academics may still prefer not to meet the expectations of the neoliberal universities by backing out of mobility and adjust themselves to the outcomes of their decision, or agree with the expectations of mobility and go by "the rules of the game" (Nikunen & Lempiäinen, 2020, p. 558). In addition, it is widely believed that female academics experience more mobility constraints than male academics (Moguérou, 2004), and they are even less inclined to mobility when they shoulder more familial responsibilities (Ackers, 2004). Due to the fact that female academics cannot meet the requirement of mobility, they may experience more professional disadvantage with respect to becoming tenured (Kulis & Sicotte, 2002).

The importance of having academic network is mostly evident in recruitment processes. Although strong publishing performance and prestige of programs where academics have received their doctorate degrees are predominant considerations for recruitment, having academic networks has also become an important factor affecting hiring decisions (Burris, 2004). It is believed that access to such networks reveal academics' characteristics, social adaptability and their potential to harmonize with

colleagues (Lin, 1999). It is also believed that having networks provides individual academics with social capital (Clarke et al., 2013) and numerous performance-oriented advantages ranging from publishing in prestigious journals or publishing houses to giving invited talks and writing for special editions of journals (Burris, 2004; Faria & Goel, 2010), which lead to achievement in the academic marketplace. Research has also demonstrated that networks affect professional satisfaction and commitment of academics (Podolny & Barron, 1997) as well as their promotion (Burt, 1992). Similarly, individual benefits and prestige that an academic may gain through networks grow into institutional benefits and prestige for the university that the academic is embedded with (Goel & Grimpe, 2013). Thus, the impact of networks extends over the careers of academics.

1.1.3. Teacher Educators as Academics

Teacher education programs at higher education institutions are considered to fulfill an important need of preparing very capable teachers all around the world (for reviews, see Aras, 2018; Darling-Hammond, 2017; Musset, 2010; Snoek & Žogla, 2009). Therefore, there is access to exhaustive knowledge about in-service teachers, pre-service teachers, and teacher education in general since they have held researchers' attention for a long time (e.g., Adler, 1991; Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009; Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Eret, 2013; Eröz-Tuğa, 2013; Freeman, 1982; Menter et al., 2010; Veenman, 1984). Nevertheless, teacher educators, as an important stakeholder of teacher education system, has received comparatively less attention from researchers.

It is believed that "the state of the hearts and minds" of teacher educators is an indicator of the value of a teacher education program (Bullough et al., 2003, p. 50). Nevertheless, it seems that the importance of teacher educators is not clearly identified and recognized (Lunenberg & Hamilton, 2008); and thus, teacher educators are even called as "the Cinderella of academia" (Ham & Kane, 2004, p.134). While recognition is believed to be vital for identity formation of teacher educators (Gee, 2000), lack of recognition in this case definitely has negative impact on their identity construction (Lunenberg & Hamilton, 2008). In 1986, Lanier and Little stated that who teacher educators are is roughly defined, and evidently they are ignored by researchers who

work in the area of teacher education (as cited in Ducharme & Ducharme, 1996, p. 57).

The Ducharmes (1996) also express concern over deficiencies in the knowledge of who teacher educators are and what they are engaged with exactly. Cochran-Smith (2003) likewise points to the fact that it should be clarified who teacher educators are, and suggests if it is provided, professional education of teacher educators can be best approached. Last but not least, Olsen and Buchanan (2017) maintain that a comprehensive literature about teacher educators is still missing. Taking these particular concerns into account, it can be concluded that a thorough account of professional practices and identities of teacher educators has remained as a problem over the decades.

Contextual factors play a limiting role to view teacher educators as a unified professional group. As local cultural and political environment is a serious determiner of how teacher education systems are (re)designed in each country, the improvement of both teacher education practices and teacher educators reflect the characteristics of their own contexts (Swennen et al., 2010). As a result of the varieties regarding the establishment and ongoing system of teacher education in different countries, teacher educators working in various areas display various characteristics such as being a professor at a higher education institution, a former teacher at a K-12 school, an experienced in-service teacher educator etc. (Kelchtermans et al., 2018). Despite all the varieties and changes in the practices and working environments of teacher educators all over the world, providing a working definition is still necessary to give an account of the term teacher educators.

Back in the 80s, Carter (1984, pp. 126-127) suggested that a teacher educator can be viewed as a faculty member in a tenure track appointment having given minimum one undergraduate course. Later on, definitions of teacher educators became more comprehensive regarding their professional practices. Murray et al. (2008, p.29), for instance, call teacher educators as "teachers of teachers" who are professionally involved in the beginning and development of prospective teachers' careers and also professional growth of practicing teachers. European Commission in a 2013 report argues that teacher educators are "present at every stage of the teacher's career" (2013,

p. 7) considering that they are professionals contributing in both the initial education and continuous learning of teachers (Vanassche et al., 2015). According to these definitions, academics at universities as supervisors, teachers at K-12 schools as mentors, and in-service teacher trainers working for the training of in-service teachers can be all counted as teacher educators; however, the focus of the present study is solely on university-based teacher educators who work as academics.

Moreover, although their title may imply that they are teaching oriented, their research practice is not of secondary importance; and they are also expected to do rigorous empirical research as in the cases of all other academics. In the same vein, European Commission (2012) also states that teacher educators help teachers throughout their professional lives, model good pedagogy and conduct research to foster our knowledge of better teaching and learning. Similarly, it is believed that teacher educators have a crucial potential to support the construction and maintenance of a well-functioning system for teacher quality by means of theoretical, practical, pedagogical contributions (Liston et al., 2008). Considering all the incomplete discussion regarding who teacher educators are, what professional practices they are engaged with, and the precedence they have in educational systems, it is startling that teacher educators as a research area remain intriguingly discreet (Kelchtermans et al., 2018).

In general terms, regardless of the particularities of their disciplines, professional practices of university-based teacher educators are also based on teaching, research and service along the same lines as other academics. They are supposed to not only teach various courses at graduate and undergraduate levels but also do research in order to contribute to the body of scientific knowledge. In service work, they are expected to share their academic knowledge and expertise with students, colleagues, institutions they are affiliated with, and wider community beyond campus Commitment to teaching, researching and service roles makes them “good teacher”, “good scholar”, and “good academic citizens”, respectively (Pfeifer, 2016, p. 239). Moreover, both education and specifically teacher education, essentially call for a pedagogy and research tradition through which teacher educators teach and research critically, without readily accepting existing knowledge (Livingston et al., 2009). At this point, they are also expected to take on political roles through which they question

the sociopolitics of knowledge in their professional works. It is also necessary to note that in the present study, teacher educators are regarded as intellectuals who are expected to fulfill political roles in classrooms through teaching their students or in research practices towards a wider academic audience and society.

Hence, they, like other academics, are also affected by today's neoliberal higher education context that imposes productivity, competition and performance expectations on them. In that sense, the importance attributed to their professional roles by the institutions they are affiliated with may also determine the importance they attribute to their own practices. As a result, how teacher educators fulfill their professional practices in their professional and political roles in a neoliberal academic context directly affects their professional identities because roles are grounds on which identities are constructed (Meeus et al., 2018).

1.2. Purpose of the Study

This research study focuses on the professional practices of English language teacher educators who work as academics in universities. English language teacher educators' professional roles and political roles as intellectuals together with professional identity construction is explored in the study. In line with the aim, it is designed as a case study. The data is gathered from classroom observations of and in-depth interviews with English language teacher educators in a state university in Turkey as well as the analysis of official online documents of Interuniversity Board (IB) and the university which is in focus. In other words, this study aims to reveal how a group of English language teacher educators perform their professional and political roles and construct their professional identities in a particular academic context. The research questions that the study aims to give answers for are as follows:

R.Q.: 1. How are professional roles of English language teacher educators projected in the official documents produced by both Interuniversity Board and the University?

R.Q.: 2. How do English language teacher educators construct their professional identities?

2.1. How do English language teachers develop into English language teacher educators?

2.2. How do English language teacher educators fulfill their professional roles?

2.3. How do English language teacher educators experience the impact of demands of professional roles on their professional identities?

2.4. How do English language teacher educators conceptualize the impact of institutional and national contexts on their professional identities?

R.Q.: 3. In what ways do English language teacher educators' political roles as intellectuals influence their teaching and research practices?

1.3. Significance of the Study

This study is designed in a fashion that can contribute to the previous literature in several aspects. The study together with the particularities of the topic, theoretical framework, participants, data collection tools, and research site aims to add into the existing literature.

To begin with, although teacher educators are "at the core of good teacher education" (Vloet & van Swet, 2010, p. 149), teacher educators' professional lives and challenges they face has aroused little interest in academia (Martinez, 2008). Similarly, there is scarcity of research on professional development, professional practice and identities of teacher educators (Peercy et al., 2019; Swennen et al., 2008; Trent, 2013). As a result, English language teacher educator identity is "still undertheorized and underresearched" (Yazan, 2018, p. 141) and remains "underexplored and surprisingly invisible" (Barkhuizen, 2021, p. 3). Additionally, there is scarcity of empirical research on professional practices and identities of English language teacher educators working particularly in the Turkish academia which is a unique sociocultural context. Moreover, social, political and economic conditions that have been continuously changing and also shaping academia as well as societal relevance and importance of English language teacher educators' professions add to the necessity of carrying out this study. Therefore, this study investigates English language teacher educators' roles and professional identity.

As for professional roles, the existing literature shows that previous studies investigated English language teacher educators' only-researcher roles (e.g., Barkhuizen, 2021; Kung, 2018; Lee, 2014; Yuan, 2021), only-teacher roles (e.g., Yuan & Yang, 2020), and research-teaching nexus (Kaasila et al., 2021, Yan & He, 2015).

However, the present study aims to explore not only research and/or teaching but also service by bringing a comprehensive perspective to the professional role studies. Additionally, this study aims to shed a light on how English language teacher educators fulfill their political roles as teachers and researchers. Although there is abundant theoretical discussions and arguments regarding the sociopolitical and ideological awareness of teacher educators (e.g., Bartolomé, 2004; Giroux & McLaren, 1986; Hawkins & Norton, 2009; Kincheloe, 2011; Popkewitz, 1987), there is lack of empirical studies investigating how teacher educators are aware of their political roles and to what extent they fulfill these roles in their professional commitments. Therefore, the present study aims to contribute to the literature through an empirical study of political roles of English language teacher educators.

Further to that, studies on teacher educators' professional practices and identities also vary regarding analytical perspectives they adopt. Communities of practice (Williams et al., 2012), sociocultural learning (Griffiths et al., 2014), native and non-native speakerism (Mannes, 2020); complexity theory (Yuan & Yang, 2020) can be listed as theoretical frameworks used in the related research area. This study, on the other hand, adopts neoliberalism as a theoretical lens. Among the impacts of market forces on higher education in general, teacher educators, in fact, hold an important place in neoliberal discourse studies. Their transformation in many terms such as academic performance, identity, productivity, autonomy, academic freedom, ontological state, political and professional responsibilities, and knowledge production are all considerable aspects of this neoliberalisation process. Nevertheless, despite the bold claims regarding the impact of neoliberal discourse on academics (Pusser et al., 2011; Saunders, 2010; Slaughter & Leslie, 1997), there is still poor empirical data that can clearly demonstrate their views and behaviors (Levin & Aliyeva, 2015). In other words, current research informs us to a limited extend about how neoliberal academia paves the way for the development of new professional relations, identities (Shore & McLauchlan, 2012), as well as "academic work and day-to-day practices" (Davies & Petersen, 2005, p. 33). Therefore, associating a neoliberal lens with teacher educators' roles and identities provides a new perspective contributing to the investigation of these underresearched issues.

Moreover, much of the existing literature with such a theoretical framework comes from i) the academic fields that are more open to the direct effects of market such as natural sciences, ii) only-research universities, and iii) capitalist and developed countries. Considering the lack of exhaustive studies that particularly focus on academic fields from educational/social sciences, comprehensive or research-intensive universities (i.e., research and teaching coexist in such institutions), and developing countries, this study aims to fill a gap in these senses.

As for the group of participants, previous research focused on faculty experiences regarding professional work and/or identity from a range of disciplines such as science, math, sociology, psychology (Archer, 2008a; 2008b); business (Copur, 1990); engineering and technology, health science, and arts (Winter & O'Donohue, 2012); English, occupational therapy, social work (Menzies & Newson, 2007); humanities, management and social sciences (Gornal & Salisbury, 2012). On the other hand, the present study particularly focuses on faculty who work as teacher educators. Conducting research on this particular group is necessary and of utmost importance for several points. First of all, teacher educators' professional practices are modelled by pre-service teachers as they are teachers of teachers (Cheng et al., 2010; Lunenberg et al., 2007; Swennen & van der Klink, 2008; Yuan, 2018). In other words, compared to teachers, teacher educators are considered as second-order teachers (Murray & Male, 2005), and in turn their pedagogical practices become models for their students (Bullock & Christou, 2009) to be used as first-order teachers when they graduate. In addition, they are believed to be important contributors to identity construction of teachers (Taner & Karaman, 2013). They all mean that teacher educators have a special professional characteristic that can affect the styles that next generations are taught in. In sum, the pedagogical practices of teacher educators have a potential to reach out to even primary and secondary school students, and therefore need attention of researchers.

Secondly, teacher educators have an intermediary role in teacher education system since they connect policies with real world implementations. They are expected to take action for both major and minor changes in the system and manifest the changes in their professional practices. Namely, teacher educators are first-hand implementers of policy changes and reforms taking place in the system. Moreover, they are also

expected to be active implementers of reforms, and also viewed as "pedagogical authorities" who has the potential and will to revolutionize teacher education (Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013, p. 341). Likewise, Cochran-Smith (2003, pp. 5-6) describes them as "the linchpins in educational reforms of all kinds". As a result, they are an important stakeholder of teacher education system who can offer, design, implement and evaluate changes in the system.

What is more, the dual presence of teacher educators both in schools and higher education institutions makes theirs an engrossing professional experience. Maguire (2000, p. 149) use the term "inside/outside the ivory tower" to indicate this duality. As a matter of fact, it is believed that it is not easy to associate teacher educators with a sole professional environment, which makes way for identity entanglements (Griffiths et al., 2014). Consequently, how the peculiarity of their professional characteristics is reflected on their professional practices entails further examination. Furthermore, Shagrir (2010) argues that teacher education process is comprised of a relationship among pre-service teachers, scholarship on teacher education, teacher educators, and teacher education institutions. Therefore, in addition to university and schools how teacher educators regulate their relations with other components of the system gains importance.

Moreover, there is a considerable amount of research on faculty who work as teacher educators, and these studies focus on participants working in a variety of universities, disciplines, and departments such as primary teacher education, history, mathematics, biology, physics, chemistry, literature, languages, geography (e.g., Swennen, Volman, van Essen, 2008; Tryggvason, 2012, Vloet & van Swet, 2010, Williams & Power, 2010). In that sense, research based specifically on English language teacher educators is comparatively limited (e.g., Trent, 2013; Yuan & Yang, 2020). Considering variety of disciplines and scarcity of research on English language teacher educators, this study is based only on a particular group of academics, English language teacher educators who work in the same department of a certain university. In this way, it is aimed to consider the issues typical and particular to the discipline and department since departments have a potential to form certain habits of thinking and behaving (Entwistle, 2003).

Furthermore, existing research usually makes use of single instruments to investigate professional roles and identities of teacher educators. Critical discourse analysis of higher education policy documents (Uzuner-Smith & Englander, 2015); individual interviews (Yuan, 2021); open-ended questionnaire and semi-structured interview (Kung, 2018); narrative interviews (Barkhuizen, 2021), interviews and teaching portfolios (Kaasila et al., 2021) can be listed as data collection tools used widely in this specific research area. However, the present study uses document analysis, semi-structured interviews and course observations together to provide a more comprehensive analysis of the topics under investigation.

Another point that distinguishes the present study is its being both local and national with references to global academia. While the present study specifically focuses on a group of teacher educators to uncover their roles and identities, it also displays policies of a certain institution and a country. While these policies can be regarded as local, they also have global underpinnings. Therefore, although teacher educators' roles and identity construction seem at the micro-level, they are also driven by global social, political and economic factors. To conclude, this study aims to reveal how teacher educators in the study are affected by institutional, national and global academic contexts by positioning them in a wider social, political and economic context.

Last but not least, the context of the study adds more into the peculiarity of the study. As a case study, it is conducted at a Foreign Language Education Department, and specifically in an English Language Teaching (ELT) Program, of a particular state university in Turkey. The reason behind the focus on this specific site arises from the fact that both the university (hereafter "XU") and the department have distinguishing features compared to the other universities and ELT departments in Turkey.

Founded around mid-1900s with the aim of providing competent manpower in technology, natural and social sciences, XU today offers a variety of undergraduate, graduate and doctorate programs to an excessive number of students. Apart from being one of the biggest universities in Turkey in terms of student and program numbers, it is also one of the few state universities in which the medium of instruction is completely in English. Currently, both domestic and foreign faculty work at the university. Participating into numerous international research projects and also

coordinating with various international joint degree programs with international universities, XU maintains and fosters academic links with international universities and organizations. Furthermore, in line with recent higher education reforms in Turkey, some universities have been announced as "research universities" based on certain evaluation criteria by Council of Higher Education (CoHE); and XU was one of the first universities recognized as a research university in 2017. Since then, it is subject to an annual evaluation of its research performance by a national ranking index as well as observations of a monitoring committee by CoHE. Hence, XU's classification as a research-intensive university also attributes an extraordinary characteristic to it compared to other universities in Turkey.

As for department of Foreign Language Education, it was founded in the 1980s under Faculty of Education in XU. However, even before the foundation of an undergraduate program, an MA program in English Language Teaching was available. Later, the department also started to offer a doctorate program. XU expects all academics to fulfill extra professional requirements above and beyond basic CoHE criteria to be appointed and promoted to faculty positions. As a result, English language teacher educators in XU, as well as all other academics affiliated with the university, work in a competitive academic environment in which they are required to teach both undergraduate and graduate courses, seek and secure prestigious external research funds, carry out research projects, attend academic meetings, and publish articles and books preferably through prestigious international platforms.

Considering the historical mission and vision of the university in addition to its emerging international and researcher identity, it is apparent that faculty members in XU, and specifically English language teacher educators in this case, are recruited, appointed and promoted in a competitive and distinguishing environment in the Turkish academia. Therefore, how current standing and mission of XU both in national and international academic market affect the way English language teacher educators fulfill their roles and construct professional identities in this particular research-intensive state university turns out to be an intriguing research question.

CHAPTER 2

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

In order to present a comprehensive analysis of a case study, one is to approach the issue considering the historical background surrounding it. The present study was framed theoretically by neoliberalism; and the impact of current neoliberal sociopolitical context on English language teacher educators was investigated. Moreover, it was also designed as a case study for the interpretation of a social issue. Thus, not only theoretical framework but also methodology of the present research study inherently calls for a discussion of historical background of higher education system in Turkey in order to reveal serious changes that have had an impact on the current system. This discussion is, more specifically, built upon foreign language education and foreign language teacher education in the context of Turkey.

2.1. Higher Education System in Turkey

The higher education system in Turkey is regulated by the Council of Higher Education (CoHE). Higher Education is defined, by article three of the Higher Education Law dated November 4, 1981 and numbered 2547, as "all post-secondary education consisting of at least four semesters, within the national education system, at every stage" (YÖK, 2000, p. 1). Within the same Higher Education Law (YÖK, 2000, p. 5) in Article 4, some of the aims of higher education are specified as follows:

- To educate students
    - In line with Atatürk's reforms and principles and dedicated to Atatürk's nationalism,
    - Having the power of free and scientific thought, are broad-minded and respectful of human rights,
    - To become citizens addressing the nation's development and needs in line with their own interest and talent as well as having knowledge, skill,

behavior and world knowledge of a profession ensuring their weal and living,

- To enable the State of Turkey, as an indivisible entity with its territory and nation, to be a constructive, creative and distinct joint member of contemporary civilization to increase its welfare by implementing programmes contributing into its economic, social and cultural progress,
- As higher education institutions, doing high-level academic work and research, producing information and technology, disseminating scientific data, supporting national development and progress, being a distinct member of the scientific world through cooperation with national and international institutions, contributing into universal and contemporary development.

However, not only the aims but also some rules and regulations of higher education were either changed or updated during a process between 18th and 21st centuries. As Koçer (1979, p. 3) also states scientific institutions are expected to "undergo a structural change in a country whose ruling system first changed from theocratic autocracy to theocratic constitutional monarchy; then towards a secular and democratic republic regime through its single-party and then multi-party periods." Considering this, it can be judged that the development of Turkish higher education system has a long and dynamic history. As a result, for the ease of analysis, the development of Turkish higher education system and the changes it has undergone can be examined within the realm of two separate periods, as the Ottoman period and the republican period.

2.1.1. The Late Ottoman Period

The establishment of the first higher education institutions dates back to the Ottoman period. Medrese is considered as the starting point for higher education in the Empire (Ataünal, 1993). Although the education given at the medrese was initially oriented towards teaching religion, it later also became associated with research and production of scientific knowledge in a variety of disciplines including medicine, mathematics and astronomy (Önder, 2014). These schools continued its existence as the sole higher education institution until the late 18th century (Ataünal, 1993). Hendesehane, founded in 1773, is considered as the earliest higher education institution devoted

specifically to military engineering in the Ottoman Empire (Barrows, 1990). As of 1847, the importance of vocational and art schools was recognized and they started to be established one after the other such as the School of Industry (1847) in İstanbul, the Forestry School (1857) to train personnel working in the field (Ürekli, 2002, p. 394); Mekteb-i Mülkiye (1859) for the need of capable civil service administrative officers (Koray, 1991).

During the Tanzimat period, Ali, Fuat and Cevdet Paşa led the way to the establishment of higher education institutions (Ürekli, 2002). As a result of their attempts, Darülfünun started to give tertiary level education in its real sense in 1863. Including departments such as the sciences, letters, law, and medicine, Darülfünun was established as a result of the aim of providing a modern and secular education (Barrows, 1990). After several closures and re-openings during a period of almost fifty years, important structural changes were made in the functioning of Darülfünun-u Osmani in 1912. Along with the division of the institution into five departments, İnas Darülfünun-u was also established in order to provide women with the opportunity of studying at the higher education institution (Kılıç, 1999).

The foundation of Mekteb-i Sultani (1868) was also notable in the Tanzimat period. Functioning as an institution in between the Ottoman junior high school and higher education, Mekteb-i Sultani can be considered as the first serious attempt of the Ottoman government to provide a modern education in a foreign language (Lewis, 2002) During the second half of the 19th century, some other tertiary level institutions such as the Teacher Training College (1848), Public Administration School (1877) School of Law (1878), Higher School of Commerce (1882), School of Fine Arts (1882), and Hamidiye Commercial College (1883) were also founded (Ministry of National Education, n.d.).

Last but not least, in 1869, Maarif Nizamnamesi (The Education Regulation) was declared on the ground that science and industry could be developed through the methods of the West and that higher education should be built upon systematic education at primary and secondary levels (Ürekli, 2002). Enforcement of compulsory education, setting up a centralized education system as well as field organisations (Gökçe, 2009), sending students abroad for education, preparation of modernized

curricula, foundation of new tertiary level institutions (Ürekli, 2002) were some of the key improvements achieved through the implementation of the Nizamname. Based on French education system and set the ground even for future educational reforms, Maarif Nizamnamesi remained in force until the republic was proclaimed in 1923.

2.1.2. The Republican Period

Both civil and military interventions that have taken place since the republic was declared in 1923 have resulted in structural arrangements in Turkish higher education system (Günay & Günay, 2017 that can basically be listed as the 1933 Reform, 1946 Reform, 1960 Reform, 1973 Reform and 1981 Reform (See Table 1). While the 1933 and 1946 higher education regulations were made during single-party governments, the regulations in 1960, 1973 and 1981 came after the coup d'etats that staged on 27 May, 12 March and 12 September, respectively (Günay & Kılıç, 2011).

Table 1
Laws on Higher Education in the Republican Period

Date of Enactment	Law No.	Amendment/Reform	Number of Articles
31 May 1933	2252	Reform	14 articles
3 June 1946	4936	Reform	81 articles and 17 temporary articles
27 October 1960	115	Amendment	40 articles
20 June 1973	1750	Amendment	85 articles and 12 temporary articles
4 November 1981	2547	Reform	68 articles and 28 temporary articles

Note: Adapted from Günay & Günay (2017, p. 158)

To begin with, only 12 days after the Turkish Grand National Assembly was established in 1920, was the Ministry of Education, which would be later known as the Ministry of National Education, founded (Okçabol, 2005a). Unification of Education Act is an important stepping stone in the area of national education at the very early years of the Turkish Republic. All institutions of education in the country were affiliated to the Ministry of Education with the Act of Unification of Education, Law No. 430 in 1924 except the Darülfünun (Güvenç, 1998). In the same year, the name of the Darülfünun, Darülfünun-u Osmani, was changed into İstanbul Darülfününu with the Law No. 493 (Atanur Başkan, 2001). In the following years,

Mustafa Kemal Atatürk gave a start to the university reform by sending successful students abroad to get education. 42 students in 1927-1928 academic year, 170 students in 1928-1929 academic year, and 288 students in 1929-1930 academic year were sent abroad (Başvekâlet İstatistik Umum Müdürlüğü, 1933).

In 1932, Albert Malche from Switzerland was invited to investigate the higher education in Turkey. After his examinations taking cue from a European model of higher education, he concluded that the education given at the Darülfünun was at the level of medieval age and lacked scientific research tradition as well as books written in Turkish, which in turn, would result in an environment that could not provide a university culture for future academics (Erdem, 2012; Ozankaya, 1994). In the light of Malche's comprehensive report about higher education in Turkey, in 1933, the Turkish Grand National Assembly enacted two important laws. The first one is that İstanbul Darülfününu, comprised of the faculties of medicine, law, letter, science and theology, was closed down since it was out of range of contemporary higher education and could not keep pace with some of Atatürk's reforms, and İstanbul University was founded instead of it (Atanur Başkan, 2001). The other law is about the establishment of the Higher Agriculture Institute in Ankara. Apparently, the Turkish higher education system was not based on a historical transformation from previous institutions such as medrese and Darülfünun; but it was directly taken from the West as the Continental European model (Gürüz, 2001).

The newly founded Republic aimed to build a higher education system that could support the Turkish revolution, urge academics to do research on problems of the country, and thus, establish strong bonds between science and society (Ozankaya, 1994). With this aim, the establishment of the School of Law in 1925 and Ankara Gazi Education Institute in 1926 are other cornerstones of the educational developments that took place in the first decade of the Republic (Ataünal, 1993). Besides, that some of the academics who escaped Hitler's reign in Germany took shelter in Turkey and started working at İstanbul University at the beginning of 1930s contributed to a large extent to the development of the Turkish higher education (Okçabol, 2005a). However, their presence in Turkey did not last long; while some of the successful German academics were invited to the States before the World War II, the other part

was granted asylum in countries such as West Germany, Switzerland, Sweden, and Hungary after 1950s (Widmann, 2000).

Upon Mustafa Kemal Atatürk's death in 1938, İsmet İnönü began heading the country throughout the following decade. In 1940s, Faculty of Science (1943) and Faculty of Medicine (1945) were founded in Ankara. Furthermore, in addition to the establishment of Ankara University and İstanbul Technical University in 1946, it was also accepted with Law No. 4936 that the universities are autonomous (Okçabol, 2005a). Although their autonomy was enacted with law, MoNE was still considered to be the head of the higher education (Tunçay, 2007). According to the regulations, the promotion of academics in 1940s was as follows: Following two-year-service after getting a PhD degree, research assistants were expected to enter a colloquium to be promoted to associate professorship. At the end of a two-year-trial and five-year-associate professorship, they were promoted as full professors (Tunçay, 2007).

When the Democrat Party came to power in 1950, the structure of the Turkish higher education that had adopted Continental European model previously, underwent a change by drawing on the American University model in order to fulfill the market's growing need of manpower (Gürüz, 2001). Accordingly, Black Sea Technical University and Ege University (1955), Middle East Technical University (1956) and Atatürk University (1957) were established (Gürüz, 2001). Although Democratic Party had hold a measured attitude towards universities in its early years in power, it then began to view them as supporters of the opposition party; and consequently the academics were banned from having part in political parties with the proposed law in 1953 (Eroğul, 2003). Taken all the progress made until the 1960s into consideration, it is clear that existing higher education institutions did not support economic, social and cultural development adequately; failed to train necessary manpower to produce and apply certain technology; provided education mostly at a theoretical level at vocational and technical higher education, and thus the students mostly preferred to study general education rather than vocational and technical education (DPT, 1963).

1960 was an important year in the sense that a military junta staged a coup, and in turn both social and political dynamics of the country were directly affected by this intervention. The distinctive feature of the 1960 coup was that the universities

provided a great deal of support to the coup not only during the preparation process but also after the coup was staged, as opposed to the 1971 and 1980 coups that were actually staged against the universities' oppositions (İnan, 1988). Still, higher education institutions were not exempt from the intervention and some changes were made by the military government. One of the first actions of the government was to discharge 147 faculty members from the universities even though this decision was canceled later as a result of wide criticisms. Additionally, an 1960 amendment to the law on universities enacted that one had to work as a research assistant more than before to be promoted to associate professorship, it became more difficult to be appointed as a full professor, and distinguished professorship was abolished (İnan, 1988). Some other noteworthy developments throughout this decade were that the impact of Ministry of National Education on universities was reduced; private associate degree programs increased in number; and Hacettepe University was established in 1967 (Okçabol, 2005a).

During the 1960s, student selection for higher education institutions also went through some changes. Until the 1960s, high school graduates could enter universities upon their application usually without any examinations; however, as the demand for the universities was on the increase, each university started to give their own entrance exams in the 1960s (ÖSYM, 2016). Nevertheless, this system did not function properly, and the Student Selection and Placement Center, which was founded in 1974 and performed its function until 1981, started to administer an annual central university entrance exam (ÖSYM, 2016).

Starting with the 1971 coup by memorandum, 1970s became another decade with substantial developments regarding the Turkish higher education. Robert College, an American school founded first in 1863 in İstanbul, was converted to Boğaziçi University with Law No. 1487 in 1971 (Gürbüz et al., 1994). In 1973, Çukurova University, Diyarbakır University, Anadolu University and Cumhuriyet University were founded (Tekeli, 1995). In the same year, Higher Education Council was founded with the Universities Law No. 1750 in order to provide coordination among the universities and carry out research and inspection to administer the Turkish higher education system (Gürbüz et al., 1994). In 1975, İnönü University, Fırat University,

Bursa University, 19 Mayıs University and Selçuk University were established (Tekeli, 1995).

Despite the important developments and changes that had been made since 1933 Reform, higher education system in Turkey at the beginning of the 1980s was still not in line with expectations of the governments and society; growing demand for higher education could not be met by the existing universities and what was worse was the climbing political turmoil at the universities (Bülbül, 2017; Tekeli, 2010). Shortly after the 1980 military coup d'état, consequently, 1981 University Reform with the Higher Education Law No. 2547 was issued; and it was a comparatively comprehensive law (Gürüz, 2001). Although the higher education in Turkey was comprised of several different institutions such as universities, academies, two-year vocational colleges and conservatories, annual education institutes, and common institution of higher education before 1980 this new reform gathered them under one roof called the Council of Higher Education (CoHE) (Bülbül, 2017) functioning as an intermediary body. Moreover, the existing academies were turned into new universities; the vocational schools and also teacher colleges which were first changed into faculties became new units of the universities (The Council of Higher Education, 1996, p.1). Other revolutionary rules and practices can be listed as the appointment of rectors, re-arrangement of the structure of the universities based on departments, the establishment of graduate schools, the decrease in in-breeding through the conversion of assistantship into research assistantship, the abolishment of preparing a dissertation to be promoted to associate professorship, the requirement of international publications and citations to these publications to be a full professor (Gürüz, 2001).

Furthermore, 1982 constitution of the Turkish Republic (2019) points out that:

> For the purpose of training manpower … universities comprising several units and having scientific autonomy and public legal personality shall be established by the State and by law … Institutions of higher education may be established, under the supervision and control of the State, by foundations in accordance with the procedures and principles set forth in the law as long as they do not pursue profit. (p. 53)

Based on this law, İhsan Doğramacı Bilkent University was established in Ankara as the first foundation university of the country in 1984, and it was followed by the

establishments of Koç University in 1992 and Başkent University in 1994 (YÖK, 2018a). As the report by the Council of Higher Education (1996) shows, existing 29 universities could not meet the increasing demand in 1992 and more than half of the applicants could not enroll at the universities, and therefore 26 new universities along with the second and third private universities were established by the end of 1994. Evening education for which students were expected to pay, started at state universities in 1992, and the academies of education were converted to the faculties of education (Okçabol, 2005a)

Similar to the increase in the number of higher education institutions, research practices at the universities outgrew during the same process, as well. As Table 2 demonstrates, while total number of articles published by academics in the Turkish universities was 532 in the mid-1980s, this number mounted up to a significant level, 2,946 in 1995 based on three internationally recognized citation indexes, which in turn increased Turkey's ranking worldwide.

Table 2
Number of Academic Articles and Turkey's Ranking in the Years 1985 and 1995

	1985		1995	
	Number	Rank	Number	Rank
Science Citation Index	493	43	2,812	34
Social Science Citation Index	31	43	114	36
Arts and Humanities Citation Index	8	45	20	37
Total Number of Articles	532		2,946	

Note: Retrieved from the Council of Higher Education (1996, p. 4)

As for the administration of higher education institutions, the articles in the 1981 Higher Education Law about the determination of the rector candidates through the suggestions of CoHE, and then appointment of them by the president of the republic. As a result, with the Law No. 3826 enacted in 1992, it was accepted that the faculty would elect rector candidates voting by secret ballot to be appointed by the president of the republic (Atanur-Başkan, 2001). Thus, appointment method was abandoned for election model in consideration with the autonomy of the universities, and it was

determined that the term of office for rectors would be four years, and a faculty member could not be elected for more than two terms (Günay & Kılıç, 2011).

While the higher education policies in the 1980s mostly focused on expanding vocational higher education institutions and open education (Günay & Günay, 2017), main issues of the 2000s were based on the Law No. 5467 and 2809 which imposed that at least one higher education institution should be founded in every city of the country (Karataş Acer & Güçlü, 2017a). Consequently, although the number of higher education institutions founded by the state had not been in increase between 1994 and 2006, it outgrew to such an extent by 2008 that each and every city in the country had at least one higher education institution (Günay & Günay, 2017). Between 2006 and 2016, the total number of higher education institutions increased from 77 to 181 (135% growth) (Karataş Acer & Güçlü, 2017a, p. 29). Despite the fact that 15 foundation universities were closed resulting from the coup d'état attempt in 2016, the current number in 2022 is 208 including both state and foundation higher education institutions (YÖK Bilgi Yönetimi Sistemi, 2022). In keeping with the numbers of these higher education institutions, the number of tertiary level students has increased roughly by 30 times nowadays, more in particular, the growth of student numbers in open and distance education since 2008 is striking (Günay & Günay, 2017).

The expansion of higher education institutions throughout the country and the student admissions has led to a sudden shortfall in the number of qualified academics. In order to overcome this issue, two models were developed: The first one is "Teaching Staff Training Programme" (ÖYP) which enabled research assistants to get their graduate education at universities providing this opportunity and then serve at newly-established ones. Although this programme had been conducted between 2002 and 2009 in a comparatively smaller scale by the State Planning Organization, the coordination was undertaken by CoHE in 2010 (YÖK, 2019). Consequently, although it was introduced as a long-term project with the aim of providing an innovative employment type in higher education, it came to an end in 2015. Some of the research assistants who were already beneficiary of the programme were even discharged from the universities following the coup d'état attempt in 2016. Moreover, with a 2017 delegated legislation and Law No. 7033, it was proclaimed that research assistant employment would be based on the contract of 50/d (Resmi Gazete, 2017). This meant

that 33/a contract, which was a comparatively "secured" type of employment, would be no more used to recruit research assistants. The other attempt is called "Graduate Study Abroad Programme" (YLSY) and carried out by MoNE. The scholarship holders are sent abroad for graduate studies and then start to work for a public institution in Turkey upon their arrivals.

One other important note on 2016 is about academic incentive allowance, which first started to be implemented at the beginning of January. It aims to provide the academics working at state universities with extra payment based on the number of their publications, research, projects, citations etc. in each academic year (Resmi Gazete, 2015). However, the incentive to increase the number of scientific activities did not lead to the same increase in the quality. Although some rectifications were made in 2016, the majority of the criteria were reviewed and changed in the following years to enhance the effectiveness of this reward system (Resmi Gazete, 2018d).

Moreover, some other radical changes in higher education were implemented in 2018 before the State of Emergency was abolished. A new law draft stating that the assistant professorship would have been discarded and the academics who would be appointed after getting doctorate degrees would be titled directly as associate professors was introduced. But rather, this draft passed into law dated 2018 with a completely different content indicating that the assistant professor title was just converted into "Doktor Öğretim Üyesi", a title that holds exactly the same authority and responsibilities with the assistant professor (Resmi Gazete, 2018a). On the other hand, the abolition of oral exam requirement to be promoted to associate professorship was accepted. The evaluation of applicants has solely been based on their academic works only if the institution they are affiliated with does not oblige them to take the oral exam. At the same time, the requirement of a foreign language score was diminished to 55 for associate professorship (Resmi Gazete, 2018c). Moreover, despite oppositions from both academics and students, some faculties and departments of 20 old line universities, four of which were foundation, were transferred to the newly established universities in the same year, with the Law no. 7141 (Resmi Gazete, 2018b). Last but not least, the implementation of norm staff at universities started at the same year (Resmi Gazete, 2018e). The authority of determining necessary staff was taken from CoHE and transferred to university administrations. Although the aim

is to balance the number of faculty members at universities all around the country, there is a danger that promotions of academic staff result in bureaucratic barriers due to the limitations.

2.2. Teacher Education System in Turkey

In the mid-1800s, the education system of the Ottoman Empire consisted of three levels: primary education (sıbyan mektebi), secondary school (rüştiye) and university (darülfünun); and that four-year-primary school education was made compulsory through 1847 Enactment (Okçabol, 2005b). Following this, the first modern teacher training institution (Darülülmuallimin-i Rüşdi) to educate secondary school teachers was founded on 16 March 1848 in İstanbul (Unat, 1964). Then, on 16 March 1868, the first teacher training institution (Darülülmuallimin-i Sıbyan) to educate male primary school teachers was established (Okçabol, 2005b). It was declared in the 1869 General Education Regulations that a teacher training institution for women (Darülmuallimat) would be opened to meet the teaching staff demands in the first primary and secondary schools which had been founded for female students in 1858 (Özkan, 2016). Established in 1874, the Grand Teachers' School was comprised of primary, elementary and high school divisions; and its curriculum contained courses based on methodology and pedagogy (Uygun, 2008).

In 1890, with the publication of Instructions for Professional Expertise in Teaching, the required characteristics of teachers were determined as commitment to teaching, being a moral person, and employing themselves only in teaching (Kuru & Uzun, 2008). Moreover, graduates of teacher training institutions were given priority to be employed; and their appointments were carried out after six-month-training at schools in Istanbul (Dilaver, 1994, as cited in Kuru & Uzun, 2008, p. 211). It is estimated that the country was in need of around seventy thousand teachers in the Second Constitutional Period and the Ministry of Education tried to develop policies to meet this need (Ergün, 1987). As a result, this period, started in 1908, is known for important strides regarding teacher training. The curricula of teacher training institutions were expanded with courses such as painting and handicraft; a practicum school was established to provide teacher candidates with traineeship opportunities, Certificate of Teaching became compulsory for primary school teachers; and lastly,

teacher training schools were reoriented along with Darülmuallimin and Darülmuallimat established in 1913 and 1915 respectively (Duman & Karagöz, 2016). Although 1550 primary school teacher candidates were getting education in 21 teacher training institutions in 1913-1914 academic year, the education was interrupted with the eruption of the World War I (Okçabol, 2005b).

In the early 1920s, Mustafa Kemal Atatürk, founder of the new Turkish Republic, believed that teachers were both guides and of the essence of reformist movements in the society whose education is of great importance in order to secularize and improve the socioeconomic status of the country (Çakıroğlu & Çakıroğlu, 2010). In order to get professional help from a prominent figure in the area of education, John Dewey was invited by the Ministry of Education in 1924, and he prepared a report through which he focused on teachers' pay raise and required reforms in teacher schools in order to increase not only status of in-service teachers but also education of pre-service teachers (Uygun, 2008). Considering the distinct characteristics and needs of rural and urban areas in 1926, two separate teacher education schemes were developed: i) primary teacher schools for urban district, ii) village teacher schools for rural district; yet this system was terminated in 1930 (Gürşimşek et al., 1997).

Having laid the ground in 1935 and started trial education program in 1937, Village Institutes were officially founded with the Law No. 3803 in 1940; and the aim of the institutes was determined to educate mainly village teachers and also members of professions such as health officers and technicians (Aysal, 2005). The institutes, displaying features of polytechnic education, realism, pragmatism, and constructivism, were established with an understanding of expanding the "founding ideology and culture" of the Republic (Erkılıç, 2003, pp. 14-16). The understanding behind them was also predominated with "principles of democracy, collaboration and problem solving in real-life situations" (Çakıroğlu & Çakıroğlu, 2010, p. 255). According to the law, village children who graduated from primary school were accepted to the institutes, and after finishing the five-year-program, they were appointed to village schools in order to do compulsory service for a duration of 20 years in return for salary, agricultural equipment and a piece of land (Aysal, 2005).

Despite the salient success of the project, the Village Institutes were not exempt from harsh criticism. That the schools accepted solely villager kids led to the discrimination between villager and citizen; that the schools were tend to teach leftist political views; that the coeducation system at school was unfavorable for Turkish families were some of the issues denounced by opponents of the institutes (Aysal, 2005). As a result, when Democrat Party was in power in 1954, these institutes whose curriculum consisted of agriculture, technical and culture-based courses were joined to Primary Teacher Schools maintaining that it would not be possible to train both teachers, agriculturalists and craftsmen at the same time and interrupting the work of teachers in such a way is detrimental to the school work (Akyüz, 2010, as cited in Karakök, 2011, p. 96). As a result, teacher training schools started to provide a six-year-education; and while the number of schools was around 42 in the middle of 1950s, the number increased to 52 towards the late 1950s (Özkan, 2016).

In 1970-1971 academic year, period of study at Primary Teacher Schools was increased to seven years for primary school graduates and four years for secondary school graduates; and in this way teacher candidates at Teacher Training Schools started to get education based completely on a standard high school curriculum in addition to extra courses related to their profession (Deringöl, 2007). Then in 1973, the National Education Basic Law entailed higher education degree for all teacher candidates; and therefore, Primary Teacher Schools were converted into Teacher Training High Schools and two-year Education Institutes, whose graduates would be classroom teachers, became in charge of teacher education programs for primary schools (Gürşimşek et al., 1997).

In 1982, the work of teacher training was taken from the Ministry of Education and this responsibility was assigned to universities with delegated legislation no. 41 (Resmi Gazete, 1982). Accordingly, in the same year, Education Institutes were converted to Education Academies that were made a part of universities (Erdem, 2015). Consequently, institutions related to teacher training under the umbrella of universities consisted of 2 parts: i) two-year Education Academies for primary teachers and ii) four-year Education Faculties for secondary and high school teachers (Küçükahmet et al., 2000). Education Academies in 1992, were first converted into the Department of Preschool Education and Classroom Instruction Education and then

divided into two as the Department of Preschool Education and the Department of Classroom Instruction Education under the roof of Faculty of Education (Öztürk, 1998 as cited in Deringöl, 2007, p. 22). To conclude, teachers teaching at every grade and in each branch were required to get a four-year undergraduate degree at faculties of education at universities (Erdem, 2015).

After the 1960s, some undergraduate and graduate students who had been sent to the States for education began working at teacher training institutions upon their returning and they started to direct teacher training in Turkey towards an American understanding rather than the European tradition; and this transformation came with a view that both academic and content knowledge courses should be given importance more than before (Yüksel, 2008). In line with this, when CoHE started a project in cooperation with the World Bank aiming to develop a new teacher training system in 1994, this effort led to a radical change with the removal of some courses such as history of education, philosophy of education and sociology of education from the curriculum (Okçabol, 2007). The implementation of this new teacher training model in 1997 also resulted in the closure of undergraduate programs such as adult education, educational administration and planning, assessment and evaluation, program development (Okçabol, 2005b). In other words, some undergraduate courses that could provide teacher candidates with pedagogical skills and also some undergraduate programs for educational specialists were eliminated from the faculties of education by the policies of CoHE. Besides, the profile of the staff at faculties of education had already started to change with the 1982 Reform and it became even more evident during the implementation of this new project. Instructors who had been working as teachers previously without academic any practices were replaced with academics from faculties of arts and sciences and who were engaged with research but had no teaching experience, which in turn resulted in promoting the theoretical and content knowledge courses in the curricula rather than pedagogical and professional knowledge (Yüksel, 2008).

Although 1982 Reform was satisfying in the sense that there was an uplift in the status of teaching profession and also that the universities instead of Ministry of Education were in charge of teacher training from then on, some criticism regarding the implementation process urged towards 1997 Reform. This reform issued some

important decisions such that content knowledge courses in the curriculum would occupy a smaller extent in the curriculum and some of them would be incorporated into pedagogy courses; content knowledge courses would be taught by academics from the faculties of arts and sciences, the amount of practice teaching of the teacher trainees at practicum schools would extend; non-thesis master's degree program would be carried out in the teacher education; and separate pedagogical formation programs would be started specifically preschool teacher education, classroom teacher education and English language teacher education due to severe teacher deficiency (Kavak et al., 2007).

Moreover, open Education Faculty was given authority to open and conduct English Language Teaching and Preschool Teaching programs (Okçabol, 2007). Last but not least, a National Committee of Teacher Education was established in 1998 in order to provide CoHE with suggestions about accreditation, evaluation of teacher education programs, determination of teacher deficiency as well as short- and long-term planning for teacher education (Kavak et al., 2007). However, as CoHE either could not realize some of the objectives or experienced problems during implementation process, the need for further regulations still prevailed.

The third reform movement in faculties of education was in 2006. The new regulation suggested that content knowledge courses would take up 50-60%, pedagogical content knowledge courses 25-30% and world knowledge courses 15-20% of the curricula in each department of the faculty of education. Moreover, community service course and elective courses were added into the curricula while practicum hours were decreased; and the department of religious culture and moral knowledge was removed from the faculty of theology and restructured under the faculty of education (Kavak et al., 2007). As a result, the 2006 Reform became a regulation in which the importance of professional side of teacher education programs was underscored rather than academic side especially with addition of educational and foundational courses (Yüksel, 2008).

The fourth regulation with an important impact on teacher education system was made in 2010. CoHE decided to abolish the non-thesis master's degree program and implement a two-semester pedagogical formation program for students at the faculty of arts and sciences instead. Since students could enter the faculties of education with

higher scores than that of students at the faculties of arts and sciences and also study for a period of five years, this decision led to plenty of pushback from both academics and students at faculties of education (Özoğlu, 2010). Later, the period of study at secondary education field teaching program was lowered to four from five years in 2014-2015 academic year (YÖK, 2018b). Additionally, General Competencies of Teaching Profession was reviewed and Teacher Strategy Document was published in 2017, both of which indicated new competencies, expectations and aims for teaching profession (YÖK, 2018b).

In 2018, another regulation on teacher education programs was brought in for the amelioration of 2010 regulations. To begin with some of the changes, expectations from teacher candidates were revised. It is stated that pre-service teachers are expected graduate i) knowing universal, national and local/regional cultures, and the differences and similarities between them, ii) becoming a role model regarding cultural, ethical, and moral values, and iii) becoming technology literate and researcher (YÖK, 2018b, p. 13). Moreover, *School Experience* course was replaced with *Practice Teaching I* in all undergraduate programs, and *Practice Teaching* course in the eighth semester was renamed *Practice Teaching II* (YÖK, 2018b). The new programs have consisted of 45-50% content knowledge courses, 30-35% pedagogical content knowledge courses and 15-20% world knowledge courses at the faculties of education (YÖK, 2018b, p. 15). *Sociology of Education, History of Turkish Education, Philosophy of Education* and *Morals and Ethics in Education* have become common pedagogical content knowledge courses in all departments (YÖK, 2018b, p. 17). CoHE also acknowledged that there is further need to update current programs in order to conform to Bologna Process and for the projects of quality and accreditation in line with EU regulations (YÖK, 2018b). The 2018 regulation became the last change to teacher education programs by CoHE as it was followed by a process known as CoHE's delegation of authority to faculties of education in 2020.

2.2.1. English Language Teacher Education in Turkey

It is well known that a country's foreign language teaching policy can be shaped by various religious, economic, social and political dimensions. This has been the case for Turkey especially since the late Ottoman period. Arabic was used as not only

language of teaching but also language of course materials in medrese in the Ottoman Empire (Aygün, 2008) for religious purposes. In addition to this, French was introduced as an elective language while English was compulsory as a Western Language in a newly established school, Mühendishane-i Bahri Hümayun, in 1773 (Akyüz, 2001). While teaching French at schools became a priority both with the regulations of Tanzimat Reform Era and impact of France, German was in the foreground during the constitutional period (Cem, 1978, as cited in Demirel, 2003, p. 7).

In 1923 July, German, French and English were accepted as foreign languages to be taught at schools in the first national education council while Persian would be totally abolished and Arabic would merely be used at religious high schools (Tok, 2006). As primary education and literacy in Turkish was the central focus of the first decade of Turkish Republic, foreign language teaching remained in the background, and foreign language learning was viewed as a tool for conveying culture and technique through translation (Aygün, 2008). Later in 1938-1939 academic year, İstanbul University and MoNE established a foreign language higher education school to meet the increasing need of language teachers (Demircan, 1988). In this two-year school, students were taught for the first year in Istanbul University and then in their second year, they were sent to the countries in which German, French or English were spoken; however, the school was closed in 1944 as students could not study at those countries as a result of World War II (İnceçay, 2011).

The 1st National Education Council met in 1939 and suggested that foreign language teachers be trained at Gazi Institution of Education, and thus French, English and German Language Teaching departments were established in 1941, 1944, 1947 respectively (Demircan, 1988). The 3rd National Education Council in 1946 led to the establishment of new language teacher education departments in the Institutions of Education in Diyarbakır, Eskişehir, Konya, Bursa, Erzurum and İzmir with the aim of preparing foreign language teachers for high schools; and in the 4th National Education Council in 1949, education period in those schools was raised to three years to provide students with more qualified education (İnceçay, 2011). During this period, English took precedence over French in Turkey due to political and economic growth of the United States of America globally (Doğançay Aktuna, 1998). Moreover, Turkey's

foreign language policy was geared towards English for some other important factors such as the Cold War period, Turkey's membership to NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization) and associate membership to EU (European Union) (Kartal & Başol, 2019; Kırkgöz, 2009). The unavoidable rise of English as the new lingua franca resulted in high demand for learning and teaching English as a foreign language in the Turkish context, and therefore the need for English language teaching programs increased as well.

Since the establishment of CoHE in 1981, all teacher education programs in Turkey have undergone changes in accordance with relevant developments taking place in the States and Europe as well as with the impact of academics who got their education in those countries (Mahalingappa & Polat, 2013). To begin with, foreign language teacher education programs, as other teacher education programs, were reshaped through the Higher Education Law in 1981. Namely, universities took charge of teacher training in order to provide a standardized and qualified training, and therefore teacher education institutions were changed into faculties of education. In this way, foreign language teacher candidates were expected to complete a standardized four-year undergraduate degree at faculties of education. Despite this structural change, MoNE and CoHE still work collaboratively cooperatively to organize and update foreign language teacher education programs.

On the other hand, it is important to note that faculties of education were not the single source for foreign language teachers despite the attempts of standardization. Students at faculties of arts and science or graduates of English medium universities who complete a pedagogical formation program can also be certified to work as teachers (Demirel, 1991), and this ongoing practice has been criticized and become a controversial issue especially for members of faculties of education (Yıldırım & Ok, 2002). Language policy implementations at K-12 schools had a serious impact on ELTE programs and teacher candidates as well. Regarding this, Kırkgöz (2009) underscores two important stages: 1983 Foreign Language Education and Teaching Act determining bases of secondary and high school foreign language teaching and 1984 Higher Education Act. Later in 1997, another notable ELT curriculum change by MoNE was carried out. This attempt was important in the sense that Turkey updated and accommodated ELT policies and implementations in accordance with EU

requirements. Thanks to this comprehensive curriculum change, EFL started to be introduced at fourth grade in primary schools (MEB, 1997), and in turn this had an impact on English language teaching programs at universities as well.

Right after the curriculum change by MoNE in 1997, CoHE set out a reform to reorganize ELTE programs at universities in 1998 both to be responsive to local changes made by MoNE and also to international ELT trends. To begin with, as both fourth and fifth grade students became new EFL learners, a new course titled as *Teaching English to Young Learners* was included in pre-service ELTE program (YÖK, 1998) so that prospective teachers could address the needs of young learners. Moreover, CoHE aimed to ameliorate the practicum dimension of ELTE programs by spreading practicum courses to 3 semesters (YÖK, 1998) as pre-service teachers had had restricted hours of observation and teaching experience at practicum schools and also only one practice teaching course at university before 1998 reform (Enginarlar, 1996)

The following reform was made in 2006 in order to update the programs and address the criticisms of 1998 reform. The ELTE program was also updated in a way that it comprised of around 58% content knowledge, 27% pedagogical knowledge and 15% general culture courses, which meant that the ratio of general culture courses was increased compared to previous program, and the main reason for that was to enhance pre-service teachers' intellectual capacity (YÖK, 2007a). Additionally, faculties of education became less dependent on CoHE to be able to determine elective courses in each program (YÖK, 2007a). Last but not least, a new course titled *Community Service* was integrated into the program so that pre-service teachers would become problem-solvers (YÖK, 2007a).

Next teacher education program revision was made in 2018. The first noteworthy change in the new program was that the number of courses increased although course hours diminished. Additionally, new courses such as 'Morals and Ethics in Education' was added into the program. Thus, the program consisted of around 48% content knowledge, 34% pedagogical knowledge and 18% world knowledge courses. Also, the ratio of elective courses in the program increased up to 25%. In other words, while the number of content knowledge courses decreased, the weight of pedagogical

knowledge and general culture courses increased. As Yaman (2018) states although this may seem as though becoming a teacher itself is more important than becoming a field-based teacher, effective use of elective courses may balance the situation on behalf of content knowledge courses. 2020, on the other hand, became an importamt year for faculties of education with regard to undergraduate teacher education program. CoHE officially started a process known as delegation of authority in August 2020. By means of this process, CoHE granted authorization of developing, arranging and updating undergraduate programs to faculties of education on condition that they would base their related practices on the existing classification of courses (i.e., content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and world knowledge). CoHE declared that this transfer of authority would turn faculties of education to more autonomous units.

Determining common qualifications and competencies was another important outcome of ELTE programs and professional gain for pre-service teachers to be able to keep up with the developments regarding ELT both in the EU countries and the USA. Although the USA and the UK had started to determine common qualifications and competencies for teachers as early as 1970s, the first attempt about this issue was started in Turkey in 1998 (MEB, 2017). Thus, MoNE, in coordination with CoHE and the World Bank, began to determine teacher training standards with an aim to design "an important framework for the development of policies for teacher education" and "a guide to teachers in terms of their personal and professional development" (MEB, 2017, p. 1). The latest update for teachers' qualifications and competencies was realized in 2017 by MoNE to meet both national and international requirements (See Table 3), and in turn CoHE also revised English Language Teaching Programs regarding content (Kartal & Başol, 2019).

These competencies that pre-service teachers in ELTE programs are expected to gain are realized with the help of both theoretical content and practicum component the program. Consequently, pre-service teachers at ELTE programs at Turkish universities at present are taught with a curriculum comparable to that of TESOL program considering courses such as "language and linguistics, SLA theories, learner variables, English teaching methods, foundations of learning and teaching, practicum, instruction, assessment/evaluation, and educational/pedagogical subjects" (Mahalingappa & Polat, 2013). Thanks to the ongoing process of revisions and

reforms regarding not only the course contents but also necessary teacher qualifications and competencies both personal and professional development of pre-service teachers at ELTE programs is tried to be maximized.

Table 3
General Competencies for Teachers

A Professional Knowledge	**B Professional Skills**	**C Attitudes and Values**
A1. Content Knowledge	**B1. Planning of Education and Teaching**	**C1. National, Moral and Universal Values**
She/he has an advanced and critical perspective on theoretical, methodological and factual knowledge in his/her subject field.	She/he plans education and teaching processes effectively.	She/he observes national, moral and universal values.
A2. Pedagogical Content Knowledge	**B2. Creating Learning Environments**	**C2. Approach to Students**
She/he has a good knowledge of the curriculum and pedagogical content knowledge of her/his subject area.	She/he prepares appropriate teaching materials and builds a healthy and safe learning environment, where effective learning can be achieved for all students.	She/he has an attitude that supports the development of students.
A3. Knowledge on Legislation	**B3. Managing the Teaching and Learning Process**	**C3. Communication and Cooperation**
As an individual and teacher, she/he conducts her/himself according to the legislation related to her/his duties, rights and responsibilities.	She/he manages the teaching and learning process effectively.	She/he establishes an effective communication and cooperation with students, colleagues, families, and other educational stakeholders.
	B4. Assessment and Evaluation	**C4. Personal and Professional Development**
	She/he uses the methods, techniques and tools of assessment and evaluation that fit for purpose.	By carrying out self-appraisal she/he participates in personal and professional development activities.

Note: Retrieved from MEB, 2017, p. 14

2.2.2. English Language Teacher Educators in Turkey

It is commonly acknowledged that teacher educators are the very essence of both teacher education programs and ongoing professional development of teachers (Al-Issa, 2017; Vloet & van Swet, 2010). On the other hand, despite the fact that teacher educators are of great importance, there is little research on their professionalism. Some institutions in the States such as TEAC (the Teacher Education Accreditation Council), ATE (the Association of Teacher Educators), and NCATE (the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education) have provided relatively clear criteria expected from teacher educators; however, there is not an officially recognized framework indicating necessary professional standards or criteria for English language teacher educators in the Turkish context (Çelik, 2011).

English language teacher educators in the Turkish academia may be comprised of two groups: One is *teaching staff members* who are instructors, lecturers, and ancillary staff, and the other is *teaching faculty members* who are professors, associate professors, and assistant professors holding at least a PhD degree (YÖK, 2000, p. 2). As members of academic staff at state universities, English language teacher educators are also liable for the provisions of National Public Civil Servant Law, No. 657. Both faculty members and full-time teaching staff are recruited according to unlimited contracts and decisions regarding their salaries are given by the state (Mızıkacı, 2006). Although it does not specifically address teacher educators, Article 22 in the Higher Education Law enacted in 1981 is the sole official document describing roughly the duties of teaching staff at the Turkish universities (YÖK, 2000, p. 24):

a) To carry out and have carried out education and practical studies at the pre-baccalaureate, baccalaureate and post-graduate (post-baccalaureate) levels in the institutions of higher education in line with the purpose and objectives of this law, and to direct project preparations and seminars.

b) To undertake scientific and scholarly research for publication in the institutions of higher education.

c) In accordance with a program arranged by the head of the related unit, to set aside certain days for the advising and guidance of students, helping them as needed and directing them in line with the aims and basic principles of this law.

d) To carry out the duties assigned by authorized organs.

e) To perform other duties assigned by this law.

The weekly teaching hours of English language teacher educators are regulated by CoHE and depend on their academic titles. Namely, instructors and lecturers are supposed to teach a minimum of 12 hours weekly while teaching load is a minimum of ten for faculty members (YÖK, 2000). Nevertheless, due to the growing number of graduate and undergraduate students as well as course variety, teaching staff may usually be expected to teach more than minimums, even up to 30 hours (Mızıkacı, 2006). Considering that English language teacher educators are viewed as "role models" as well as "powerful socialization agents" by pre-service teacher (Al-Issa, 2005, p. 374), their teaching and organizational skills gain extra importance. Therefore, developing a cooperative network among the stakeholders of teacher education system becomes one of the most critical duties of ELT teacher educators. In other words, English language teacher educators are expected to teach theoretical component of practicum courses at university; lead pre-service teachers to pre-assigned K-12 schools to work under the supervision of mentor teachers; observe and evaluate their teaching performance at some of the English classes; and provide constructive, pedagogical and content-specific feedbacks upon their teachings. Moreover, it is important to note that it is highly demanding for English language teacher educators to manage this two-semester practicum process in successful cooperation with mentor teachers at K-12 schools and pre-service teachers who strive for developing teaching skills and competencies.

Although the article 22 simply shows that academic staff at universities are expected to be immersed in duties such as "research, service, supervision, guidance and if appointed, administrative activities" in addition to teaching (Mızıkacı, 2006, p. 87), the expected professional qualities of the staff is not mentioned. Thus, the lack of a common ground that clearly indicates necessary standards specific to English language teacher educators has also led to unfitting recruitment practices in ELTE programs. In other words, academics with various content knowledge and disciplines have also been employed in ELTE programs as a result of both lack of qualified staff and non-existing or ambiguous professional standards (Mahalingappa & Polat, 2013).

This serious shortfall in the supply of qualified English language teacher educators impeded pre-service teachers from getting quality education at the beginning of 1990s

(Demirel, 1991). As a result, a project titled as *Pre-service Teacher Education Project* was conducted with contributions of the World Bank between 1994 and 1999 in order to provide academics at the Faculties of Education with professional development opportunities by sending them abroad to do MA, PhD or postdoctoral research (YÖK, 2007b). Furthermore, in 1997, CoHE also allocated 750 study abroad scholarships specifically to the fields related to teacher education (YÖK, 2007b). Although these could be considered as promising steps, Çelik (2009) revealed that hierarchical and centralized structure of the Turkish higher education did not readily lay itself open to change that would be brought about by returning teacher educators. Correspondingly, hierarchical and centralized structure of the Turkish higher education as a hindrance against bottom-up change was also evident in Yavuz and Zehir-Topkaya's (2013) study. They revealed that English langauge teacher educators, as important stakeholders of the teacher education system, believed that new ELTE program introduced in 2006 was a to-down implementation since their views were not incorporated into the final design by CoHE or MoNE.

The performance evaluation of English language teacher educators is the same as of other academic staff at the university. They are evaluated on two bases, which are student opinion surveys and the submission of faculty performance reports. For the first one, students are asked to fill in surveys at the end of each academic semester through which teaching performance of academic staff as well as the course itself are evaluated. As for faculty performance reports, academic staff inform rectorate each academic year about their research projects, publications, courses given, attendance and presentations at academic conferences (Mızıkacı, 2006). That the results of the cumulative reports are submitted to CoHE, which specifically suggests each university enhancement or promotion of achievements and evaluations are not based on national standards indicates that "promotion and development of academic staff in higher education institutions has to have its own specific, appropriate grounding" (Mızıkacı, 2006, p. 89). Similarly, Çelik also (2011) maintains:

> In the current hierarchical structure of Turkish universities, there is no self-regulation, and instead of autonomous reviews oriented towards development, there are strict procedures and formal reports aimed at control. Furthermore, the top-down command and rule chain among faculty members often does not promote a mentor-mentee relationship between younger, less experienced faculty and older and renowned professors to inspire mutual learning, and what

> is worse, the power of personal and professional interests and relationships interferes with academic decisions. (pp. 36-37)

As a solution for this problem, Çelik (2011, pp. 36-37) suggests implementing individual and institutional level "peer review of teaching and research", an objective system that includes the contributions of students and faculty members, external peer review as well as quality assurance bodies. An objective and well-functioning peer review system is expected to foster cooperation between English language teacher educators and enable both teacher educators and higher education institutions to rely on a framework to evaluate professional standards and qualities.

Having provided background information regarding higher education system, teacher education system, English Language Teacher Education and English Language Teacher Educators in Turkey, the study displays the sociopolitical context in which English language teacher educators act professionally. The following chapter, literature review, aims to present detailed information regarding both teacher educators' roles and identity and also neoliberalism as the theoretical framework of the study.

2.3. Current Issues in the Turkish Higher Education

Starting with the establishment of the Turkish Republic in 1923, the population of the country has increased steadily. The demand for higher education has grown in direct proportion to the population, which in turn has led to the increase in the number of higher education institutions and academic staff as well. Table 4 shows the growth between 1923 and 2019.

Table 4
Numbers of Universities, Students and Academic Staff (1923-2019)

Number of Universities			Number of Students			Number of Academic Staff		
1923-1924	2003-2004	2018-2019	1923-1924	2003-2004	2018-2019	1923-1924	2003-2004	2018-2019
1	77	207	2.913	1.946.442	7.740.502	307	77.065	166.225

Note: Adapted from MoNE, Research, Planning and Coordination Directorate & Higher Education Data Management System, Higher Education Statistics

Besides, “restructuring universities in a global market economy, reports from the Council of Higher Education on higher education strategies in 2007 and 2014, national development planning activities, … a youth population of 16.4%, and the current government policy” (Karataş Acer & Güçlü, 2017b, p. 1912) have led to the spread of the higher education institutions around the country.

The current higher education structure is basically composed of associate (minimum of 2 years), undergraduate (minimum of 4 years), and graduate degrees (MA degree, PhD degree, expertise and proficiency in arts) (Bülbül, 2017). The applicants are placed into an associate and/or undergraduate program depending on both their secondary school diploma grade and most importantly their scores in the university entrance exam. As for academic staff, to be recruited and promoted, the applicants need to meet certain common criteria determined by the Turkish CoHE and IB and some other particular criteria set by the specific institutions they apply or work for.

Despite the changes over the years, the ongoing structure of the Turkish higher education is still mainly based on the Higher Education Law No. 2547 enacted in 1981. Since the Law was prepared following the 1980 coup d’état and enacted when the military was still in power, it is evident that it was predominated by an understanding which was based on a strict centralized administration of all higher education institutions that were highly different from one another regarding both physical characteristics and human resources (Küçükcan & Gür, 2009).

Additionally, over the years, as the direct impact of current socioeconomic conditions in the world and in accordance with the addition of new articles to the 1981 Turkish Higher Education Law, universities in Turkey have become more prone to effects of neoliberal policies and practices which transform both individuals (Canaan & Shumar, 2008) and institutions. In other words, the higher education in Turkey has been reshaped in such a way that the market has a bigger but the state has a lesser portion especially since 80s by virtue of the EU membership process and market-driven economy (Sallan Gül & Gül, 2014) Therefore, one important issue in the Turkish higher education has become the triadic connection among the higher education, the market and the state. Moreover, the last two decades have witnessed the integration of

neoliberalism and conservatism as a tool leading the state's educational policy under AKP governments. Their ruling has been marked by the implementation of neoliberal educational policies to comply with EU requirements (İnal, 2012; İnal & Akkaymak, 2012) under the effect of globalization.

As a result, the discrepancy between the higher education system's effort to keep up with the changing international academic and market standards, the rigor of the 1981 Higher Education Law despite periodic changes and current political situation have resulted in some important issues underlying the overall higher education system. Several issues out of many can be outlined as:

- Autonomy of the universities
- Academic freedom
- Academic publication
- Academic appointment and promotion

Although these issues are all evidently and inherently interwoven, they are addressed under separate titles for a more focused analysis of each.

2.3.1. Autonomy of Universities

Constrained autonomy of the universities due to the centralized higher education system (Çelik & Gür, 2014) is a frequently discussed issue in the Turkish higher education system. Autonomy occupies an important place in the policies of the EUA (European University Association), and Prague Declaration (2009) by EUA clearly underscores its importance:

> Universities need strengthened autonomy to better serve society and specifically to ensure favourable regulatory frameworks which allow university leaders to design internal structures efficiently, select and train staff, shape academic programmes and use financial resources, all of these in line with their specific institutional missions and profiles. (2009, p. 5)

Additionally, EUA, who states that autonomy is one of the ten success factors for universities in Europe, puts forward four criteria of autonomy through the Lisbon Declaration in 2007: i) academic, ii) financial, iii) organizational and iv) staffing (Estermann et al., 2011, p. 9). Based on these criteria, while the Turkish state universities rank almost at the bottom as being 27th out of 28 European countries

regarding organizational autonomy; they can be categorized within the medium-low band in academic, financial and staffing autonomy (Estermann et al., 2011).

As with other countries, violation of higher education institutions' autonomy as well as that of individual academics is a common phenomenon in Turkey. On the other hand, it is not necessarily possible to confront those violations because not only state universities but also foundation universities are sturdily linked to the state through grants and/or accreditation (Aktaş et al., 2019). In the Turkish higher education context, the universities are formed in such a centralized way that all types of issues such as appointment and recruitment of faculty members, students' admission to the programs, student quotas allocated to each program, the process of starting a new program or department, faculty misconduct and discipline are subject to the supervision of CoHE (Sallan Gül & Gül, 2014). Therefore, since the very early days of its establishment, CoHE has become the target of various criticism, but none more so than being an actor delimiting the autonomy of universities. Thus, demands for a higher education reform have been commonly held not only in academia but also in reports released by the Turkish State Planning Organization. For instance, it was distinctly indicated in the Seventh Five Year Development Plan that both red tape and centralization resulting from the practices of CoHE would be cut through; the inclusion of faculty members, research assistants and students into the administration of universities would be ensured; and equality of opportunity for students aiming to enter a university would be increased (DPT, 1995)

In the next Eighth Five Year Development Plan, it was suggested that the Council of Higher Education Coordination should be founded with the aim of enabling coordination and planning among universities instead of CoHE which had extensive authority (DPT, 2000). Similarly, it was restated in the Ninth Five Year Development Plan that CoHE would be restructured as an institution responsible from coordination, planning and standards (DPT, 2006). On the other hand, despite the reports indicating that CoHE was in need of restructuring, CoHE stated that it was not themselves but the Turkish higher education system that needed a refom (Eğitim-Sen, 2018).

Then, in the Tenth Five Year Development Plan, the latest one, the centralized structure of CoHE was once again repeated underscoring its negative effect on the

potential of the Turkish higher education to compete academically in an international area and its failure to address the needs of the society (DPT, 2013). Therefore, the need for restructuring CoHE to be in charge of coordination, planning and standards was reiterated in the plan (DPT, 2013). As the chronological order of the reports already indicates, however, those suggestions could not be put into practice by the governments in power, and they continued to be suggested incessantly in the following plans. Although AKP harshly criticized the politics of CoHE when the party first came into power and accused it of damaging democracy, CoHE have continued with similar policies even in a more centralized way (Öztürk, 2015) under AKP ruling.

The politics of AKP have aimed to bring far-reaching reforms leading to delimitation of the autonomy of higher education institutions. In 2008, the way of determining president of TÜBİTAK (the Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey) was changed. According to new regulation, the Prime Minister would start to select between two candidates that were determined by the Scientific Committee and then submit to the President to be appointed (TÜBİTAK, 2012, p. 15). Presidents of the Turkish Academy of Sciences had been determined by election between 1993 and 2011. However, with a delegated legislation dated 2011 and numbered 662, presidents were started to be appointed by the Prime Minister for a three-year-period from among the three candidates specified by the Academy (KHK No 662, 1993). Consequently, the execution of these decisions has resulted in a more centralized administration of the Turkish higher education.

2.3.2. Academic Freedom

The way and extent of implementation of academic freedom may vary in line with the types and policies of higher education institutions; however, it is possible to provide a conventional definition of the concept**.** It can be described as "the freedom of teachers and students to teach, study, and pursue knowledge and research without unreasonable interference or restriction from law, institutional regulations, or public pressure" (Kandiyoti & Emanet, 2017, p. 869). Back in 1940, American Association of University Professors (1970, p. 14) also stated that

> Academic freedom applies to both teaching and research. Freedom in research is fundamental to the advancement of truth. Academic freedom in its teaching aspect is fundamental for the protection of the rights of the teacher in teaching and of the student to freedom in learning.

It is also necessary to highlight that academic freedom does not exist in isolation, and what is more, its stability and permanence are contingent upon other factors. To illustrate, academic freedom and autonomy of universities, as Woodhouse (2009) maintains, are intertwined, and intellectual freedom of academics coexists with the freedom of society they belong to, as well. Likewise, Gillin (2008, p. 307) underlines, "academic freedom protects both the individual faculty member's authority to teach free from undue interference and the institutional authority to run a university free from political intervention." If academics feel that they have to stand apart from their own political views, religious beliefs and ideologies, they begin to experience alienation. When there is lack of academic freedom, there is also a risk that academics try to teach solely theory and knowledge without discussion and negotiation, which in turn may result in apolitical students (Dinler, 2013).

Altbach (2000) states that in certain Islamic countries where there are political turmoils, periodic or sustained problems with democracy, and conflicts between ideological groups in universities, there might be disparities between academia and governments; and in turn, faculty may severely suffer from governmental impositions and interventions if their institutions do not have an established culture of academic freedom and autonomy. However, his claim cannot be restricted only to certain countries bearing Islamic characteristics, but rather might have implications for any country facing with problems about democracy across the world. For instance, in Turkey, officially a secular state, the foundation of CoHE, shortly after 1980 coup as an institution establishing control on previously autonomous higher education institutions, is commonly viewed as breaking point through which academic freedom was injured seriously (Kandiyoti & Emanet, 2017). On the other hand, the first noteworthy academic freedom restriction may be traced back to the government of Democrat Party. Although the party, which had been supported substantially by the academics especially during Menderes's elevation to the prime ministry, was known for being a strong supporter of university autonomy, several laws enacted by the government in 1953 seriously dealt a blow to academic freedom (Weiker, 1962).

Weiker (1962) suggests that Turkish scholars were highly involved in politics, through which he implied the underlying reason for the enactment of those laws, yet he also admits that their disengagement from societal problems is not necessarily preferable as universities have an important potential to solve these problems.

More recently, two important delegated legislations by the government following the 2016 coup d'état attempt caused a serious conflict within the academia. In other words, academics were widely affected by the delegated legislations introduced during the next two years. In this two-year-period, 5904 academics and 1408 administrative staff in total were discharged from the higher education institutions by the delegated legislations (Eğitim-Sen, 2018, p. 3). On the other hand, even before the 2016 coup d'état attempt, the relationships between the government and a particular group of academics had already become tense. At the beginning of January 2016, more than 1000 academics, started to be known later as "Academics for Peace", signed a petition through which they called the government to take action to cease military action in the southeast part of the country. Charged with terrorist propaganda, the majority of academics had been dismissed (World Report, 2017). When these academics had eventually been acquitted in 2019 by the Constitutional Court, another group of academics published a counter notice indicating that the Court's decision was unacceptable. They all show that there is an apparent discrepancy in the conceptualization of and exercising academic freedom in the Turkish context.

Several research studies, especially conducted in the last decades, clearly reveals the current situation regarding academic freedom in the Turkish context. With his research study conducted with 400 academics in 14 state universities, Summak (1998) concludes that Turkish academics are not content with the degree of academic freedom at higher education institutions. He also states that they could not have a chance to boast academic freedom as a result of "political instability and military interventions suspending democratic rights and freedoms" (Summak, 1998, p. 35). According to Balyer's (2011) study, a majority of the participants are dissatisfied with the effectiveness of academic freedom which they think has been in decline recently. Additionally, they demand full participation together with other stakeholders into boards and governing bodies.

Doğan's (2015) research study carried out with 790 academics in 12 state universities reveals that academics believe that academic freedom is restricted and they step back from revealing their opinions. In the same vein, another study by Doğan (2016) demonstrates that academics believe that academic titles are an important determiner of academic freedom in addition to the fact that expressing political, religious or ideological thoughts can act as a hinder in their promotion. Moreover, Sallan Gül and Gül (2014) highlight that discipline investigations and punishments procedures may lead to unfair treatment of academics, which is another type of attack on academic freedom since those procedures are not conducted by independent bodies, but rather they depend on hierarchical administration of the universities.

Last but not least, having freedom to do research on problems based completely on your free will might not necessarily be a strong indicator of academic freedom. Bennich-Björkman's (2004) study in the Swedish higher education context revealed the existence of *negative freedom* (being free from external limitations to choose) and *positive freedom* (ability and free will to be one's own master) in the academics' understanding of academic freedom. She found that majority of the participants feel that there is no direct control to limit the problems they choose to work on; however, they experience difficulties in reaching for necessary resources and funding. This result shows that what most of the participants experience is negative freedom, and as Karran (2009, p. 271) also maintains doing research with rising costs gradually leads research base of academic freedom from positive towards negative freedom.

Likewise, this situation is widespread in the Turkish context where universities have faced more budget reductions in each new fiscal year. Therefore, Turkish academics also acknowledge that they are constrained by lack of adequate funding for research (Balyer, 2011). To conclude, researchers' ease of access to sufficient funding as a means to consolidate academic freedom is as important as their having control over research topics, dissemination of results, and other procedures of research.

2.3.3. Academic Publication

Publishing scientific articles has gained more importance in the Turkish higher education system for several decades especially as a direct result of its being accepted

as a criterion for appointments and promotions. Furthermore, as Önder and Erdil (2017) states, the attempts to publish articles indexed by three chief indexes, Science Citation Index (SCI), Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI), and Arts and Humanities Citation Index (AHCI), have increased as it has become more rewarding. Despite this increase in number of published articles, Önder et al.'s (2008) examination of SSCI-indexed articles published between 2000 and 2005 demonstrated that articles by social science scholars in Turkey had lower impact than that of scholars all over the world. Moreover, their results clearly indicated that the Turkish researchers who are under pressure of doing publications take aim at lower impact journals to have a better chance of getting published (Önder et al., 2008).

Comparatively based on a longer period of time, Çetinsaya's (2014) study provided a comprehensive analysis of academic publication in Turkey likewise. Çetinsaya (2014) stated the Turkish academics' total performance regarding publications is all too low within a period between 1996 and 2012 compared to similar countries in terms of economy and population. The situation is similar when total number of publications in all areas were examined between 1996 and 2016 in Turkey. Table 5, based on Scopus database, indicates that both the number of publications and citable documents increased in parallel to each other; and consequently the country ranked slightly better year by year.

Table 5
Academic Publications from Turkey (1996-2016)

Year	Rank	Country	Documents	Citable documents	Citations	Citations per document	H index
1996	26	Turkey	5789	5608	76,309	13,18	402
2003	21	Turkey	15864	15084	292,272	18,42	402
2006	20	Turkey	23428	22141	371,280	15,85	402
2013	19	Turkey	40302	37109	324,004	8,04	402
2016	17	Turkey	47138	43196	182,683	3,88	402

Note: Retrieved from SCImago (2020)

On the other hand, despite yearly increase in the number of cited publications, the number of uncited documents grew as well (Çetinsaya, 2014). It can be easily inferred

that the recency of the publications might have caused the citation numbers to be low but they can ascend in time. Still, the quality of the publications needs to be viewed with caution (Çetinsaya, 2014; Önder et al., 2008) because of academics who believe that research amounts to productivity (Coelho, 1976).

Besides, productivity in research may be affected by other factors such as the type of authority governing universities. Canagarajah (2002) maintains some academics may not be motivated to do academic publishing since hierarchical structure inherited in the academia of less developed countries is built upon social and institutional status. Likewise, Bennett (2014, p. 2) also highlights that countries with "modern liberal democracies with meritocratic academic cultures" rank among the most successful in the ratings. However, McCormick and Meiners (1988) revealed that universities whose management type is democratic are less productive not only in research but also in teaching than autocratic ones. Moreover, if faculty members are paid high but are not greatly included in university management, research productivity is higher. These findings lead us to a more direct conclusion, which is that "faculty successful at research and teaching do not participate much in the actual management of their university, and those who do administer do not publish as much or teach as well" (McCormick & Meiners, 1988, p. 429). As for the Turkish universities, it might be difficult to state that they are fully democratic institutions in management aspect. For instance, university presidents are nominated and voted by neither academic and administrative staff nor students, but appointed by president of the Turkish republic since 2016. Moreover, presidents hold broad authority on a number of issues ranging from tenure and promotion to discipline. Considering these, the research productivity of academics considering the possible impact of university management type needs attention of scholars.

2.3.4. Academic Tenure, Appointment and Promotion

American Association of University Professors (1970, p. 14) suggest that tenure is a means that provide "freedom of teaching, research and extramural activities" as well as being "an economic security to make the profession attractive". In the Turkish context, academic staff are considered civil servants and subject to the provisions of National Public Civil Servant Law, No. 657, and only full professors and associate

professors are offered tenure. 1981 Higher Education Law indicates basic qualifications or conditions to be appointed as academic staff. It is necessary to hold a doctoral degree in addition to foreign language proficiency to be appointed to assistant professorship. One can be appointed to associate professorship at the universities provided that they are entitled by the Interuniversity Council as a result of examination of their academic works. Lastly, appointment to full professorship presupposes internationally accepted academic publications as well as minimum five years of work experience after being appointed to associate professorship (Gürüz, 2012). Along with CoHE's prerequisites, on the other hand, some of the universities begin to establish their own additional criteria for appointments and promotions (Uysal, 2014). If tenure and promotion are in question, academics' research practices and publication become more of an issue. Coelho (1976, p. 423) clearly demonstrates the relation between them:

> In a publish or perish oriented college or university, promotions, tenure, and salary increases are awarded on the basis of an individual's contributions to scholarly journals and his publications of monographs and texts. The more a professor publishes, the more likely he is to be promoted, granted tenure, and given salary increases.

As for the Turkish context, Uysal (2014) states that the academia in Turkey has been undergoing a state policy change as centralized criteria (i.e., publication in ISI-indexed journals and foreign language proficiency) becomes valid for appointments and promotions lately although the publication practices of the academics still maintain some peripheral attributes. Thus, Coelho's argument back in seventies has become relevant to the current state of the Turkish academia. Similar to other contexts (Mayer et al., 2011; Wood & Borg, 2010), the impact of the strict requirement of international publishing to be appointed or promoted in higher education institutions has become so extensive in academia that scholars admit they primarily do research and publish it to meet the requirements of three ranks, namely assistant, associate and full professorship, instead of being motivated for professional learning and advancement of scientific knowledge (Demir et al., 2017; Pazarlıoğlu & Özkoç, 2009; Uysal, 2014). Likewise, Tunç (2007) also indicates that appointment and promotion requirements may negatively affect social benefit, the quality of academic publications, and development of critical thinking in the Turkish academic context.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, firstly, theoretical implications of neoliberalism will be presented. It will be followed by another theoretical framework, identity. Identity theories will then be narrowed down to professional identity theories in regard to English language teacher educators, and then their professional and political roles as intellectuals will be presented. Lastly, related research studies based on English language teacher educator roles and professional identity will be provided.

3.1. Neoliberalism

Neoliberalism, as an essentially contested concept and fiercely disputed phenomenon of today's world, has been giving rise to far-reaching impacts on various dimensions ranging from state governments at the macro level on the one hand to individual persons on the other. Having started with the debates in the field of political economy, the impact of the phenomenon has spread rapidly to miscellaneous academic areas ranging from cultural studies to critical health studies (Cahill et al., 2018). The studies on neoliberalism have proliferated prominently over the decades as Google Scholar statistics demonstrate: While the term 'neoliberal' or 'neoliberalism' in English titles in Google Scholar entries was 103 during the period of 1980 and 1989, this number increased to 1324 between 1990 and 1999, and even to 7138 over the course of next decade, 2000-2009 (Venugopal, 2015, pp. 165-166).

The earliest known use of the word neoliberalism is in an article written by French economist Charles Gide in 1898, and in 1950, a doctoral dissertation was written by Jacques Cros as the first academic work that discussed neoliberalism as a new interpretation of liberalism from a right-wing viewpoint (Thorsen & Lie, 2006). Still, it is a widely accepted view that *Colloque Walter Lippmann*, arranged in France in 1938, is the birthplace of the concept of neoliberalism (Birch, 2017; Harvey, 2005,

Peck, 2010). Both the World War II and the fact that Austrian economists left their country as a result of Hitler regime led to the dissemination of the thought (Birch & Mykhnenko, 2010). After the war in 1947, Friedrich von Hayek organized an international conference in Mont Pelerin, Switzerland, which was viewed as a groundbreaking development for neoliberal ideology (Birch, 2017; Peck, 2010) since a group of intellectuals bothered by Keynesian policies came together to object to the intervention of the state and support free market system (Carroll & Sapinski, 2016). During the 1970s, the world witnessed a crisis of stagflation in which total employment dropped and inflation kept climbing fiercely, and the capitalist world took steps leading up to the neoliberal policies (Harvey, 2005).

The word neoliberal is defined in Oxford English Dictionary (Oxford University Press, 2019) as "of, relating to, or characteristic of any of various modified or revived forms of traditional liberalism, typically based on belief in free market capitalism and the rights of the individual". In the *Handbook of Neoliberalism*, neoliberalism is defined as the novel adjustments of policies, economics and society that highlights market order, the position of the state and the purpose of individuals (Springer et al., 2016, p. 2). However, it is also argued that neoliberalism does not aim to renew liberal ideas but construe them from a different ideological stance (Turner, 2008). In that sense, the distinguishing feature of neoliberalism, when compared to liberalism, can be considered as its aim to clear the market from conceptual terms and keep it out of any kind of political interference (Mudge, 2008). Moreover, a further distinction can be made between classical and modern liberalism to suggest that only classical liberalism, with its policies such as *laissez faire* and the state remaining very much in the background, is the advocate of neoliberalism since the state's role is regarded comparatively dynamic in modern liberalism, and this also suggests that viewing neoliberalism as the revival of liberalism simply drawing upon the prefix *neo-* would be faulty (Thorsen & Lie 2006). By the same token, it can also be added that neoliberalism emerged as a response to totalitarian regimes such as Nazi Germany and Soviet Russia symbolizing that collective thought pose a danger to the practices of liberalism (Birch, 2017).

Depending upon the epistemological tradition of scholars, it is possible to encounter different accounts of the concept of neoliberalism. While some scholars view it as an

ideology (e.g., Crouch, 2011; Navarro, 2007, Turner, 2008), some others study the concept as a socioeconomic theory (e.g., Harvey, 2005; Kotz, 2002). Moreover, it is also viewed from a governmentality approach (e.g., Cotoi, 2011; Foucault, 2004/2008). While neoliberal thinkers may hold diverse views about the details of neoliberalism, they usually settle on four core principles of the concept: i) great emphasis on the market order to maintain individual freedom and to share goods and services; ii) the importance of rule of law-state to arrange relationships between persons in the market order; iii) minimal interference of the state; and private ownership, and iv) the importance of the individual as opposed to collectivism (Turner, 2008, pp. 4-5). Consequently, similar to liberal thought, neoliberalism also puts emphasis on "the development of labor, division of labor, privatization, and individuals as consumers"; however they are distinguished from one another in the sense that neoliberalism attempts to reform the government to support entrepreneurship and appreciate the idea that individuals are accountable only for themselves, whereas liberalism draws on market forces to preserve entrepreneurship and does not depreciate the social good (Raimondi, 2012).

While neoliberalism is usually perceived and used as an alternate term of "political-economic zeitgeist" (Peck, 2010, p.14), it also means exercising "political, economic and cognitive power and discourse" (Macrine, 2016, p. 310). As Harvey (2005) bluntly notes:

> Neoliberalism has, in short, become hegemonic as a mode of discourse. It has pervasive effects on ways of thought to the point where it has become incorporated into the common-sense way many of us interpret, live in, and understand the world. The process of neoliberalization has, however, entailed much 'creative destruction', not only of prior institutional frameworks and powers (even challenging traditional forms of state sovereignty) but also of divisions of labour, social relations, welfare provisions, technological mixes, ways of life and thought, reproductive activities, attachments to the land and habits of the heart. (p. 3)

Neoliberalism is not only about destroying rules and institutions but at the same time about producing particular social relations and individual selves considering the fact that it creates a form and habit of living in which the race is on the survival of individuals in modern societies where social relationships are adjusted to market mechanisms and individuals are occupied with economic endeavors (Dardot & Laval,

2013). In other words, it can be concluded that neoliberalism rearranged the links among the state, society, economy and individuals in such a way that social interactions are dissolved into economic structures through entrepreneurial individuals who give the utmost importance to consumption (Fine & Saad-Filho, 2017).

Drawing upon its economic origins, Foucault (1981/1991) further discusses neoliberalism from a *governmentality* perspective. In his earlier lesson he views governmentality as an implementation of power "that has the population as its target, political economy as its major form of knowledge, and apparatuses of security as its essential technical instrument" (Foucault, 2004/2009, p. 108). Later, in addition to the use of the term as practices resulting from a specific type of power regime, he adopts a much broader understanding. Thus, he acknowledges that the state is just a phase of governmentality (Foucault, 2004/2009), and thus, despite its relation with the state, neoliberal governmentality is a collection of practices of governing instead of merely a collection of institution (May, 2014). It is widely known that the power of discipline indeed comes into existence on the body by monitoring and controlling, on the other hand, this new model of power, governmentality, operates remotely (Joseph, 2013).

Foucault argues that neoliberalism uses individuals' freedom as a means to govern them since it not only guarantees freedoms but also produce, organize and consumes them (Lorenzini, 2018). And this practice may account for the understanding of neoliberal subject who is free and active, and therefore expected to take on responsibility and initiative about their own lives and decisions abiding by the rules of competition (Joseph, 2013). In other words, infiltrating in all layers of society, neoliberal governmentality aims to create "… a society subject to the dynamic of competition. Not a supermarket society, but an enterprise society. The homoeconomicus sought after is not the man of exchange or man the consumer; he is the man of enterprise and production" (Foucault, 2004/2008, p. 147). As a result, it is not uncommon that certain practices such as "the celebration of personal branding and endless self-development" are boosted in neoliberal governmentality (Shin & Park, 2016, p. 445). To be more specific, neoliberal governmentality can be associated with the governing of individuals as active contributors into the market rather than as citizens (May, 2014). Celebrating and praising entrepreneurs work to blind people to

their insecure professional positions, which in turn results even in the commodification of identity (Shin & Park, 2016).

3.2. Identity

Identity is a concept that has been widely studied in a variety of disciplines such as anthropology, political theory, sociology and psychology; and therefore it is diffciult to provide a single definition for it. On the other hand, from a very general perspective identity can be deifined as "what it means to be who one is" (Burke, 2003, p. 1). Current approaches towards identity explores the concept most basically at three levels: individual, relational, and collective (Sedikides & Brewer, 2001). While an individual's personality, beliefs and characteristics; their roles and relationship with others; and membership in and belonging to wider groups make up the three levels, Vignoles et al. (2011) add one more level, material identity which is an individual's close connection to personal property and geographical belonging to a particular place. They also argue that identities at all levels are "inescapably both personal and social" regarding not only the content (i.e., answers to the question 'Who am I?') but also the process (i.e., constructing, preserving and transforming identity in progress of time) (Vignoles et. al., 2011, p. 5). Such a broad categorization is adopted in this section for the ease of analysis.

3.2.1. Personal and Developmental Approaches to Identity

From a personal/developmental approach, Reber (1985, p. 73) defines identity "the essential and continuous self of man, the subjective inner perception of himself as an individual". Works that fits in personal/developmental perspective can be traced back to Mead (1934). Today known as the founder of social interactionism, Mead (1934) is famous for his work on the nature of the self. Regarding view of self in society, Mead (1934) believed that a self grows through the interaction with social groups. He examined the childhood for the development of self, and he came up with two important stages. In the play stage, children take on roles of others. In the game stage, they begin to find out how to act in group and personality also starts to emerge. Each individual has their own specific sets of selves, which help them to be not only unique but also more capable members in society.

Havighurst (1948) can also be considered as one of the pioneers of identity related studies with his developmental tasks theory. Categorizing life into six stages from infancy and early childhood to later maturity, he viewed adolescence stage as the crucial period of life for identity development. The tasks that adolescents either fulfill in this stage or get ready to fulfill in the upcoming stages such as holding with their outlooks, genders, getting ready for starting their own families or career trajectories are building blocks of identity construction. Moreover, most of the developmental identity research and theory also derives from Erikson's (1950) ego identity concept. He laid out how ego grows in eight stages. Each level is identified by certain psychosocial crisis that are settled with an underlying support of social environment. Similar to Havighurst (1948), Erikson (1950) also viewed adolescence as a highly important stage in one's life. According to Erikson (1950) late adolescents who make a transition from childhood to young adulthood (e.g., moratorium) are faced with expectations and roles of a new developmental stage, adulthood, undergo a process of psychosocial crisis throughout which they experience ego identity development. From this perspective, Erikson (1959) put an emphasis on society as well as on personal, saying that ego identity is both "a subjective experience, and as a dynamic fact, a group psychological phenomenon" (p. 22). It should also be noted that the presence of some antecedent conditions such as parenting style; role-models; available identity alternatives; expectations from the parents, the school, peer groups may influence the developmental stages (Waterman, 1993).

Furthermore, Marcia (1966) suggested identity status model based on Erikson's identity crisis and confusion. Similar to Erikson, Marcia (1966) also views identity from a developmental perspective. Though not uniform for everyone, he suggested that adolescents go through a series of points called identity diffusion, identity foreclosure, moratorium and identity achievement in order to explore their identities; and they consider their own aims, beliefs and values in life with the help of developmental crises. This process show that identity is constructed through an individual's self-determination. The fashion that theorists with a personal/ developmental view approached identity was mainly based on categorization of life spans. After Marcia's (1966) identity status model, a more process-oriented approach that underlined the continuity of identity formation was adopted (Bosma & Gerrits, 1985; Grotevant, 1987).

In addition, Berzonsky (1989) brought a cognitive dimension to identity development. Later Whitbourne et al. (2002) suggested three processes called as assimilation, accomodation and balance. The common point for both theories was that they highlighted the important role of adulthood in identity formation process. Last but not least, inspired by Erikson (1950), McAdam (1985) added a narrative aspect in personal/developmental identity theories and viewed identity as a whole rather than categories or processes. According to McAdam's (1995) theory, one's life can be understood at three levels: dispositional (personality) traits, personal concerns and life stories. This theory underlines that identity can be viewed as a story, and therefore it can be explored through narrative techniques where individuals are expected to mention important moments or events in their lives.

3.2.2. Social Approaches to Identity

Upon receiving increasing criticisms regarding its heavy emphasis on individuals (e.g., Côté & Levine, 1988), identity research has slowly started to adopt a social perspective starting with the works of scholars on ethnic, national and religious identities (Gleason, 1983). In this perspective, Social Identity Approach, consisting of two complementary theories Social Identity Theory and Self-Categorization Theory, holds an eminent position in identity research regarding the role and impact of social variables on identity.

Social Identity Theory first originated by the works of Tajfel et al. (1971) who investigated minimal groups for their negative bias towards out-groups. Tajfel (1978) later argued that individuals define their self-identities in relation to belonging to social groups that are considered as origins of pride and self-esteem for themselves. On the other hand, it should be noted that Social Identity Theory does not ignore individual aspect of identity; however, it conveys the message that social identity is more than self-perceptions (Reicher et al., 2010). Therefore, social identity is considered to be "relational, dynamic, contextual, and constructed" (Korte, 2007, p. 169). More specifically, social identity can be viewed as a continuous process of an individual's interaction with both in-group and out-groups (Jenkins, 2004), which leads to adopting a collective identity relying on group membership and positive in-group bias (Islam, 2014) to promote their self-images. Tajfel and Turner (1979) argued

that there are three stages of viewing other individuals: social categorization, social identification and social comparison. Individuals categorize people around as well as themselves to certain groups. In the next stage, when an individual is socialized into a group, they adopt an added identity into their existing self-identities by adopting the group's values and norms (Hogg & Terry, 2000). Moreover, their self-esteem is also bound to groups they belong to. A motive behind identification with certain groups is that they have a potential to reduce uncertainty in a particular context because uncertainty is mostly avoided as it diminishes control on individuals' lives (Hogg & Grieve, 1999). The last stage is about comparing one's own group with other groups, through which individuals may find a way to attribute a value and meaning to their own groups (Spears, 2011) and maintain self-esteem. Individuals' social identity is promoted when they believe that their own groups are "achieveing positive distinctiveness" compared to out-groups (Abrams & Hogg, 1990, p. 3); and saliency of social identity entails individuals' behaving as group members.

When individuals are members of groups that they value negatively, on the other hand, they try to switch to another group believed to have a higher status, a process called social mobility (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). When individuals cannot achieve social mobility, they adopt some strategies to accord with the existing group membership. Through *social creativity*, they compare their own groups to other groups having even lower status, try to come up with better featıres of the group, or reevaluate their own membership to the group. Another crucial aspect of social identity theory is that it has implications for structure of relations (Tajfel, 1974). Social groups continue their existence in relation to other groups and they usually run against one another for resources, power, status and prestige (Abrams & Hogg, 1990). Considering this, organizations or institutions can manage and shape social comparison process between groups. Comparing themselves to other organizations or institutions standing as a reference point and perceiving them as threats (e.g., benchmarking), organizations aim to redetermine their identities and professional requirements and increase their groups' competitive juices (Hogg & Terry, 2000).

Self-categorization Theory, on the other hand, provides a more cognitive account of social groups (Turner, 1982). Self-categorization calls for a process of *depersonalization*, viewing individuals through their memberships to groups. Also we

tbecome more inclined to attribute characteristics of groups to individuals, which is called *stereotyping*. As a result, individuals can do both self-stereotyping and in-group stereotyping. Self-categorization theory has been extended with the works on emotions in groups. How social identification affects individuals' mental and physical healt has turned out to be an interesting question for social identity researchers. Individuals are more tend to provide help and show trust to in-group members if social identity is salient (Reicher et al., 2010). When individuals receive support in-groups, they feel more self-efficacy and positivite emotions as well as lower level of stress (Haslam et al., 2009). To conclude, social approach provides an account of identity based on individuals' membership of a social group, category or class, and how this membership affects their behaviours and attitudes. On the other hand, it is necessary to note that it provides an alternative analysis of identity concept without undermining the importance of personal indentity.

3.3. Professional Identity

Identity is a concept that spreads across all spheres of an individual's life, and thus individuals' professions and related practices are not exceptions to that. Individuals used to be accepted as professionals when they had a full-time profession, an institutional basis and credentials for exercising their professions as well as complying with the moral norms and values and of their professions (Wilensky, 1964). Some other criteria such as autonomy, training, expertise and code of practice were also considered necessary as distinguishing characteristics of professions (Etzioni, 1969). After 1970s, the understanding of a profession started to change because "professions were viewed not as occupations that possessed individual attributes but as work occurring within specific context: social and cultural forces, competing professions, and expertise" (Fidler, 1995, p. 38). Today, the boundaries of professions are less strict and more blur and therefore, an emerging type of professionals called "independent knowledge workers" can exercise their work with some general sets of skills and knowledge (Barker-Caza & Creary, 2016, p. 259). Additionally, due to new managerialism in the work places, the roles of professionals and managers have also changed "in terms of their degree of autonomy, status and control over work" (Leicht & Fennell, 2001, p. 2). These changes even have led to a state where professions have begun to lose their characteristics because of deprofessionalization (Bosio, 2004, as

cited in Tomo, 2019, pp. 119-120). While characteristics and boundaries of professions have undergone a change, the professional identities have not stayed stable.

Professional identity can be considered as an integral part of an overall identity of an individual (de Gennaro, 2019). Butler (1998, p. 70) argues that "Every man's work, whether it be literature or music or pictures or architecture or anything else, is always a portrait of himself". Correspondingly, individuals refer to their contexts of work (Wilkinson et al., 2016); personal characteristics, professional roles, group memberships (Ashforth et al., 2008); and interactions with colleagues (Berman et al., 2002) in order to make sense of their own portraits and work practices. As a result, it can be concluded that membership and career can be viewed as important aapects of professional identity formation; and therefore, being a member of an "organization with a name" highly contributes to professional identity formation (de Gennaro, 2019, p. 74).

Similar concerns, views and approaches regarding professional identity are also relevant for academic profession. Teacher educators who work as academics have unique professional practices such as producing, maintaining, spreading or dispersing knowledge. Considering that research on the professional identity of this particular group of professionals has gained impetus, theoretical perspectives and approaches that inform these studies have also become varied. Up to now, professional identity has been investigated by means of a variety of and sometimes conflicting theoretical perspectives. Still, the perspectives used for research purposes mainly appear to be around three clusters: a socio-cultural approach, a post-modern approach and a post-structuralist approach.

3.3.1. A Sociocultural Approach

Sociocultural theory originated from the work of Vygotsky (1978) who suggested that individual learning is a social process and it takes place through an interaction with mentors and peers. However, although his work did not explicitly focus on identity (Penuel & Wertsch, 1995), further studies have found ways to inform identity research with a sociocultural approach (Solari & Martín Ortega, 2020). Considering this, it can

be said that the sociocultural approach pays attention to both the particular contexts where teacher educators work and their social relations in these contexts to give an account of their professional learning process (Wenger, 1998). Moreover, their professional work can be regarded as "not translating knowledge and theories into practice but rather as constructing new knowledge and theory through participating in specific social contexts and engaging in particular types of activities and processes" (Burns & Richards, 2009, p. 4). Therefore, professional identity is conceptualized as "a dialogic process of negotiating meanings that is sociohistorically situated, relational, dynamic and discursively constructed" rather than an unchanging and uniform concept (Solari, 2017, p. 469). In a similar vein, within a sociocultural point of view, teacher educators' identities are indistinguishably embedded in their practices that are performed in the institutions' social, cultural and historical structures. Related theoretical perspectives and concepts stemming from sociocultural approach and informing professional identity research is as follows:

3.3.1.1. A Communities of Practice Perspective

Wenger's (1998) theory basically provides an account of learning through social participation and reveals the interrelationship among learning, community and identity. According to this theory, a community of practice is "a set of relations among persons, activity, and world, over time and in relation with other tangential and overlapping communities of practice" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 98). From this perspective, identities are formed through involvement in the communities of practice. Moreover, Wenger (1998) suggests that identity formation requires reconciliation due to the fact that individuals may belong to a variety of communities of practice each of which calls for a particular identity. He acknowledges that membership to a number of communities of practice may result in continuous stress and "multimembership and the work of reconciliation are intrinsic to the very concept of identity" (Wenger, 1998, p. 160). In line with this, Wenger (1998) also argues that individuals are expected to reconciliate the tensions of multimembership and do brokering, transfer of some particularities of a community into the other, to be able to successfully construct an identity of belonging in a community of practice.

In addition, Wenger (1998) believes that practice and identity are closely related and developing a certain type of practice necessitates building a community in which members relate one another. Also, Wenger (1998) suggests five aspects of identity, and they show the connection between identity and practice:

- identity as negotiated experiences, our identity is constructed by experiencing and realizing ourselves,
- identity as community membership, our identity is constructed by means of familiar and unfamiliar,
- identity as learning trajectory, our identity is constructed based on our path of learning,
- identity as nexus of multi-membership, our identity is constructed by integrating our various memberships into a whole,
- identity as a relation between the local and the global, our identity is constructed by considering local ways of belonging to global groups. (p.149)

These five aspects provide a comprehensive account of teacher educators' professional identity seeing that they directly refer to social, cultural and political (macro and micro, individual and group) characteristics of identity construction (Sachs, 2001).

3.3.1.2. A Contextual Perspective

Psaltis et al. (2009, p. 309) claim that "all thinking takes shape within the specific contexts of particular cultural locations which exercise their own constrains, both on its construction and its expression". Based on this, negotiation and formation of identities is also a contextual practice that may contain a sense of struggle at times (Norton, 1997). When investigating professional identity, it is necessary to include the impact of two types of contexts: real contexts such as workplace and imagined contexts grounded on others' experiences (Solari & Martín Ortega, 2020). As individuals are socialized in new contexts, they also carry on constructing their identities as a result of interaction with new people and fulfilling new roles (Wenger, 1998). This may not be a smooth process for each individual if they feel that they have to cope with high degrees of contextual differences or restriction; and in turn, it may cause identity stress or crisis (Pennington & Richards, 2016). Moreover, Duff and

Uchida (1997, p. 452), who investigated the sociocultural identities of language teachers, argue that in addition to sociocultural and political contexts, "the institutional and interpersonal contexts" has an impact on identity formation. Contextual factors may also determine the professional satisfaction and motivation of teachers and teacher educators. Pennington and Richards (2016) make a distinction between favouring and disfavouring conditions of teaching contexts, and conclude that if disfavouring conditions dominate the teaching context, and teachers' professional practices and their ideals do not match, they become poorly motivated in their work.

3.3.1.3. An Emotional Perspective

Emotions can be defined as "a universal, functional reaction to an external stimulus event, temporally integrating physiological, cognitive, phenomenological, and behavioral channels to facilitate a fitness-enhancing, environment-shaping response to the current situation" (Keltner & Shiota, 2003, p. 89). Prior research has already showed that emotions are closely connected to professional identity (e.g., Chubb et al., 2017; Lemarchand-Chauvin & Tardieu, 2018; Schutz & Zembylas, 2009; Ursin et al., 2020; van Veen & Sleegers, 2006). In the workplaces, it has been found that "organisational events, work situations and social interactions" trigger individuals' emotions (Ursin et al., 2020, p. 314).

Research that uncovers the relationship between emotions and professional identity largely stems from a view of teaching as an emotional practice (Hargreaves, 1998) and classroom as an emotional place (Pekrun & Linnenbrink-Garcia 2014). While negative emotions may lead to experiencing professional identity stress (Shams, 2019), positive emotions have a potential to enrich both teaching and learning (Day & Lee, 2011). Teaching is believed to be an emotional work since teachers are expected to invest themselves to emphatize with others in the school environment and also "draw upon continuing reserves of emotional energy on a daily basis" to do their work successfully (Day, 2018, p. 65). On the other hand, Wróbel (2013, p. 581) claims that teaching requires emotional labour since teachers are expected to not only teach but also "manage their emotions" to fulfill additional professional expectations. Wróbel (2013) also argues that emotional labour requires teachers to continuously show positive emotions towards students no matter what they actually feel. However, Day (2018)

suggest that times when emotional work is replaced by emotional labour should be very limited for successful teaching and learning; and some individual factors such as teachers' commitment, resilience skills and academic optimism as well as external factors such as suppressive school environments affect teachers' emotional experiences.

3.3.2. A Postmodern Approach

The postmodern approach was developed as a response to the modern understanding of identity that was believed to be stable (Hall, 1992) and unique (Jameson, 1998). On the other hand, postmodern understanding of identity holds that individuals act in and become a member of a variety of discourse communities, and therefore decentralize themselves into those communities (Gergen, 1991). Moreover, self is believed to be positioned and repositioned in time and contextually (Hermans, 2014). In other words, there is not a single identity central to the individuals, rather self consists of multiple identities. Considering all, a postmodernist approach may offer implications to conceptualize teacher and teacher educator identity with particular concepts such as multiple, complex and ongoing identities that are temporally processed and spatially located.

3.3.2.1. A Dialogical Self Perspective

Bakhtin's (1975/1990) account of the dialogic relationship between self and other contributes to the research on professional identity of teacher and teacher educators. Bakhtin suggests that individuals' identities and their relationship with others are affected by spatial and temporal contexts. Similarly, Hall (2000, p. xi) argues that identity is "situational – it shifts from context to context". For Bakhtin (1975/1990), self exists in two interacting contexts simultaneously: "I" and "Other". Considering these, professional identity can be conceptualized "in a reciprocal relationship to others' identities" (Hallman, 2015, p. 3).

Building on previous related theoretical considerations, Hermans (2001) developed the dialogical self theory that is based on both the dialogic relationships between individuals and groups and between various I-positions within individuals. For

Hermans (2014, p. 138) the self is “a society of I-positions”, and other individuals has an important role in shaping one’s experiences. The I-positions are not in isolation, rather in interaction since “each of them has a story to tell about their own experiences from their own specific point of view” (Hermans 2014, 139). Furthermore, Hermans (2014) distinguishes between internal and external I-positions that exist in one’s dialogical self. While internal positions can be exemplified as “I as a dedicated professional”, an example of external positions can be “my problematic colleague” (2014, p. 140); and external positions are also imaged as I-positions because others are believed to be a part of self. However, a dialogic self can at times become a monological self if one I-position dominate the others due to power of social norms and expectations. Hermans (2014, p. 139) gives two examples of I-position (e.g., I as religious and I as homosexual), and argues that although the former might dominate the latter for some time, the second I position may become dominant if one becomes a member of the LGBT community. Thus, it can be concluded that I-positions have temporal and spatial dependencies (Hermans, 2014). Moreover, multiple I-positions create “a complex, multivoiced, narratively structured self (Hermans, 2013, p. 50).

Hermans (2014) also suggests that self consists of three areas, the internal domain of self, the external domain of self, and larger society. While the internal and external domains are considered as a minisociety, society is referred as macrosociety. From this perspective, self and society are mutually inclusive (Hermans, 2001), and have a bilateral relationship. He adds that: “When society is globalizing, the self is too. When society is becoming more complex, the self, as an intrinsic part of society, is reflecting this complexity and is challenged to give an answer” (Hermans, 2013, p. 46). As a reflection of society, the self also deals with problems of uncertainty resulting from the fact that I-positions have become less homogenous and denser (Hermans & Dimaggio, 2007).

Ragrding the relationship between microsociety and macrosociety, the self is organized in two ways: horizontal and vertical. While horizontal organization calls for a movement towards sides where each I-position has a particular autonomy and democracy, there is a hierarchy of I-positions that communicate in a top-down and bottom-up fashion in vertical organization (Hermans, 2013). Horizontal organization of the self provides more space for dialogic relationship in microsociety as well as

between micro and macrosocieties. Yet, it should be noted that both dominance and power are always embebeded in both societies; and therefore, when different I-positions encounter, this inescapably results in an inequality of positions at varying degrees (Hermans, 2013). In addition, these two types of organizations of the self may coexist considering that an institution may be both democratic by means of horizontal organization style and authoritarian upholding top-down decisions to the disadvantage of its employees due to financial contraints (Hermans, 2013).

3.3.3. A Poststructural Approach

A poststructural approach disregards psychological and sociological approaches to identity formation as it relies on the interaction between discourse and power relations (Xie & Huang, 2022). It also stimulates teachers' interest to think about "the relationship between emotion, identity and power, and moves teachers to engage in self-transformation through a richer understanding of their situatedness" (Zembylas, 2003, p. 229). Individuals' practices, and languages as well as their connection with the world and other individuals build and shape their identities (Weedon, 1997); and therefore, teachers' professional identity is viewed as context bound (Xie & Huang, 2022), dynamic, changing and ongoing (Arvaja, 2016; Zembylas, 2003).

Moreover, poststructuralism presents a perspective through which "identities are governed by a range of "subject positions", approved by their community or culture, and made available to them by means of the particular discourses operating within a given social context" (Baxter, 2016, p. 37). Although social contexts continuously influence individual, they are also able to resist and change hegemonic discourses, and therefore, identity is also viewed as a ground of struggle (Norton & Toohey, 2011).

3.3.2.1. A Discourse Perspective

Identity formation is believed to be based on discourses considering that it requires interaction with other individuals by means of language, body movements and facial expressions as well as digital tools (Barkhuizen, 2016). Morever, discourse is not simply language but it is a particular structure of statements, categories and terminology based on historical, social and institutional factors (Scott, 1988). As

discourse is related to the power and knowledge relations, it also has a potential to shape how individuals think and act socially (Eteläpelto et. al., 2013). Conforming to the poststructuralist descriptions of identity, Gee (2000) suggests four interrelated components to view identity as a construct embebedded in historical, institutional, and sociocultural structures:

1) *Nature-identity* refers to a state by nature rather than an endeavor of an individual. An individual cannot hold power over their nature identity, and this component of identity only partially explain who an individual is.

2) *Institution-identity* means not a state but the identity of position individuals have. Based on roles and duties an individual is expected to carry out, an institution-identity can be experienced "as either a calling or an imposition" (Gee, 2000, p. 103)

3) *Discourse-identity* is an individual characteristic created by means of discourse. While discourse identities can be attributed to individuals, they may also be self-achievements.

4) *Affinity-identity* corresponds to individuals' participating into practices of affinity groups. Members of affinity groups first and foremost share a common social practice which help the group maintain its unity.

Gee (2000, p. 121) concludes that individuals can construct "multiple, changing, and fluid" identities through negotiation.

3.3.2.2. A Social Action Perspective

Bourdieu is another influential scholar with his work on class identity. He proposed that structures of social world have a determining role on how individuals form their identities (Bourdieu, 1993), and draw on three important concepts, which are capital, field and habitus, to give an account of social structures and their functioning. Claiming that capital should be understood not only as an economic theory but also as a means of understanding the structure of the social world, he identified four types of capital that individuals can possess: economic, cultural, social, and symbolic (Bourdieu, 1986). *Economic capital* can be defined as money and other possessions such as property rights and is regarded as the basis of all other capitals. *Cultural capital* consists of three types of states: long-lasting personal dispositions (embodied state), cultural goods (objectified form) and educational qualifications

(institutionalised form) (Bourdieu, 1986, p. 17). Cultural capital is based on individuals' social backgrounds and composed of forms of knowledge ranging from educational qualifications to knowledge of traditions. *Social capital* can be defined as individuals' group membership and network of social relations. Lastly, *symbolic capital* is related to possessing prestige, status and recognition as an individual (Terjesen & Elam, 2009). The common point for all types of capital is that owning a type of capital or access to such resources paves the way for a higher standing and status. Capitals that individuals own have an impact on how they think, act and view the world. For instance, a teacher who is highly qualified or has access to social networks will probably enjoy more status or opportunity in the job market (Pishghadam et al., 2022).

Furthermore, Bourdieu (1972/1977) defined the term *habitus* as "the source of these series of moves which are objectively organized as strategies without being the product of a genuine strategic intention" (p. 73). Namely, it is a set of habits that individuals own through their past experiences and that inform current actions (Bourdieu, 1980/1990); and he explored how individuls' actions are reproduced by means of social structures. Also, individuals that belong to the same group or class may be sharing some of their experiences by forming a shared habitus and thus, class or group identity. Additionally, *field* can be considered as "a set of objective, historic relations between positions" (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, p. 16); and society is composed of closely connected fields such as political, economic, academic. Therefore, the field is a type of social space where individuals may have common interests and target at access to the capital particular to that field.

3.3.2.3. An Agency Perspective

The concept of agency has become popular first through the work of Giddens (1984) a pioneer scholar who investigated the relationship between individuals' actions and social structures. For Giddens (1984) agency requires individual intention as well as capability and power to act in a different fashion. Day (2018) states that agency takes place in "an on-going, complex interactional dynamic between individual strength of (moral) purpose and the emotional dynamic of workplace and external social and policy environments" (p. 64). How individuals exercise professional agency may

demonstrate itself in different forms. In the most positive sense of professional agency, individulas can take actions or bring suggestions to improve professional work and when it is less positive, on the other hand, individuals engage with "taking a critical stance, or entering into a struggle against reforms suggested from outside, or else as simply leaving the work organization" (Eteläpelto et al., 2013, p. 46). Moreover, an educator's sense of agency is related to developing ideas, accomplishing their goals and transforming the institutions or sites they are affiliated with; and therefore, it is highly possible that a growing sense of agency results from an increasing self-awareness of professional identity (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009).

With a broader perspective, Biesta et al. (2015) have established a model of agency when working with teachers. Rather than something that individuals possess or do, agency is viewed as something that can be achieved (Biesta & Tedder, 2006). Their model is based on their three-dimensional classification: iterational, projective and practical-evaluative. In their model, iterational factors are directly linked to teachers' values, beliefs, professional and personal histories believing that agency is achieved based on prior actions, experiences and thoughts. Secondly, projective dimension is about teachers' professional ambitions. In other words, it is assumed that agency aims to bring change for future compared to present and past. Such ambitions may be positive such as improvement in students' academic success or providing support for or resisting policies. Lastly, practical-evaluative dimension consists of an interaction among culture (i.e., ideas, values, language), structure (i.e., social structure, roles, power, relationships) and material (i.e., resources and environment).

Hökkä et al. (2012) who studied professional agency of teacher educators argue that hegemonic and suppressive discourses may restrict organizational changes and professional agencies. Similarly, Fanghanel (2007) uncovers a variety of both social and cultural elements that put pressure on academics' agency. With a more positive approach, however, Day (2018) suggests that although hegemonic discourses and power structures exist in schools, it does not necessarily cause negative effects and teachers can successfully respond to external forces influencing their work practices.

3.4. English Language Teachers' Professional Identity

Research on how English language teachers grow into "particular types of professionals" (Zembylas, 2005a, p. 124) has gained impetus lately (Hong et al., 2018). Varghese et al. (2005) starkly reveal the motive behind the strong and growing interest in language teacher identity:

> in order to understand language teaching and learning we need to understand teachers; and in order to understand teachers, we need to have a clearer sense of who they are; the professional, cultural, political, and individual identities which they claim or which are assigned to them. (p. 22)

Also, Beijaard et al. (2004) suggest that research on professional identity construction can help develop better insights regarding how teachers deal with current changes in schools and how this process make them feel. They also underline that prefessional identity research requires the consideration of personal as well as professional since because theachers' professional selves may experience fragmentation if their personal values and external expectations do not match (Beijaard et al., 2004).

Miller (2009) encapsulates language teachers' professional identity in two dimensions: their understanding of being a language teacher and their professional roles. In order to investigate them, scholars working on language teacher identity have pursued a variety of lines of inquiry. One major theme in langage teachers' professional identity research is native speaker/non-native speaker dichotomy (Kayi-Aydar, 2019; Menard-Warwick, 2008). Research centering around language teachers' linguistic competence has informed their professional identities (e.g., Akinmulegun & Kunt, 2022; Reves & Medgyes, 1994; Vélez-Rendón, 2010). It was found that non-native teachers' effort to gain legitimacy as competent teachers and workplace conditions may lead to low self-esteem (Kamhi-Stein, 2000) and identity crises (Maum, 2002). On the other hand, a reductionist view of native and non-native speaker teachers and a false dichotomy that idealizes native speaker language teacher have received criticisms (e.g. Selvi, 2014; Yazan, 2017).

From a personal approach, teachers' lives, personal biographies and prior experience are believed to be important factors contributing to professional identity formation (e.g., Connelly & Clandinin, 1990, Duff & Uchida, 1997, Izadinia, 2012; Karaman &

Edling, 2021). Knowles (1992) defines biography as "those formative experiences of pre-service and beginning teachers which have influenced the way they think about teaching and, subsequently their actions in the classroom" (p. 99); and suggests that teachers' prior experiences are highly likely to have a determining influence on their professional decisions and work. Similarly, Raymond et al. (1992) claim that family background, ethnicity, religion and their own experiences as students have enduring impact on their professional practices and development. Despite accepting that personal characteristics are the onset of professional identity, Sugrue (1997, p. 222) also believes that professional identity is also affected by "immediate family, significant others or extended family, apprenticeship of observation, atypical teaching episodes, policy context, teaching traditions and cultural archetypes, tacitly acquired understandings".

Furthermore, a sociocultural view regarding a combination of personal and social aspects of identity construction has gained popularity in identity research. It is suggested that teachers' educational degrees and backgrounds can be considered as the outset of their professional identities which continues to be formed by means of interactions with students, colleagues and wider context (Flores & Day, 2006; Pennington, 2015). In addition to their educational backgrounds, an ongoing interplay between their values, norms and disciplinary knowledge; and the schools they work in constructs the basis for professional identity (Beijaard et al., 2004). Thus, there is a shift from a complete psychological approach towards a sociocultural understanding of professional identity (Miller, 2009); and this understanding entails a view of language teachers not as mere implicators of language teaching methods but as teachers who combine their past learner and pre-service-teacher experiences with their current practices and have their own beliefs regarding language teaching and learning (Freeman, 2013).

Interaction is an important process for language teachers' professional identity. Beijaard (1995, p. 4) suggests that identity is "constant becoming" starting with pre-service teacher experience and constructed through an interaction between teaching philosophies and professional practices during their professional lives. Jeans and Forth (1995, p. 3) also highlight the importance of interaction in professional identity development assuming that professional identity can be constructed by means

"information provided by significant others" since they are viewed as professional and competent. They also state that "talking the job" contributes to professional identity construction process (Jeans & Forth, 1995, p. 3). Some other research also claims that if teachers are supported by colleagues not only their belonging to the profession but also their professional performance might increase, and thus this can decrease the number of teachers who drop out (Burke et al., 2015). Similarly, it was found that teachers' professional identity was affected positively when they actively contributed to the establishment of school policy, collaborated and appreciated one another (Beijaard, 1995).

The impact of significant others on language teachers' professional practices and identity formation has been widely investigated (e.g., Basalama & Machmud, 2018; Park, 2012; Yi, 2009). Significant others may consist of a variety people such as "mentor teachers, classmates, teacher educators, administrators, and students" (Martel & Wang, 2015, p. 290) that teachers interact during pre- and in-service teaching. They may become sources of inspiration for careers in teaching and professional support for teachers. Moreover, among other factors, teachers' self-efficacy relies on how they model other teachers' pedagogy and feedback they receive from significant others, and increased self-efficacy contributes to positive professional identity (Cardelle-Elawar et al., 2007). It was also found that they may contribute to teachers who suffer from occupational stress in two ways: acting as "a degree of social cushioning for the damaged self" and helping re-empower themselves (Woods & Carlyle, 2002, p. 179).

Context is another important line of inquiry for teacher identity research. Freeman (2002) states that the prior psychological approaches to identity viewed context as no more than a site where teachers exhibit pedagogical behaviours; however, the current understanding advocates that "in teacher education, context is everything" (p. 11). In the same line, Borg (2009) argues that research that fails to address context when investigating language teachers's cognition and practice would be "conceptually flawed" (p. 167). How teacher position themselves regarding students as well as the wider context is of utmost importance for identity construction (Varghese et al., 2005). These wider or macro contexts are usually regarded as "a complex sociopolitical and cultural political space" (Pennycook, 2004, p. 333) where language teachers are situated and positioned by others.

Language teachers' professional identities are constructed in relation to numerous contextual factors. Salinas (2017) differentiates between micro and macro contextual factors. While micro contextual factors consist of "the student/teacher bond, work climate, in-service training, English department, working conditions and school demands" (Salinas, 2017, p. 5), macro contextual factors are considered as "bureaucracy, new programs, national testing, teacher assessment and supervidion from Ministry of Education" (p. 7). Student population and characteristics as well as institutional mechanisms and culture can also be added into contextual factors (Miller, 2009).

Moreover, language teachers' professional identity is also a combination of emotions and cognitions (Hargreaves, 1998; Meyer, 2009). Therefore, contrary to some other professionals in law or medicine who are not necessarily emotionally engaged with the people they serve for, teachers feel that engagement is necessary (Davey, 2013). Nias (1996) claims that teachers'emotions are of great importance to understand their professional identites since teaching requires emotional investment of teachers and it is, therefore, more than a technical job. In addition to being a psychological experience, the emotions felt by teachers are social in the sense that they are "constructed in social relationships and systems of values in their families, cultures, and school situations" (Zembylas, 2003, p. 216).

In addition, cultural and power structures affect teachers' emotions (Zembylas, 2005b). Zembylas (2002) shows that teachers have to monitor and regulate their emotions such as anger, anxiety and vulnerability and are expected to display empathy and kindness in the workplace, and this may result in teacher burnout in the form of "emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and decreased sense of personal accomplishment" (p. 202). With her influential work, Benesch (2012) reveals how language teachers try to control both their own and the students' emotions, particulary by restraining undesired and inappropriate ones. She suggests that recognizing and expressing such feelings may have a transformative impact on pedagogy.

In all, language teachers' professional identity, ultimately, is "relational, negotiated, constructed, transforming" (Miller, 2009, p. 174), "multifaceted, dynamic, complex and personally coloured" (Schellingsa et al., 2021, p. 3). And lastly, a positive sense

of professional identity results in "self-esteem or self-efficacy, commitment to and a passion for teaching" (Day, 2004, p. 45).

3.5. English Language Teacher Educators' Professional Identity

Contrary to considerable knowledge of identity in the areas of pre- and in-service teacher education (e.g., Alsup, 2006; Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009; Beijaard, 1995; Coldron & Smith, 1999; Duff & Uchida, 1997; Hanna et al., 2019; Maclure, 1993), it is an emergent concept in teacher educator research. English language teacher educators' professional identity deserves a special focus for a more in-depth exploration of who they are, what their day-to-day practices are, what type of roles they adopt in the workplaces, and how they negotiate the requirements of academic profession. Early insights into professional identity of teacher educators defined it as "relatively stable views, reflection patterns on professional behavior, and the accompanying self-image" (Klaassen et al., 1999, p. 337). However, the current understanding highlights that it is "not a fixed attribute" and "something develops during one's whole life" (Beijaard et al., 2004, pp. 107-108). As a matter of fact, "one becomes a teacher educator as soon as one does teacher education, but one's professional identity as a teacher educator is constructed over time" (Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013, p. 334). The common understanding about professional identity of teacher educators is that they aim to reconstruct their identity of school teacher to be not only teachers at universities but also researchers in the area of teacher education (Swennen et al., 2010). Davey (2013) gives a global description of teacher educators' professional identity:

> Professional identity derives from multiple influences –some internal and embedded in the intensely personal, and some external, embedded in sociocultural and political contexts. Its construction is an amalgam of personal agency or commitment on the one hand, and externally imposed, normative pressures on the other, all held in dynamic tension and changing over time. It consists of more than their craft knowledge/expertise, and more than their job history or personal biography, but it includes these. (p.19)

Murray and Male (2005) differentiate between first-order and second-order teachers. According to them, the first type of teachers teaches subject courses at K-12 schools and the second group teaches teacher candidates at higher education institutions as

teachers of teachers to "induct their students into the practices and discourses of the school and of teacher education" (Murray & Male, 2005, p. 26). From that sense, work of teacher educators is highly different from teachers, and therefore, the process of becoming a teacher educator has recently attracted considerable interest of scholars. There is wide lines of inquiry regarding the process: pathways to become teacher educators (e.g., Murray & Male 2005; Ritter, 2007; Williams & Ritter, 2010; Wood & Borg, 2010; Zeichner, 2005); personal motivation to become teacher educators (e.g., Montenegro Maggio, 2016; Mayer et al., 2011); professional preparation of teacher educators (e.g., Gehlbach Conklin, 2021; Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013); induction of novice teacher educators (e.g., Murray & Male, 2005; Saito, 2013).

As for pathways taken to become a teacher educator, Davey (2013) distinguishes between the academic and practitioner pathways. She states that some teachers become teacher educators upon completing a master's or doctorate program in a university, and this has become increasingly widespread due to official expectations in most parts of the North America, Europe, the UK and Australasia. The other group of teachers who take the second pathway, however, are directly transferred to higher education or teacher training schools thanks to their success and experience in teaching at K-12 schools. This is still a common way for many teacher educators in the UK, Australia and Europe. Regardless of the patways, transition to teacher education work not only "demands skills, expertise and knowledge that cannot simply be taken for granted" (Korthagen et al., 2005, p. 107) but also requires some changes in both professional identity and pedagogy. These changes are multifaceted. Novice teacher educators may encounter a change in the student profile; more freedom regarding professional works; a new group of colleagues, organizational culture, rules and policies; new technological pedagogical knowledge, unfamiliar research culture (Davey, 2013). Therefore, novice teacher educators as new members of the community are believed to practice on the periphery until they are socialized into their new identities through boundary crossing (Wenger, 1998).

Moreover, teacher educators vary regarding their motives to engage in this particular professional work. During the process of becoming teacher educators, it is believed that teachers experience a "rerouting" often accompanied by "decisions, valuations, invitations or important figures" that can be viewed as determining factors for their

career trajectories. (Montenegro Maggio, 2016, p. 541). While becoming a teacher educator can be a deliberate and pre-planned decision (Acker, 1997); it can also be an accidental or unintentional action, and may result from serendipity (Edmond & Hayler, 2013; Mayer et al., 2011; Montenegro Maggio, 2016).

Factors that are influential in individuals' career choice and shifts are categorized as push and pull factors (Kirkwood, 2009). To put it simply, while push factors are closely connected to negative emotions resulting from personal or contextual issues that are associated with the job or workplace, pull factors are related to positive emotions that draw individuals towards a new job or workplace (Kirkwood, 2009). Teacher educators' career choices can also be categorized based on this theory. For instance, Reynolds et al. (1994) synthesized three research studies and concluded that motivations of teacher educators for a career transition is multiple. To begin with pull factors, most of the teacher educators in the studies love teaching and view teaching in university can also cater to their love of teaching. Opportunities for better individual and professional freedom, intellectual stimulation; for a multidisciplinary work, to touch upon future teachers and teaching profession are other pull factors. Lack of professional development; and displeasure with colleagues and stable character of the profession lead to a career change from teacher to teacher educator as push factors.

Furthermore, they may start teacher education for a desire to advance in their career (Holme et al., 2016), and this may result from an urge to change professional practices and an escape from school routines (Guberman et al., 2021; Richter, Lazarides & Richter, 2021). The impact of significant others such as family members, colleagues, friends, teachers who encourage, give advice or simply role-model; desire for continuing professional development and sharing with others (Holme et al., 2016), as well as an aim for a social contribution (Richter et al., 2021) can be considered as important pull factors. To conclude, the motives behind teacher educators' career choices are multiple and simultaneously influential in varying degrees (Richter et al., 2021).

Additionally, teacher educators' previous professional experiences play an important role on the way they identify themselves. Those entering teacher education profession with a teaching background carry over "a wealth of knowledge about teaching,

students and education" to their new contexts and therefore "co-construct new facets of identity" (Clifford et al., 2004, pp. 106-107). Also, some teacher educators believe that their prior experience as teachers provide them with "credibility, empathy, and/or authenticity" (Williams, 2014, p. 319) since they can draw on their "experiential knowledge", "model good teaching practice", and give students "authentic advice" (p. 320). On the other hand, Clifford and Guthrie (1988, p. 40) suggest that academics at faculties of education are an "intellectually fragmented group":

> Some are former elementary or secondary school teachers or administrators who have carried a particular orientation into the college and university world. Still others have had no such experience and are proud of that fact… While some capitalise upon their `roots', others have rejected their past associations.

In other words, while some teacher educators still identify themselves with their past teaching experiences, others may prefer to distance themselves from previous roles and built their professional identities solely on their current roles such as being a researcher or teacher educator (Williams, 2014). As a matter of fact, how teacher educators situate themselves among other faculty members either from their own discipline or various other disciplines, the extent of embracing their past experiences and whether they built upon them or not may be considered as indicators of their professional identity.

Induction of teacher educators in their new professions has been an essential topic in teacher education research. Teacher educators' formal induction is called second-phase induction since they move from one educational site to another (Morberg & Eisenschmidt, 2009). Murray and Male (2005) argue that teacher educators need to smoothly join up situational self (i.e., develops with interaction with others in the workplace) and substantial self (i.e., a core of personal beliefs) during career change to successfully construct their professional identities. However, this might be a challenging work, and they state that "the transition between school teaching and work as a teacher educator is often stressful, with many teacher educators having difficulties in adjusting to the expectations of HE [Higher Education]" (Murray & Male, 2005, p. 127). In other words, moving to a university from a school context also entails a transition from a teacher role to a more comprehensive role that includes research

(Harrison & McKeon, 2008). The lack of induction may negatively contribute to teacher educators' stress and adaptation to the institutional roles and expectations.

It has been revealed that second-phase induction is usually a neglected in higher education (Guilfoyle et al., 1995; Ritter, 2007), and novice teacher educators usually get neither formal induction nor personal and professional support from senior teacher educators (Korthagen et al., 2005). This situation leads teacher educators to draw on "their fairly autonomous and solitary experiences" to construct their professional identity (Montenegro Maggio, 2016, p. 540). It has been found that especially novice teacher educators need two types of induction: institutional (i.e., information about the culture and routines of the institution) and professional (i.e., support for acquiring new professional knowledge and skills) (van Velzen et al., 2010). As a result, the literature shows that induction contributes to successful professional identity formation; and therefore, the belief that teacher education work "does not require any additional preparation and that if one is a good teacher of elementary or secondary students, this expertise will automatically carry over to one's work with novice teachers" has been strongly challenged (Zeichner, 2005, 118).

Professional identity is also established with the help of a complex interplay between teacher educators and other stakeholders such as colleagues and pre-service teachers because "we don't become teacher educators on our own" (Hayler & Williams, 2018, p. 116). Teacher educators collaborate with colleagues and pre-service teachers when practicing professional work and attending professional development activities (Swennen et al., 2010). Similarly, both groups may be regarded as the most important contributors to a teacher educator's pedagogy and self-study of professional practices (Russell, 2016). Collegiality and collaboration are regarded being in the midst of teacher education work, and therefore teacher educators are expected to look for colleagues to be able to exchange experiences by means of reflection to develop pedagogies (Waterhouse et al., 2021; Williams & Hayler, 2016). Conversing with colleagues about the profession is a valuable practice for teacher educators (Chauvot, 2009). Considering such a collaborative learning, teacher education programs are expected to function as learning communities for teacher educators as well (Fuentealba Jara & Montenegro Maggio, 2016). It was found that teacher educators in general tend to engage in collaborative learning in their workplaces; however, this

may not necessarily take place due to time limitations and the fact that some teacher educators avoid "fear of competition and judgemental attitudes of their colleagues" (MacPhail et al., 2019, p. 859). Moreover, new managerial policies in universities may contribute to diminished collegiality since they systematize a competitive relationship (Yokoyama, 2006).

In addition, teacher educators build a relationship with pre-service teachers based on teaching and mentoring, and this contributes to teacher educator professional identity. Dinkelman (2011) considers pre-service teachers as "the most 'significant others' to provide meaning about what it means to be a teacher educator" (p. 321). Teacher educators feel responsibility for pre-service teachers' professional learning and well-being, and thus allocate a considerable amount of their time to their students (Griffiths et al., 2010). As a result, they feel professionally satisfied and motivated if they have a good working relationship with pre-service teachers (Åkerlind, 2003). One tool that shapes the relationship between teacher educators and pre-service teachers is student evaluation of teaching (SET). Despite it is widely used in universities, teacher educators have not reached a consensus on the need, use, and advantage of using such tools (Fresko & Nasser, 2001). Some of them make use of SETs to inform their teaching (Yao & Grady, 2005) and to revise their courses in some areas such as changing the load of assignmets (Spencer & Flyr, 1992). On the other hand, it has also been found that stress experienced by some teacher educators due to such an assessment process may supersede their takeaway from the pre-service teachers' feedbacks (Smith, 2003).

Even if they may be affiliated with a higher education institution, teacher educators work in "borderline areas" including their professional history, schools, a wider community and local authorities, and national contexts (MacPhail et al., 2019, p. 849) such as the government and the profession itself (Kennedy, 2005). All these contexts and contextual factors are influential in how they practice their professional roles, construct their professional identities, position themselves, and identify their needs for professional growth (Murray, 2014). Teacher educators, especially at the beginning of their careers are expected to find out rules and regulations set by the institution explicitly as well as discovering the implicit ones (Olson, 1996).

When describing how she felt during her initial years in a teacher education program, Olson (1996) likens the academic environment to a labyrinth and states that: "The narrative contingencies in which I work often do not fit with the bureaucratic systemics... I learn through the glitches… Nothing is hidden, yet everything is hidden" (p. 132). As a result, bureaucratic and political structures of an institution may hurt teacher educators' sense of belonging and cause a struggle to adopt to the institutional requirements (Guilfoyle et al., 1995). The struggle of belonging and adaptation is fostered in a context where not only professional roles but also colleagues compete, and this results in a failure of "provid[ing] the shared values and practices that newcomers to the institution are looking for" (Williams et al., 2012, p. 251). At the macro level, funding policy of governments, based on the principle of the more research the more funding, is an important factor that directly affects teacher educators' roles, practices, and thus identities (Davey, 2013).

It is accepted that academic freedom is at the heart of academia as it entails freedom to speak, teach and determine personal research agenda regardless of the discipline and instiutiton (Altbach & Lewis, 1995; Kuh & Whitt, 1988). Therefore, teacher educators are also subject to institutional autonomy and academic freedom when negotiating their professional identities with the social contexts they work in (Henkel, 2005). It should be noted that institutional autonomy is a prerequisite for teacher educators to exercise academic freedom. The reason for that is that institutions have lower autonomy in highly controlled higher education systems, and this leads to diminished academic freedom which might negatively affect professional practices (Gedikoğlu, 2013). As a result, apart from immediate contexts, higher education systems and governmental policies are also influential in teacher educators' exercising academic freedom.

The interconnection between professional agency and professional identity on the basis of professional settings and practices has gained importance recently (e.g., Billett, 2006; Eteläpelto, 2008; Hökkä et al., 2012). As a result, professional agency has become another important concept to understand professional identity of teacher educators. The concept can be defined mainly as the ability to perform creatively in professional practices in addition to looking through a critical lens towards and showing resistance to external norms and rules in case they are viewed as conflicting

mechanisms to individuals' professional practices (Eteläpelto et. al., 2013; Toom et al., 2015). Moreover, professional agency may pave the way to teacher educators to view themselves as active learners taking actions on certain purposes and reflecting upon the results and effects of their practices (Pyhältö et al., 2015). While one important feature of agency is the action's being temporal since it complies with individuals' past, present and future, the other one is its being interactive considering the ties between individuals and the environment (Adler & Lalonde, 2020). Last but not least, agency, apart from its individual implications, is also based on "the availability of resources, institutional and structural factors" (Tran & Vu, 2018, p. 171).

Considering all, teacher educators' professional identity is a multi-faceted phenomenon. It does not take place in isolation but rather results from an interplay of various factors such as self-images, personal biographies, professional roles (i.e., researcher, teacher, etc.) and experiences, agency, relationships with other stakeholders (i.e., students, colleagues, administrators, etc.), sociocultural and political contexts in which they live and work. Thus, it can be concluded that teacher educator identity is not stable and detached from contextual factors; and requires further examination from different perspectives.

3.1.2. English Language Teacher Educators' Professional Roles

Professional role is defined as "a personal interpretation of a position based on expectations from the environment and on a systematically organized and transferable knowledge base" (Lunenberg et al., 2014, p. 6). Although it is believed that identity establishes the meaning and roles establish the functions (Castells, 1997), the boundary between these two concepts are still blur. Yet, it is also believed that teacher educators perform a range of roles throughout their professional lives, and thus adopt diverse sub-identities, which in turn construct their professional identity (Vloet & van Swet, 2010). Therefore, professional roles are thought to constitute a base for teacher educators' professional identity (Meeus et al., 2018), and it can be concluded that teacher educators' professional roles and professional identity are tightly interwoven.

Teacher educators are assumed to fulfill a variety of professional roles. Teacher educators are believed to adopt six basic professional roles: teacher of teachers, researcher, coach, curriculum developer, gatekeeper, and lastly broker (Lunenberg et al., 2014). In addition, teacher educators are expected to become mediators having the responsibility of reconciling policy makers, who design educational changes, and teachers, who implement these policies in their classroom contexts (Moradkhani et al., 2013). Moreover, their roles can be expanded on including teachers of education or teaching subjects; education researchers; other teachers of didactics or general courses; supervisors of practice in schools; tutors (counsellors, coordinators, mentors, guides etc.) supervising prospective teachers at the "on-the-job" qualifying phase; networks of supporters in the "on-the job" qualifying phase. (European Trade Union Committee for Education, 2008, p. 34). On the other hand, despite the multiplicity, it is possible to group university-based teacher educators' roles under three main titles: teaching, researching and service (Boyer, 1990).

In teacher role, teacher educators are engaged with a load of work including planning, designing and delivering courses, scoring exams, reading assignments, and giving academic advice (Lunenberg et al., 2014), communicating and collaborating with pre-service teachers in and out of classrooms. More specifically, teacher educators are expected to provide guidance to pre-service teachers to be successful in the program; to empower and contribute to their development; and to act as an intermediary between theoretical and practical knowledge (Shagrir, 2015).

Teacher educators are assumed to have a different pedagogy as second order teachers when compared to first order teachers, and therefore teacher education calls for two activities: learning about teaching and teaching how to teach (Loughran, 2014). In that sense, while they are supporting pre-service teachers, they also model their teaching practices (Lunenberg et al., 2007) as second order teachers. Moreover, research has revealed that teacher educators need to promote a global knowledge-base to manage their teaching practices (Yuan, 2017). According to Yuan and Yang (2020), such a knowledge-base is expected to include:

> knowledge of the English language, including its literature and culture as well as its complex roles and status in specific social and professional settings. For another, they also need to foster contextualized knowledge about language

> education (e.g., language curriculums, policies, and school contexts) and teacher learning (e.g., how language teachers learn and practice) in their situated work environment. (p. 3)

On the other hand, it should be noted that contrary to pre-service and in-service teachers, teacher educators do not follow a set of pre-determined rules, standards, and guidelines regarding teaching (Dinkelman, 2011). Moreover, successful teaching does not have a particular recipe, and teacher educators teach in a variety of contexts where there might be a continuous external pressure that may affect their teaching (Ritter, 2007). In such a situation, Lunenberg and Hamilton (2008) underline that teacher educators should be invited to develop a personal pedagogy of teacher education through which they turn into a knowledge producer from a consumer; model pre-service teachers, and also encourage them for reflection practices. In addition, it is known that their knowledge-base is also reshaped through reflecting upon their knowledge about teaching as ex-teachers in schools (Ritter, 2007) and this also contributes to a personal pedagogy of teacher education.

Researcher role is another integral part of their professional identities. In addition to teaching, teacher educators are also expected to master in research activities (Berry, 2008; Smith & Flores, 2019). They basically carry out research on the essence, process and complexity of teaching and learning as well as teacher education (Zeichner, 2005). Research helps them figure out the complexities of teaching and leads to a better practice (Tack & Vanderlinde, 2014) and provides opportunities for critical thinking and professional development which may result in an effective contribution to teacher education curriculum (Willemse & Boei, 2013).

Teacher educators' commitment to this role may differ with regard to their backgrounds. It has been revealed that although teacher educators who previously worked as teachers are highly committed to teacher role, their commitment to researcher role may vary (Murray, 2014). Especially teacher educators who are recruited directly from schools may face a problem of both carrying out and teaching about research due to lack of either a formal education or an induction process for such a role (Murray & Male, 2005). Some teacher educators detach research practice from the work in teacher education (Griffiths et al., 2010). The participants in Yuan's (2016) study, however, differ in their commitment to researcher role and are grouped as

teacher educator-researcher, struggling researcher, and inactive researcher regarding their relationship with research activities. Teacher educators with an academic background and education are more inclined to see themselves as scholars and reseachers rather than teachers and teacher educators (Ping et al., 2018).

Apart from their personal choice, intrinsic motivation and commitment to do research, outer requirements also affect how teacher educators invest in researcher roles. Both institutional and national pressure to do research and publish may push them towards a more active and dominant researcher identity (Harrison & McKeon, 2010). Some other factors may inhibit researcher identities, though. It was found that time limitations, loads of other roles, academic bureaucracy (Borg & Alshumaimeri 2012; Tanner & Davies, 2009; Willemse & Boei, 2013), devaluation of publication with professional orientation rather than an academic focus and lack of funding (Murray, 2008) may negatively affect teacher educators. The participants in Willemse and Boei's (2013) study also reported that support to write a scientific article, cooperation in research activities, discussion of research, exchange of experience and opportunities provided by the institution to share the results of research studies with colleagues are highly important for their commitment to the role. The gap between institutional expectations and the support teacher educators get for research and research culture (i.e., viewing research as an individual activity and lack of knowledge about colleagues' research studies) may be detrimental factors for a researcher identity (Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2012).

In addition, bureaucracy and red tape complicate how teacher educators carry out research. Bozeman and Youtie (2019) argues that "universities often 'overcomply' with research regulations, presumably as a means of reducing the likelihood of a cataclysmic rollback of … research funding" (p. 159), and how faculty experience tension while they are trying to comply with reguations. Teacher educators may also face restrictions and intervantions when they apply for an official permission to conduct research in schools. Their applications may be completely rejected or they are asked for a revision on a variety of issues such as rewriting or omitting certain questionnaire items, which can be considered as a major damage to academic freedom (Şahin & Kesik, 2020).

On the other hand, changing higher education policies have had an impact on professional roles. Proliferation of higher education institutions in numerous countries has brought about a growth in student numbers as well as class sizes (Berg, 2001; Sayed, 2002). Thus, growing numbers of students are enrolled into teacher education programs with a lack of basic content knowledge, and therefore, teacher educators who have to teach content as well as pedagogy, are left with little time and energy to conduct research (Jansen, 2001). In addition, some teacher educators are primarily committed to teaching through which they are also involved with the students' academic needs and vocational training process, and this may also create stress when they cannot succed in allocating time for other roles (Berg, 2001; Griffiths et al., 2010; Harrison & McKeon, 2008). It seems that teacher educators, especially working as lecturers, need both to be entitled to do research and to secure time reserved for only research in order to be active researchers (Berg, 2001; Griffiths et al., 2010).

Moreover, the current tendency to view teaching as subordinate to research also leads to a friction between teacher and researcher roles (Yuan, 2016). Fairweather (1997) holds that: "administrators and faculty in all types of institutions … use similar research-oriented criteria in hiring and in rewarding existing faculty" (p. 43). Therefore, institutional policies of promotion and tenure have become an important factor that draws their commitment away from teacher role (Diamond, 1993). As a result of both implicit and explicit institutional messages, they may learn to value research more than teaching at the very initial stages of their careers (Fairweather & Rhoads, 1995), even during graduate level education that can shape professional work behaviours (Bess, 1978). Some teacher educators also report that they attach more importance to research even if they have passion for teaching and want to allocate more time for their researcher roles (MacPhail et al., 2019).

High commitment to research and becoming a well performing researcher may cause teacher educators to view themselves and to be viewed by others mainly as researchers, and when their research practices are interrupted for the sake of other work (i.e., teaching and service), they experience "identity dilemmas and feelings of resentment" (Barkhuizen, 2021, p. 51). As a result, teacher educators usually feel a dichotomy between teacher and researcher roles due to institutions' heightened expectations of research as well (Chetty & Lubben, 2010; Maguire, 2000; Robinson

& McMillan, 2006). It seems that an increased productivity in both teacher and researcher roles at the same time happens rarely (Fairweather, 2002) despite exceptional cases where teacher educators can fulfill both roles thanks to exercising agency (Murray et al., 2011). Furthermore, as they are overwhelmed by the load of their professional roles, they experience difficulty in balancing work and private lives (Berg, 2001; Griffiths et al., 2010).

In addition to being a teacher and researcher, teacher educators may be expected to engage in service works as a part of their professional roles. It is necessary to note that service is not a concept defined as clearly as research and teaching at universities; and this indeterminate group of work may include various activities (Boyer, 1990; Cummings, 1998). Without making any categorizations, Boyer (1990, p. 23) views service "one that both applies and contributes to human knowledge" and suggests some application of scholarship such as shaping public policy or working with the public schools. Knight (2002) differentiates between two types of service works as *internal* and *external* to the university; and while the first includes activities such as providing students with academic guidance and becoming a member in commissions; public talks and representative roles at professional boards fall into the category of the latter. Ćulum (2015, p. 147) makes a further division of service work i) academic service (e.g., becoming a peer reviewer), ii) community service (i.e., collaboration with community organizations), and c) political service (i.e., participation in politics). Kalleberg (2014) views the service works as dissemination of scientific information and triggering "enlightened public opinion" in contexts such as magazines, newspapers, radio/TV channel, websites, and academic forums.

Ward (2003) provides a broader and detailed categorization of service work. She firstly differentiates between internal (inreach) and external (outreach) service. Internal service consists of service to the campus, the discipline, and students while external service targets at individuals and groups who are out of campus (Ward, 2003). As Burgan (1998) points out the faculty is expected to contribute to governance in universities, and calls the faculty performing service work as academic citizens. Thus, academic citizens provide service to their institutions by "participating in committee meetings, writing reports, and helping make decisions" (Ward, 2003, p. 55). They also "make curricular decisions, admit students, decide on scholarships, and perform other

service" for the functioning of departments (Ward, 2003, p. 56). Teacher educators also serve for their disciplines. They work for disciplinary or professional associations to carry out various works such as editing, reviewing, and writing for some platforms (Ward, 2003). Although such service work does not provide financial gains, it paves the way for opportunities of professional network (Boice, 2000). Service to students is the last component of internal service, and it is, though related, completely different from teaching. Service to students contains "advising, counseling, and letters of recommendation, work[ing] with students on research through proposal and thesis writing" (Ward, 2003, p. 58). Ward (2003) underlines that supervising graduate students for thesis writing is a distinct work considering that it combines all three professional roles. Moreover, although all academics including teacher educators devote a considerable amount of time to service to students and department, service work usually goes unrecognized and research has the utmost importance in annual performance evaluations (Berberet, 2002; Ward, 2003).

External service can be defined as "making knowledge accessible for the direct benefit of persons and entities external to the academy" (Fear & Sandmann, 1995, p. 112). Thus, teacher educators might conduct community-based action research (Ward, 2003). They can also compound community service with course work, which is called service-learning, and such a pedagogy have a potential to include research as well (Ward, 2003). They may also provide consulting based on their disciplinary knowledge and engage in "involvement in governmental affairs, … and legislative decision-making" (Ward, 2003, p. 77).

To what extent higher education institutions prioritize service in their policies may alter contextually. In other words, the degree of teacher educators' engagement with service work is an indicator of "micropolitics of life" at higher education institutions (Macfarlane, 2007, p. 267). Service work usually does not get rewarded in universities (Boice, 2000). Research universities, in particular, are at the target of criticisims for neglecting service work as a result of focus on research (Boyer, 1990). Therefore, it is not unusual for teacher educators to undervalue service work if it does not provide academic benefits in their contexts (Macfarlane, 2005). Also, some may prefer not to be into service practices as they work in academic environments where adopting a public role is not necessarily a historic component of the universities (Checkoway,

2001). Similarly, challenging working conditions such as increasing teaching hours and also being engrossed in theory to such an extent that they become disconnected from real life problems may be other factors that hinder some teacher educators from writing for the understanding and use of the public (Giroux, 2014). Apart from the context, teacher educators' personal preferences and values are important factors having an impact on the extent of service work. They may simply not view dealing with social issues and students' social engagements as part of their key roles in academia since they both view themselves and are viewed as solely teachers and researchers (Checkoway, 2001). On the other hand, teacher educators who are humanitarian and more concerned with public tend to be engaged with community service (Antonio et al., 2000). Lastly, the extent of carrying out service work is also affected by other factors including the discipline, the type and size of the university, promotion and tenure, institutional culture (Ward, 2003).

Considering professional works, Centra (1993, p. 2) argues that professional roles coincide with one another, and therefore "evaluation of an individual's performance should take this overlap into account and attempt to determine how one activity contributes to another". However, Colbeck (2002, p. 45) shows that "workload reports, annual reports, and promotion and tenure dossiers segregate faculty work into mutually exclusive roles" by categorizing and evaluating them separetely. Similarly, Fairweather (1996) argues that "faculty rewards emphasize the discreteness, not the mutuality, of teaching and research" (p. 110). On the other hand, a variety of studies demonstrate that professional roles are usually performed jointly such as combining research and teaching in a research team, or teaching and external service when teaching to communities beyond campus (Colbeck, 1995; 1998). Although some teacher educators enjoy such a combination in their professional activities, most of them show dissatisfaction with the complexity of multiple roles and the burden it brings (Czerniawski et al., 2017).

To conclude, teacher educators are considered important agents of higher education institutions in general and of teacher education programs in particular; and therefore, they are expected to take on various professional roles in their workplaces. Based on this, Dinkelman et al. (2006) consider the load and complexity of professional roles and teacher educators' relationship with other stakeholders such as students,

colleagues, administrators, and mentor teachers to conclude that: “Learning what it means to be a teacher educator at the university was more difficult than it might be at other places because of the multiple obligations [teacher educators] have to serve” (p. 16).

3.1.3. English Language Teacher Educators’ Political Roles as Intellectuals

Teaching itself is an intellectual, cultural, and contextually local activity rather than one that is primarily technical, neutral in terms of values and perspectives, and universal in terms of causes and effects.

Marilyn Cochran-Smith, 2004

We are never just teaching something called English but rather we are involved in economic and social change, cultural renewal, people’s dreams and desires.

Alastair Pennycook, 2017

It is apparent that teacher educators are usually preoccupied with playing their professional roles consisting of teaching, research and service in their daily work practices. While performing professional roles, they, as other academics, are also expected to be active intellectual agents (Kalleberg, 2014). This study adopts an understanding of intellectual based on Lentricchia’s (1983) definition:

> By "intellectual" I do not mean what traditional Marxism has generally meant - a bearer of the universal, the political conscience of us all. Nor do I mean "a radical intellectual" in the narrowest of understandings of Antonio Gramsci - an intellectual whose practice is overtly, daily aligned with and empirically involved in the working class. By intellectual I refer to the *specific intellectual* described by Foucault - one whose radical work of transformation, whose fight against repression is carried on at the specific institutional site where he finds himself and on the terms of his own expertise, on the terms inherent to his own functioning as an intellectual. (pp. 6-7)

Foucault (1984) analyzes the relationship between knowledge and intellectuals; and argues that intellectuals have limited and context-bound knowledge which may be difficult to go beyond their expertise and research. In addition, he reminds us that producing and accumulating knowledge is an activity embedded in power structures (Foucault, 1981/1991). In order to not contribute to such power relations, he suggests

intellectuals be non-prescriptive, and have a concern "of performing analyses in his or her own field, of interrogating anew the evidences and the postulates, of shaking up habits, ways of acting and thinking, of dispelling commonplace beliefs, of thinking a new measure of rules and institutions" (Foucault 1981/1991, pp. 11-12).

Considering this specific view of the term, universities and academia, broadly speaking, become sites for intellectual work of teacher educators. On the other hand, Scott and Marshall (2009) suggest that universities are not necessarily places that enable intellectual work: "The heirs to the intellectual tradition work mainly in large institutions - usually universities- which are not hospitable to new or challenging ideas. Academics are by necessity careerists first and intellectuals second" (p. 362). Said (1996) also draws attention to the hegemony of professionalism over intellectualism. He maintains that intellectuals have a particular public role and "they cannot be reduced simply to being a faceless professional, a competent member of class just going about her/his business" (Said, 1996, p. 11).

Lipset and Basu (1975) believe that the typical of intellectuals is not to show support for status quo no matter they are from the right or left wing. Moreover, Aron (1962, p. 210) highlights the critical aspects of intellectuals and states that bringing criticism to status quo is "the occupational disease of the intellectuals". Also, Merton (1968) argues that intellectuals are people who create new knowledge to enrich existing body of knowledge, and he argues:

> … we normally include teachers and professors among the intellectuals. As a rough approximation, this may be adequate, but it does not follow that every teacher or professor is an intellectual. He may or may not be, depending on the actual nature of his activities. The limiting case occurs when a teacher merely communicates the content of a textbook, without further interpretations or applications. In such cases, the teacher is no more an intellectual than a radio announcer who merely reads a script prepared for him by others. (p. 263)

However, current educational policies and practices leave highly limited intellectual space for teacher educators. They are expected to possess a technicist view of education and are hold accountable to performance outcomes, and thus, their professional knowledge base turns into "deprofessionalized, standardized, and deprivatized" with limited professional autonomy (Berry & Forgasz, 2018, p. 238).

While teacher educators are expected to exercise professional autonomy, national or institutional contexts may establish control on their teaching practices (e.g., expectations of teaching based on Teachers' Standards or Competencies criteria), which results in their conformity to and obedience with the external expectations (Schuck et al., 2018). Moreover, curriculum in teacher education departments has largely grown away from searching for educational meaning and been filled up with teaching techniques and methods (Kincheloe, 2011). Such a technical view of teaching is reflected in classrooms as performance pedagogy, and it leads teacher educators to nurture future teachers who are incapable of reflecting on political, and moral aspects of their practices (Tinning, 1991).

Neoliberal policies in higher education cause pedagogy to have no political and ideological connections, and this results in a "silent colonisation of the hearts and minds of academics and students" (Lynch, 2008, p. 9). However, pedagogy is essentially political as it is related to the reproduction of certain type of knowledge and inequalities in society (Pennycook, 1989). In addition, neither teacher educators are simlply transmitters of knowledge nor pre-service teachers are recipients of content in an ideal education system because teacher educators are expected to educate students to become responsible citizens with social and ethical considerations so that they can improve the conditions in society (Troiani & Dutson, 2021). In other words, teaching requires more than accumulating related knowledge base and teaching techniques as it also calls for social, political and cultural knowledge through which teaching is practiced (Pennycook, 2004).

More specifically, the fact that English language teaching historically has more affinity with language and linguistics than it has with education has led to a technicist and individualistic understanding of teacher education programs where social and political aspects of language teaching have been neglected (Crookes & Lehner, 1998). Nevertheless, "many decisions about what gets taught, to whom, how, when, and where" are embedded in structural power relations (Pennycook, 1989, p. 590). Thus, teacher educators can be expected to become responsible from exercising a pedagogy through which they negotiate structures of power and ideologies that are influential in society, university and education (Giroux, 2009). To dispose of the instrumental model of teaching which is rooted in political neutrality, Giroux (2014) suggests

blending the roles of critical educator and active citizen to be able to create links between teaching in the classroom and social problems and issues of power in public life. Also, teacher educators may be expected to become empowering professionals in two ways. One is teacher educators' questioning recent scientific knowledge from a critical perspective as well as being active researchers (Moradkhani et al., 2013), and the other is being knowledgeable about sociopolitical environment surrounding their educational practices (Doecke, 2004).

The importance of teacher educators' political roles during the training process of pre-service teachers needs attention. Teacher educators are expected to have the role of intellectuals that enable pre-service teachers to socialize through their decisions and training and to become "powerful, skillful and competent" professionals (Al-Issa, 2005, p. 346). Moreover, teacher educators' decisions on and preferences for a variety of issues including use of language, curriculum, instructional materials are influential in students' socioeconomic awareness (Auerbach, 1995). In addition, teacher educators may serve as "agents of political socialization" for their students by both teaching content and becoming role-models with their own awareness (Bar-Tal & Harel, 2002, p. 122). Likewise, teacher educators' political roles require them to recognize that higher education is not merely based on "job training" and teaching "entrepreneurial subjects" but also on educating individuals with "civic engagement, critical thinking, civic literacy, and the capacity for democratic agency, action, and change" (Giroux, 2014, p. 45). As a result, teacher educators' pedagogy is highly influential in future teachers' professional decisions and choices. To conclude, Cochran-Smith (2000), who underlines that teaching and teacher education are inherently political, suggests that those who are in teacher education should be prepared to be occupied more with political debates in order to shape the future of teacher education.

3. 3. Previous Research on Roles and Identity of Teacher Educators

In order to investigate the job satisfaction levels of academics who work in the Faculties of Education in Turkey, Yılmaz et al. (2014) gathered data from 123 participants by means of a survey. The results demonstrated that teacher educators

enjoy their jobs mostly as it provides an opportunity for both professional and personal development. In addition, working in academia brings them other advantages including prestige, flexible working conditions, working with young adults, contribution to knowledge production, and serving for the wellbeing of community. However, they also expressed their concerns with a variety of issues embedded in their professional practices. The teacher educators believed that having an excessive workload that consists of teaching and administrative service set back research and publication. They were also highly dissatisfied with their salaries, limited time they could allocate to their personal lives, and working at home on their off-hour. They expressed their desire to get paid higher as well as having plenty of opportunity to access professional networks.

Similarly, another study conducted by Taşdemir Afşar (2015) focused on academics' quality of work life in the Turkish context. She collected data via a scale and a questionnaire from 322 academics with different titles ranging from research assistant to full professor working in a variety of units including Faculty of Education. She found that academics' quality of work life increased as they moved up the academic ranking hierarchy. In the study, while full professors had the highest sense of quality among all, research assistants had the lowest. This hierarchy applied to salaries that academics earned. Academics with higher ranks, and thus, higher salaries had increased quality of work life. Moreover, the more academics experienced the lack of job security and organizational protection, the less they had quality of work life. She concluded that a decreasing sense of job security may lead academics to exercise academic freedom cautiously and to a lesser degree. She added that scientific productivity can be enhanced if only higher education system ensures that academics have job security and satisfactory salaries as well as being evaluated on quality-oriented appointment and promotion criteria rather than performance-oriented criteria.

Informed by motivation theories, Şahin et al. (2017) research study investigated academics' attitudes about academic incentive system that has been managed by CoHE since 2016. They conducted interviews with 10 academics. While the participants found the system motivating and encouraging to produce more, they have concerns about the criteria, the implementation of the system and the possible impact of the system on academic work. They think that an urge to receive the grant may

result in quality problems considering the short time span during which studies are carried out. Therefore, an increase in productivity may not go parallel with increase in quality of studies. As academics can direct their time and energy to research and publishing activities, they may neglect the other academic works such as teaching. Moreover, increase in productivity may result in either superficial scientific products or unethical behaviours.

Academics' views about and experiences of academic incentive system in Turkey was also studied by Demir (2019). He used a questionnaire to gather data from 1126 academics who were from different disciplines. The findings demonstrated that majority of the participants believed that the system contributed to increase in scientific production although they were anxious about the quality of those productions. Similarly, most of the participants supported the use of performance-pay system with some changes in the criteria and evaluation process. A great majority of the participants (78%) stated that the system should continue to be based on research and publication activities. On the other hand, participants from Faculties of Education had more concerns regarding the fact that such a system might have deteriorating effects on teaching. Very limited number of participants (7.2%) did not express approval of implemantion of performance-pay system.

Similarly, Atalay (2018) investigated how academics working in the field of social sciences view academic incentive policies and implementation in the Turkish higher education system, and how such an implementation contributed to academic proletarianization. She conducted interviews with 28 academics affiliated with both state and foundation universities. According to the results, while some participants sated that they did not guide their research practices towards incentive despite, the others developed strategies to get the highest amount of incentive pay and manage their research activities and publications accordingly. It was also reported that this system enabled more productivity and motivation for some. The researcher concluded that academic incentive system can be considered as a control mechanism in academic production, directing academics to engage in certain types of research activities and publish in particular indexes under time constraints. While academics started to fail exercising control over their own works, they became more prone to external expectations and requirements.

Academics' perceptions regarding academic freedom in the Turkish academia was examined by Balyer (2011). He conducted semi-structured interviews with 30 academics coming from different disciplines and working in both state and foundation universities. His analysis revealed that the participants usually associated academic freedom with freedom in research activities. Most of the participants were not satisfied with the academic freedom they could exercise. While some stated that they felt constrained when teaching and doing research, others felt such a constraint when writing. Most of the participants spoke of CoHE as an important constraint for their academic freedom while only 2 participants believed that it positively contributed to academic freedom. Some academics found academic boards as units enabling academic freedom although they criticized that research assistants, lecturers and students are not represented in such boards. On the other hand, they stated that decisions are usually taken by small groups, which is a non-inclusive implementation. Nearly all academics expressed resentment over the difficulties they face to find financial support to do research except two participants.

Vähäsantanen et al. (2020) studied how professional agency is exercised in a Finnish university with the participation of academics that were categorized as teachers (i.e., lecturers), researchers (i.e., doctoral students, university/project researchers), and leaders (i.e., leaders or research projects or (vice) chairs in the departmental units). They first conducted a questionnaire with 106 academics and then did interviews with 25 voluntary interviews. They came up with several results regarding the participants' answers to both data collection tools. Firstly, all academics manifested more agency about their own work such as designing courses, deciding course content and research activities even if they slightly felt restrctions regarding the choices of courses they would like to teach. However, their agency was comparatively diminished at the departmental level since they felt that they were not heard and did not attend fully into decision making processes. While leaders believed that they could exercise more agency in departmental matters, their agency were not high at faculty and university levels. In addition, colleagues and leaders have an impact on how academics manifest agency.

Although academics stated that they could make work-related choices to some extent, they felt that their opinions were not necessarily taken into consideration when

teaching duties were being administered. The participants also showed high levels of agency when developing work practices at the individual level. They were active and enthusiastic to implement new practices both in teaching and research. Yet, they stated that it was comparatively more difficult to establish and contribute to shared practices at the departmental level. Physical distance (i.e., rooms located at different places) and underdeveloped social relations with colleagues were found to contribute negatively to collaboration and shared activities. Moreover, most of the participants accomplished to reach their professional aims and interests especially in teaching. Academics holding teaching posts revealed that while such a post enabled their teaching practices, it constrained development of a researcher identity. Moreover, they stated that as the university became more research-oriented expectations to do research even from the holders of teaching posts increased even if this call did not negatively affect their agency in teaching. To conclude, the researchers claimed that the academic staff have "a measure of freedom" (p. 10) and therefore they have access to opportunities to decide and control on their professional work.

Ylijoki and Ursin (2013) took a narrative approach to explore how Finnish academics conceptualize their academic identities with regard to current changes in the national higher education system. They interviewed with 42 academics from a variety of disciplines and established three storylines based on their professional practices: regressive, progressive and stability storylines. These storylines demonstrated negative, positive and neutral conceptualizations, respectively. The regressive storyline included a variety of narratives. The participants with a narrative of resistance were not satisified with the changes in academia and showed resistance to new managerialism in universities. They preferred to hold on to traditional values such as collegiality, academic freedom, and autonomy. The narrative of loss depicts professional work as "deterioration and collapse" (p. 1140). However, the academics did not show agency for resistance, they rather seemed inactive, surrendered and hopeless for a change. In the narrative of administrative work overload, the academics complained about the administrative tasks and responsibilities they were assigned with. As the new managerial increased the amount of such work (e.g., departmental meetings, filling in forms related system in universities to external evaluations), they suffered from lack of time to do research. The narrative of job security revealed

academics' identity as a "wage earner" (P. 1142), and that that academics usually work on temporary positions with short-term contracts, feeling highly insecure.

The progressive storyline included other narratives that contradicted with that of regressive line. The academics who provided a narrative of success considered the changes in academia as agreeable and encouraging. Recent policies became advantageous for them to receive more grants and rise in status. The narrative of mobility reflects academic career as flexible and not fixed. Current policies were believed to enable opportunities for career, sector and institution shifts. The narrative of change agency showed that some academics facilitated the changes taking place in universities particularly in the roles of dean or chair. The last storyline consisted of the narrative of work-life balance and the narrative of the bystander. In the former, academics show that changing and more demanding nature of academic work can still be handled by means of flexible working conditions. In this way, they could establish work-life balance and contributed to domestic work and shouldered parental responsibilities. In the latter, on the other hand, academics believed that structural changes in higher education did not cause a change in their daily professional work. Considering all, the researchers concluded that academic identities had never been uniform static; however, new managerial systems promoted their being increasingly diverse and polarized.

Based on a narrative framework, Ylijoki and Henriksson (2017) carried out a study through which they investigated junior social science academics pursue careers in academia. They collected data through focus group interviews with 12 participants about their day-to-day work practices. They categorized career stories participants told in five and analyzed them based on four dimensions: core commitment to one's career, career risk, career support, and stance towards the university. The first story was *the novice of the academic elite*. In this story, commitment stemmed from academic freedom and contribution to knowledge production, aim to achieve reputation and recognition through research and limited (if any) role of teaching. External pressures for excellence in research was a risk. Carrier support came from colleague collaboration by sharing work practices and increasing the feeling of belonging. University was seen as the "alma mater" (p. 1298) rather than employer. However, institutional mobility rather than sticking to a particular university context

is valued in such a career. Work-life balance did not exist for the participants having this career trajectory. The second story was *the victim of the teaching trap*. Career continuity was sustained through engagement in teaching as it was viewed motivating and rewarding. Academics telling this story also had interest for research. The risk stemmed from a possible imbalance between research and teaching. Excessive workload related to teaching and students often surpassed research endeavor, which resulted in tension and anxiety. Committed teachers, on the other hand, felt alone since they were deprived of colleague support and sharing, as well as feeling like a "second-class member" (p. 1299). The university was considered to be "fraudulent" (p. 1299) since it devalues teaching even if teaching was represented with a high importance in the mission statement. Similarly work-life boundary was not clear. In addition, contrary to previous story, this story did not encourage institutional mobility.

The third story was called as *academic worker*. The academics' motives were wage-earning and having been employed. The source of the risk in this story was working on short-term contracts in a competitive academic market. Solidarity with academics working under the same precarious conditions led to a sense of collectiveness. University was viewed as a place of managerialism and a hindrance for novice academics' career development. The next story *the research group member.* In this story, academics were devoted to their research groups and practices and teaching and service were pushed back. Academic networks and access to funding were considered important. Research group membership provided a collective support for finding funds instead of individual attempts. Universities was viewed as a context to conduct research, which implies an "indirect and instrumental" link to the university (p. 1302). The last story is called *academic freelancer,* where academics attach high priority to "self-branding in networks" (p. 1302). Networks were established in and out of academia as well as on national, local, and international platforms. The source of the risk in this story is that international networks may pave the way for loose links with the university affiliated. Also, it is difficult to maintain and control them. Due to networks' global nature, there was no institutional or colleague support in this story. Work-life boundary was maintained. As a result, this story is in line with expectations of entrepreneur academics in neoliberal academia. To conclude, the stories presented in the study showed that careers in academia were both fragmented and polarized.

They also revealed that academics were comprised of three tiers: tribe members, the proletariat and academic capitalists.

In order to uncover the stress that academics experience due to their work-related practices, Barkhuizen and Rothmann (2008) administered a stress screening survey and a biographical questionnaire to 595 academics in South African universities. There was a great variety regarding the participants background, disciplines, their post, years of experience, and focus of work. The researchers found that the participants suffered from considerable occupational stress depending on pay and benefits, overload due to competing professional commitments, and work-life balance. The participants stated that they also suffered from time limitations which resulted in working longer hours or even at the weekends, and not feeling satisfied with the work they did. On the other hand, they felt less tensions with regard to work relationships, job security, control, resources and communication and job characteristics. The researchers concluded that the participants still could maintain control on their work. The participants also reported low levels of psychological health while their physical health was on average. They reported experiencing sleep deprivation as well as muscle pains. Lastly, the participants felt an average amount of mutual commitment both from and towards the institution they worked in.

Another study on occupational stress was conducted by Winefield et al. (2003) with almost 9000 participants, including both academic and administrative staff, working in 17 different universities in Australia. In this quantitative study, the results showed that the total psychological stress level of the participants was very high. The groups having the lowest job satisfaction levels were teaching-only and teaching and research groups. Psychological strain was experienced more by academic staff in newly-established universities whereas old universities provided more job satisfaction. The most important factors causing stress was found to be inadequate funds and resources, work overload, increase in the student-to-staff ratio, promotion and appointment problems, payment, industry-university relations.

Informed by academic literacies approach, Getahun et al. (2021) studied how institutional policies affect scientific production as well as academics' preferences for publishing. Their qualitative study compared two different higher education contexts

in Oman and Ethiopia. In total 17 academics from both contexts with different academic disciplines including English language teaching, participated in the study. The researchers found that publication was a considerably important criterion for the universities in both contexts. The academics in both contexts had to publish to renew their contracts and to get promoted, and this was the primary motive for them. Professional and personal development in addition to a sense of contribution to the discipline were also achieved through publishing. The participants also spoke of challenges they experienced when writing publishing. In Ethiopia, academics had difficulty in determining the order of authorship; late and biased feedbacks from journal referees; and workload stemming from other duties such as teaching and service. In Oman, the participants wrote both in Arabic and in English. For instance, a participant from English language teaching department stated that he mostly wrote in English thanks to his discipline and training, that is "by preparation" (p. 171). Although they favored collaboration, lack of a collaboration culture, a common research agenda, and difficulty of matching up with the right co-researcher were regarded as problems.

As for their decision regarding where to publish, in Oman, some participants "chose the easy path" (p. 172) by publishing in local journals as they did not install language barrier, comparatively quicker and less challenging review process. In Ethiopia, the participants' main concern was the reputation of the journals. Journals' relevance and high possibility of rejection were influential factors as well. They also targeted at international journals to gain more recognition, to reach out a wider readership, avoid applying to inadequate number of local journals with ill-functioning review systems. However, some also preferred local journals due to their highly local topics. In both contexts, publishing internationally was believed to provide advantages for promotion. The researchers concluded that the norms and values of the centre is so much embedded in the periphery that the participants viewed the concept of 'international' as a fact not a socially constructed concept.

Griffiths et al. (2010) explored how university-based early-career teacher educators developed a researcher identity. They carried out the study in two universities as the larger cases. As for individual cases, they interviewed with six teacher educators and six research mentors from both contexts. The results showed that teacher educators

expressed not only positive but also negative views regarding experiences when constructing a researcher identity. Their previous experience in schools was a strength for them, and their easy access to and familiarity with school contexts brought them advantages as researchers. On the other hand, the major obstacle for them was time limitations. Heavy teaching loads and time devoted to family contributed to such a limitation. Some teacher educators indicated their commitment to students and teaching as well as family members became priorities in their lives. Moreover, comparing themselves to certain colleagues, some teacher educators expressed their disappointment regarding their lack of opportunity for a study leave stemming from their own perceived lower status and lack of promotion. Lack of confidence and collobarotion with other researchers were also barriers for research practices. The participants made some suggestions to improve the institutional conditions for research practices. Their suggestions included a structured induction for research, an individual and institutionally protected research time, institutionally balanced research and teaching times and collaboration among colleagues for research buddying.

Menzies and Newson (2007) studied the changes brought about by the new managerial policies and how these changes affected Canadian academics' work practices. The researchers used both a survey and an interview to reveal the way conflicting temporal and institutional expectations and requirements led to a struggle for the participants and how they dealt with it. According to the results, the participants commonly use information and communication technologies (ICT) in every aspect of their work and these became embedded in everyday work practices due to universities' concerns for efficiency and fast-paced knowledge production. They found an opportunity to make their work visible to both national and international academics as well as building up and sustaining international research networks. In return, they mainly devoted themselves to "self-serve administration" (p. 93), secure external funding, write a variety of reports, deal with technology problems. Therefore, they had less face-to-face and direct contact with colleagues and more planned and shorter talks with less familiar ones. The participants also reported that they could not find time to think deeply, to read by reflecting and on interdisciplinary topics. They also stated that they became multi-taskers administering fragmented work and personal lives and failing to decelerate due to constant time compression.

Designed as an interpretive phenomenological research study, Kondakci et al. (2021) examined academics' perceptions regarding impact assessment. They interviewed with 20 academics working in the Faculties of Education of five different universities. The results demonstrated that the participants believed that research practices and related outcomes could create a higher impact due to research-oriented promotion and evaluation criteria of universities. On the other hand, teaching was believed to have a considerable impact potential as it provided opportunities to train future teachers or educators. Thus, their conceptualization of impact of teaching was not based on criteria that were quantifiable, rather it was mostly related to values. However, the participants usually had loaded schedules and could not find time to sustain community service work. This is why they viewed the impact of community service lower.

In addition, impact assessment of universities they work in were found to be influential on their professional practices. The participants draw attention to the highly competitive and quantity-oriented performance criteria they were subject to considering that the universities who aimed for higher standings in the global rankings usually relied on quantifiable criteria such as publications and numbers of citations as well as indexes and quartiles of journals. Since publication and research was promoted, it was believed that other works that the participants got engaged with were not recognized by the university. The researchers called this situation "hypermetropia of the rankings systems" (p. 376). The participants did not believe that impact assessment systems could not achieve a fair evaluation of all academic work. As a result, it was concluded that the institutions impact assessment was not in line with the higher education law as well as academics' conceptualization of impact. Furthermore, the institutions impact assessment led academics to go for international publications in English as they brought more recognition, funding and points for promotion.

It was also found that novice and non-tenured academics had more workload compared to senior academics, and this lowered the amount of time they could allocate to research activities. The researchers underlined that current impact assessment system in the universities and academic incentive system have become serious threats to academic freedom, given harm to research ethics and deteriorated the quality of publications. Also, such a system was found to urge academics to participate in

international research networks to have a better opportunity of getting published. Moreover, not only individual academics but also faculties were found to be ranked by some institutions based on their indexed publications as well as citations, as a strategy fostering competition rather than collaboration.

Drake et al. (2019) explored how full-time non-tenure-track faculty members in the States perceived and exercised agency in their professional work. In addition to document analysis, the researchers conducted interviews with 20 participants of different disciplines in a research university. According to the findings, the participants believed that their agency and autonomy incresed with institutional longevity and seniority. Similarly, they expressed feeling a sense of agency when teaching. Designing, adapting and teaching courses in their own way and choosing their own materials. On the other hand, agency in the program development process varied by contextual and individual factors. Furthermore, almost all participants believed that their role expectations, limitations of voting and job insecurity could be considered as limitations for agency. They were often non-eligible to vote for policy changes and staff hiring, and therefore, lacked agency. Even if they were included in the meetings and discussions, they felt excluded due to lack of contribution to final decision-making. Additionally, the participants stated that their agency was negatively affected due to the fact that tenured faculty made them feel invisible and excluded by not recognizing their efforts and contributions. Some of them felt that there was lack of financial value about their roles. Even if they taught more, they earn less. On the other hand, some of them felt having been valued and enjoyed professional credibility. The participants were also subject to three- or one-year renewable contracts and some of them were regularly evaluated. However, most of them were confused about such processes. The researchers concluded that full-time non-tenure track faculty members were not experiencing pressure for performance but also maneuver through the institutional politics devaluing and overlooking their efforts.

Walden and Bryan (2010) investigated the perception of faculty working in Colleges of Education regarding motivators and barriers for grant writing. The researchers used a survey and gathered data from 35 participants. The participants' responses showed that the most important motivatiors for grant writing were control over resources, opportunities for innovation and constructing a researcher reputation. In addition,

providing opportunities for students to do research and to have access to equipment was considered important. Most of the participants thought that university culture was a barrier as it provided neither support nor reward. It was also believed that even if research was valued rhetorically, institutional support did not work in reality. Also, administrative workload led to decrease in motivation. Lastly, the participants believed that support from administrative staff not only during grant writing but also after receiving the fund would be highly motivating for them.

Teacher educators' construction of professionalism and their professional identities were addressed by Murray (2014) in a case study. She drew on both questionnaires and interviews to gather data from 36 participants working in the Schools of Education in England. According to the results, she categorized the participants in three groups: new teacher educator professionalism, teachers of teachers' professionalism and education academics' professionalism. Teacher educators in the first category have a limited experience in the academic context and still identify themselves with teacher identity as they have recent information about schools. They view their previous experience as an important assest. They built their professionalism on knowledge of pre-service work. While most of them did not prefer to adopt identities as researcher or academic, some were more aspirant. Teacher educators in the second category were similar to the ones in first group in the sense that they viewed that experiental knowledge of schools contributed to professional credibility in higher education. They drew on pedagogical and pastoral skills. Almost all defined themselves as teacher educators and most of them rejected researcher or academic identities. Some others defined themselves as managers focusing on the administrative work they did.

Teacher educators in the last category were the closest to academic professionalism. Identifiying themselves as subject experts, they also mentioned identities that were discipline-specific. Some stated that their teacher and researcher identities were conflated. Some others believed that they were mutually exclusive due to a difference between the fields of research and teaching. They did not allocate much time for teaching and caring students as the teacher educators in the first two categories because they were preoccupied with institutional requirements of research outputs. Similarly, they did not value administrative work. Even if research was a powerful form of capital for these teacher educators, they also run the risk of having "an ivory

tower researcher image" or being viewed as "other" (p. 15) to the profession. The researcher concluded that professionalism and identity are combinations of effects stemming from personal biographies, institutional context and national policies.

Tezgiden-Cakcak (2017) aimed to explore English language teacher educators' mission. She conducted semi-structured interviews with eight teacher educators and four emeritus professors who worked in a public university in Turkey. The findings revealed that emeritus professors had a comparatively different understanding of missions. They underlined issues such as the importance of pre-service teachers' critical thinking skills, oppression by CoHE and how they tried to resist it. Teacher educators, on the other hand, stressed other professional qualities that they expected the pre-service teachers to develop: showing respect to the students and profession, proficiency in language and competency in subject-matter knowledge. They were not much preoccupied with CoHE's interventions regarding technical issues since they believed that they could exercise autonomy to some extent on their professional work. Also, majority of the teacher educators believed that they had no social missions in their work and they signaled frustration over lack of possibilities to transform future teachers and of freedom of speech. Some of them stated that they aimed to train students who would be reflective and autonomous teachers in future. The rest of the teacher educators accepted having a mission beyond teaching subject matters; however, they chose to become only role-models for this mission.

Another study by Dugas et al. (2018) investigated the relationship between academic identity and neoliberal principles at regional public universities in the United States. More specifically, they aimed to explore the strain of teaching and research on faculty and how this strain is reflected on their professional identity under the effect of institutional expectations and personal preferences. Online surveys were used to collect data from a total of 156 faculty members from all ranks. The findings revealed that faculty who identified themselves as teachers had more job satisfaction while faculty having less work experience were inclined to identify themselves as researchers, and showed less satisfaction. It was concluded that although those faculty members' priority was research, they had to deal with teaching more than expected, and this discrepancy may be the leading reason for their dissatisfaction. Last but not least, these state universities that were generally based more on teaching than research,

together with the impact of neoliberal policies such as academic competition and also budgetary cuts led to stress on faculty's academic identity.

In a similar study conducted in the context of Spanish higher education, González-Calvo and Arias-Carballal (2018) aimed to investigate how a lecturer's professional identity within the framework of neoliberalism was affected by audit culture, higher education context that supports natural sciences more than social sciences, and the issues such as quality and quantity of academic studies. The researcher, a part time lecturer at university, used an auto-ethnographic method and kept a field diary about her work routine and her own reflections regarding this. In conclusion, the study showed that the researcher's experiences were reflections of dissatisfaction and burnout resulting from the change in the nature of teaching and academic career at universities. Another point underscored in the study was teaching and research were not viewed equally important because of neoliberal principles aiming to increase scientific and academic research in higher education institutions.

Gonzales et al.'s (2014) research study investigated the professional lives of faculty who work at an ambitious regional university striving for a prestigious status in the higher education market in the United States. The researchers drew on both field work and electronic surveys to gather data from a total of 140 academics. The results demonstrated that three types of "pressure" were the inherent components of the academics' professional lives: The feeling that their professional lives have no borders, the necessity of having successful time management, and intense surveillance to adjust to the neoliberal ideologies in the universities. The researchers concluded that faculty felt constrained in many ways and was forced to behave as competent and self-sustaining individuals with good time management skills.

Archer (2008a) conducted a similar research study with a completely different focus. Rather than senior academics, her study was based on academic identities and work experiences of eight young academics at the age of 35 or under and working at the UK universities. The motive behind the research study was mainly about investigating how young academics construct their identity and if they were typical subjects of audit culture and managerialism in higher education discourse. Snowball sampling was used to recruit the participants whose subject areas were ranging from technology to

sociology, and semi-structured interviews were prepared to collect data. Since neoliberal practices were inherent in their identity, they suffered from neoliberalism's governmentality of the souls and minds. On the other hand, they were able to develop some strategies to resist the demanding requirements of the universities such as safeguarding themselves by 'playing the game', having their say, supporting each other, being interested in psychological work, and balancing the load of work with extra activities.

Hao (2016) worked with the faculty members at Macau in China in the context of corporatization and commercialization of academia. The researcher designed a case study of a university as well as making use of statistics in general related to universities in Macau. The study demonstrated that feeble administration of faculty may destroy not only academic freedom but also professional identity construction. The findings acknowledged that the reasons for the weak administration may result from structural factors such as dominant and hegemonic impact of mainland China, cultural factors, and individual preferences. While some of the academics in the study preferred to resist passively, the others were either in a state of "learned helplessness" or were in search of a new job. In addition to vocationalization, part-time recruitment, de-professionalization, the lack of shared governance, the researcher concluded that decisions of administration and faculty members together constitute professional identity.

The focus of the study conducted by Bozyiğit and Yangın-Ekşi (2021) was English language teacher educators' experience of challenges and how they deal with them. For this phenomenological study, 35 participants filled out a questionnaire and five of them were interviewed. The participants reported that although they had much difficulty in instructional strategies as early career teacher educators, gaining teaching experience in higher education helped them overcome this challenge later in their careers. Also, lack of induction, professional support and school teaching experience contributed to the challenge they experienced. Administrative work, teaching load, and research expectations have become current sources of stress for them. They mostly preferred to make use of consulting colleagues and research studies to overcome such instructional challenges.

Teacher educators' attitudes towards standardized student evaluation of teaching in a higher education institution located in Israel were investigated by Smith and Welicker-Pollack (2008). They collected data from 88 participants by means of a questionnaire. The results showed that the participants usually held positive views regarding the students' evaluation of their teaching. The researchers also found that the teacher educators usually take the survey results serious and try to make use of them for professional development and improvement. Furthermore, they viewed comments written by the students more useful compared to numerical data. However, it became apparent that the participants did not prefer to not only share and discuss the results with others (e.g., colleagues, students, administrators) but also look for counseling.

How academic freedom was conceptualized and exercised in the Turkish higher education context by faculty members was studied by Doğan and Selenica (2022). The researchers primarily focused on the sociopolitical environment that emerged after the attempted coup in 2016 and how academics have been affected by the attack on higher education since then. They carried out interviews with 12 academics of different disciplines working in the Turkish universities. The accounts of the participants revealed that the academia has been restructured into conflicts, polarization, and limitations. The participants expressed feelings of fear and anxiety. Self-censorship, stemming particularly from fear of losing one's job, has been found to be a common practice for the participants. Self-censorship is used highly especially in classrooms when teaching and in CVs and job applications. Moreover, it is more common in provincial universities compared to center universities. Especially, CİMER (Presidential Communication Center) has turned out to be a control mechanism for academics. In addition, students fostered the academics' exercising self-censorship to avoid complaints that may cause investigations or disciplinary punishments. Similarly, political, social and cultural factors were found to be limiting academics' areas of research, and thus research topics. The findings also revealed that due to power relations, academics may be asked not to discuss sensitive issues in classes. The participants also believed that CoHE has restrictive policies such defining the number and nature of academic work. Other restrictions on academic freedom includes difficulty of obtaining official permission to do fieldwork. They all, in turn, have deteriorating effects on academics' motivation and job satisfaction.

How academic networks contributes to academics' careers was examined by Heffernan (2020) based on the participants' lived experiences. Informed by Bourdieu's notions of capital, field and doxa, the researcher collected information from a total 109 academics by means of a survey consisting of open-ended questions. The participants were called from Australia, the States, Great Britain, Ireland, and New Zealand. The findings revealed that forming networks helped some participants find access to job opportunies. They believe that networks have a potential to contribute to career opportunity and prosperity. In addition, slightly less than half of the participants viewed the main function of networks as providing opportunities for publication. Similarly, networks were also valued as they provided invitations to academic conferences. Moreover, they believed that they stayed updated with current knowledge or research topics in their disciplines and that networks paved the way for collaborations with industry and non-university organizations as well.

This chapter presented the theoretical framework, literature review and research studies related to the topic. The following chapter introduces the research methodology, cite, participants, data collection tools and analysis procedure.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

This chapter gives a detailed overview of methodology used in the research study. The research design, participants, the research setting, types of data collection instruments, trustworthiness of the study together with researcher positionality and ethical issues, and data analysis procedure are explained in order.

4.1. Research Design

4.1.1. Qualitative Research

This research study is designed within the field of qualitative research paradigm. In the broadest sense of the term, qualitative research paradigm aims to examine how individuals experience and/or interpret a social issue. Ontological and epistemological foundation of qualitative inquiry lends itself well to interpret the important aspects and nature of this research type. This foundation clearly demonstrates that qualitative inquiry has its origins in interpretive orientation, and thus suggests that reality is not unique and directly visible but socially constructed as interpretations and multiple realities (Merriam, 2009). Therefore, it can be assumed that to work within this paradigm entails reaching conclusions inductively, drawing on personalized meanings and demonstrating the complexity of problems (Creswell, 2014). Ragin and Amoroso (2011) give a description of qualitative inquiry with a focus on the amount and depth of data gathered in the process as follows:

> Qualitative methods … are best understood as data *enhancers*. When data are enhanced; it is possible to see key aspects of cases more clearly… Almost all qualitative research seeks to construct representations based on in-depth, detailed knowledge of cases, often to correct misinterpretations or to offer new representations of the research subject. (pp. 123-124)

In addition to the depth of data, qualitative research also requires working on problems or phenomena within their own natural sites taking into consideration how individuals construct or make sense of things in their own ways (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Moreover, another primary feature of this research paradigm is the key role that the researcher plays as the major tool for not only data gathering but also data analysis (Merriam, 2009). In line with the abovementioned definitions and characteristics, Creswell (2013) puts an exhaustive explanation of qualitative research:

> Qualitative research begins with assumptions and the use of interpretive/theoretical frameworks that inform the study of research problems addressing the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. To study this problem, qualitative researchers use emerging qualitative approach to inquiry, the collection of data in a natural setting sensitive to the people and places under study, and data analysis that is both inductive and deductive and establishes patters or themes. The final written report or presentation include the voices of participants, the reflexivity of the researcher, a complex description and interpretation of the problem, and its contribution to the literature or call for a challenge. (p. 44)

Consequently, the present research study fits in qualitative research paradigm seeing that it aims to reveal how a particular group of English language teacher educators interpret and experience professional and political roles, and thus construct professional identities. That data was collected in the participants' natural setting (i.e., workplace), analysed by establishing themes, turned into a report reflecting the participants' voices as well as researcher reflexivity contribute to the study's fit for this research paradigm.

4.1.2. Case Study

As stated above, the research design of the study was based on qualitative inquiry, and more specifically a case study approach was employed. Qualitative inquiry, an umbrella term, has been classified into separate approaches by different authors (e.g., Creswell, 2013; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Meriam, 2009). Case study is one of the most well-known approaches for doing qualitative research. Despite having characteristics in common, it differs from other approaches in qualitative research paradigm. Meriam (2009, p. 40) states that the typical feature of a case study is "delimiting the object of study, the case". Creswell (2013, p. 73), in the same vein,

points that case study is basically an investigation of a "bound system" or case(s) in the course of time, and also underscores the importance of thorough investigation and variety of sources of information. It should also be noted that what a researcher intends to do by means of case study research is not necessarily reaching theory-based assumptions and generalizations but exploring particularity of case (Hammersley & Gomm, 2000).

Case study can be explained as a thorough and detailed investigation of a problem or phenomenon in natural contexts based on the views of the participants who are related to the problem or phenomenon (Gall et al., 2003). Moreover, a great bulk of information is gathered about a case from various aspects; "an individual (as in life-history work), an event, an institution or even a whole national society" (Hammersley & Gomm, 2000, p. 3). The motives for conducting case studies can be various: to provide thorough descriptions, to give probable explanations, and to do evaluations of the phenomenon (Gall et al., 2003). Put it differently, descriptive case studies deal with 'what' questions; explanatory studies provide answers for 'how' and 'why' questions; and evaluative studies make judgments as to the effectiveness of units of analysis (Duff, 2008). In this sense, the present research study aims to provide a description of a variety of sociopolitical contexts (e.g., institutional, national, global academic contexts) that have an impact on the roles and identities of English language teacher educators. However, it actually aims to go beyond description and produce explanations for and give a theoretical account of the phenomenon under investigation. Therefore, the present study can be considered explanatory in nature. Moreover, research should not be done with the mere purpose of yielding knowledge but leading to changes in the participants' lives based on their own needs and desires (Moje, 2000). In a similar vein, Lather's (1991) *catalytic validity* provides a starting point for this objective. Research that has catalytic validity enables the participants to boost their understanding of the reality, and thus directs them to transform it (Lather, 1991). From this point of view, the present research study can also be considered as having a political objective since the participants are expected to reflect on their professional and political roles.

It is also possible to categorize case study designs based on the application methods. Accordingly, case studies comprise of historical organizational case studies,

observational case studies, and life histories (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). While historical organizational case studies deal with the development of specific organizations in the course of time from a historical view; observational case studies use participant observation as the principal data collection tool and focus on a particular feature of the organization (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). Life histories are considered as another type of case study in which extensive interviews reveal the story of first-person narrator (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). Stake (2005), on the other hand, identifies three differentiated types of case studies: intrinsic, instrumental and collective case studies:

> intrinsic case study... is not undertaken primarily because the case represents other cases or because it illustrates a particular trait or problem, but instead because, in all its particularity and ordinariness, this case itself is of interest... I use the term instrumental case study if a particular case is examined mainly to provide insight into an issue or to redraw a generalization. The case is of secondary interest... When there is even less interest in one particular case, a number of cases may be studied jointly in order to investigate a phenomenon, population, or general condition. I call this multiple case study or collective case study. (p. 445)

In the present research study, the phenomenon of interest was specified as developing an in-depth analysis of current neoliberal academic context and how English language teacher educators perform their professional and political roles as intellectuals as well as identities in this broad context. The unit of analysis, on the other hand, was twofold: One was studying institutional and national academic contexts to analyze what type of professional roles they tailor to English language teacher educators, and the other was studying a group of individual teacher educators to reveal their own negotiations of roles and identities. Though only limited to qualitative analysis, the present study is designed as an embedded case study (Yin, 2009) due to the fact that it containes more than one unit of analysis. While the main unit/larger case can be considered the institutional policies, smaller unit/smaller case can be viewed as teacher educators who negotiate their roles and identities in this particular context. It can also be viewed as bounded or limited by time and place considering that the data was collected from a certain number of teacher educators working at the department of foreign language education of a single university, and also that the duration of data gathering was finite.

Lastly, as Stake (2005) argues it may be difficult to classify a study as intrinsic or instrumental at times. Based on his argument, there is not a clear-cut differentiation between the two in the present case study since they both contribute into "a zone of combined purpose" (Stake, 2005, p. 445). Multiple research interests of the researchers may contribute to the combination of the two as well. While the fact that the larger case was chosen not only because of its peculiarity and that itself is of interest to the researcher makes it an intrinsic case study, that it provides insights into deeper analysis of identity and role negotiations makes the study an instrumental one.

4.2. Research Setting

The present qualitative case study focused on English language teacher educators at their workplace since working as a qualitative researcher requires "watching people in their own territory and interacting with them in their own language, on their own terms" (Kirk & Miller, 1986, p. 9). Although this case study did not lend itself to a fieldwork similar to the ones done in ethnographic studies, I, as the researcher, aimed to gain information about the phenomenon taking the participants' point of views into account in the field. This particular research site, a university, not only provided a setting for the study but also created a framework for the participants' statements and narrations in the interviews. The name of the university was fictionalized to ensure and maintain confidentiality of the research site. Therefore, it is called XU throughout the study.

The reason behind the focus on this particular setting arouse from the fact that both the university and the department have distinguishing features compared to other universities and ELT departments in Turkey. It was established around the mid-1950s, is one of the most competitive universities in Turkey in terms of academic staff quality, student success and program numbers. It is also one of the few state universities in which the medium of instruction is completely in English. The FLE department, as one of the oldest FLE departments in the country, was founded in the early 1980s under the Faculty of Education. As of 2022 Fall, 7 professors, 9 associate professors, 2 assistant professors, 3 full-time lecturers and 10 research assistants are employed at the department. Apart from English language teaching, a part of the

academic staff has academic interests and degrees in English language and literature as well as in linguistics. In addition, the department offers two types of undergraduate programs: Foreign Language Education (FLE) program and Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) program. Both programs accept students who obtain required scores in the central university entrance exam. While the first program is completely based in XU and requires no tuition fees; the latter is an international dual diploma program, and thus based in both XU and another university located in the USA. Accordingly, students in TEFL program are required to cover the living costs, tuition and fees of the program by paying in dollar. Moreover, this department also offers M.A. and PhD programs in ELT as well as in English Language and Literature. Therefore, the academic staff working in the department offer a variety of programs and courses addressing both graduate and undergraduate students.

Although the criteria of appointment and promotion of faculty members have been established by law in general at all universities in Turkey, candidates who apply for a faculty member position at foreign language education department of this particular university are expected to fulfill certain requirements determined by the Senate. The candidate is expected to obtain the minimum cumulative points based on their academic work such publications, project work, thesis supervision, conference presentations, and also have an English language proficiency score from a foreign language exam accepted by the Senate and approved by CoHE. Additionally, committee evaluation about the candidate's academic work is another crucial criterion to get appointed. One other important criterion is related to the quality of PhD degree. Having received a PhD degree from an internationally recognized university abroad or carrying out "academic activities" in an international university or research institution abroad for at least two academic terms if the PhD degree has been obtained from a Turkish university is the requirement of the university. Last but not least, the candidate is also required to give a seminar in English so as the commission could evaluate their performance of language use, teaching and research skills. As a result, the entire body of the university together with the department provides a competitive academic environment in which the faculty members are required to teach undergraduate and graduate courses, attend conferences and publish at both national and international platforms.

4.3. Participants

Qualitative research paradigm entails the researchers to work with a small and limited number of participants in a detailed manner. Especially in case studies the number of participants varies from two to six cases (Duff, 2006). This is valid for the present research study, as well. The number of participants is five, and there is a single research setting. Moreover, participant selection in case studies mostly depends on *convenience sampling*, which can also be considered as *purposive* since the participants are supposed to be typical of or exceptional for a phenomenon (Duff, 2008; Miles et al., 2014). Moreover, one other reason that the sampling type can be considered as both convenience and purposive is that the participants, who were representative of the population they belonged to, participated in the study which was conducted in a particular research setting that lent itself to the ease of access and communication. It can also be said that the sampling is homogeneous in some aspects such as gender and institutional context. On the other hand, there is unavoidably some diversity among the participants based on their biographies, personal views, and some other previous professional experiences. One advantage that convenience sampling provided was working with participants who were familiar with the researcher, which resulted in longer engagement in the research site and ease of getting consent and having interaction.

In order to keep the participants' identities confidential, pseudonyms are used in the study. The participants are called TE1 (Teacher Educator 1), TE2 (Teacher Educator 2), TE3 (Teacher Educator 3), TE4 (Teacher Educator 4) and TE5 (Teacher Educator 5) throughout the study. A brief educational and professional background information about the participants is as follows:

TE1 is a female teacher educator in her 40s. She currently works as a lecturer with a doctoral degree. After she graduated from English Language Teaching Program of this particular university, where the research study is conducted, she first worked at a private school with young learners for almost two years. After that, she started to work as a research assistant at the same department and university during her M.A and PhD studies. Through the end of her doctoral study, she transferred to school of foreign languages at the same university. Having worked for two years there, she finally started to work as a lecturer at the Department of Foreign Languages of the same

university. As a result, she has been a member of this particular Department of Foreign Language Education for quite a long time first as an undergraduate student, then as a graduate student and a research assistant, and lastly as an instructor. She has been currently teaching at the department for almost 12 years.

TE2 is also a female teacher educator in her 40s. She currently works as an associate professor. Having graduated from English Language Teaching Program of the same university as TE1, she started to work as an English language lecturer at a preparatory school of a private university for a period of two years and then transferred to another private university in another city for a year. Later, she taught English at the school of foreign languages for three years. At the same time, she completed the master's program, and then earned a doctoral degree in the ELT program at the same university. Afterwards, she had an opportunity to work as a research fellow and post-doctoral researcher in various higher education institutions both in Europe and the States before she returned to Turkey. She has been working at this particular university for approximately five years.

TE3 is a female teacher educator in her 50s. She currently works as an assistant professor. She holds a BA degree in English Language and Literature and an MA degree from a different academic discipline from the same university she had earned her undergraduate degree. Upon graduation she had been appointed to a city located in the Northern part of Turkey to teach English, and she had worked as both a high school and secondary school English language teacher for almost six and a half years in total before she started her doctoral studies. When she was awarded with a Turkish government-funded PhD level scholarship, she went abroad for a period of seven years. When she returned, she started to work at the university where this research study was conducted as a requirement of obligatory service. She has been working at this university for 15 years.

TE4 is a female teacher educator in her 50s. She currently works as a lecturer with a doctoral degree. After she graduated from English Language Teaching Program from the university where this research study was conducted, she began to work with adult learners as a lecturer at a language school of a state university for four years. Afterwards, she started to work at the preparatory school of the university where this

research study was conducted. Meanwhile, she started her doctoral studies at the ELT program, and then transferred from the preparatory school to the Department of Foreign Languages as a lecturer. She has been teaching at the department for almost 13 years.

TE5 is a female teacher educator in her 40s. She currently works as a lecturer with a doctoral degree. She holds a BA degree from the Department of Translation and Interpreting. While she was working as a lectuerr at a preparatory school of a state university, she completed her MA studies in Teaching English as a Foreign Language. Later on, she began not only to do her doctoral studies but also to work as an instructor at the university this study was conducted. She recently completed her post-doctoral studies abroad and has been teaching at the department for 11 years.

As brief background information about the participants shows, they are all female academics. On the other hand, it is important to underline that single gender representation of the sample was not intentional, but rather inevitable in a sense, due to the highly unbalanced and inadequate representation of males in this particular department. Therefore, I need to acknowledge that the participants of this study might have manifested themselves at times through a gender perspective. In other words, related literature repeatedly demonstrated that women academics all around the world, including Turkey, may feel strains of familial responsibilities and especially childcare more than male academics (Eggins, 1997; Heward, 1996). This is why they might be experiencing more serious challenges of balancing work-private life (Takahashi et al., 2014) and of trying to compensate for maternity leave, career breaks or late beginnings throughout their academic careers (Ledwith & Manfredi, 2000). Considering this gender differential in career advancement in academia, it is important to reckon with tha fact that the findings of the present study might not be the same if the sample was male-dominated or included only male academics.

4.4. Data Collection Procedure

Although there is not a particular data collection method in qualitative case study research that can be considered as typical (Bassey, 1999), researchers mostly use the following methods: documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observations,

participant-observation, and physical artifacts (Yin 2009). In line with mostly used data collection tools, this research study also used document analysis, semi-structured interviews and classroom observations to gather data.

4.4.1. Document Analysis

Documents, in general terms, can be defined "as 'things' that circulate alongside other things within institutions, which in turn shapes the boundaries or edges of organizations" (Ahmed, 2007, p. 591). As suggested by Hull (2012, p. 251), the present study views documents "not simply as instruments of bureaucratic organizations, but rather are constitutive of bureaucratic rules, ideologies, knowledge, practices, subjectivities, objects, outcomes, even the organizations themselves". It is also indicated that all kinds of documents benefit researchers to reveal meaning and establish a deep understanding of the research problems (Merriam, 2009). Moreover, use of document analysis in case studies is of high importance regarding the role it plays to support and enhance data collected via other instruments and from different sources (Yin, 2009).

Considering those perspectives in addition to Prior's (2003, p. 60) statement that "a university (any university) is in its documents rather than in its buildings", the present research study delved into a compilation of electronic documents such as IB's document on promotion to associate professorship; the documents generated by the university including official webpages of the university; 2018-2022 strategic plan; 2017, 2018, 2019 and 2020 annual reports; appointment and promotion criteria; course outlines as well as online public researcher profiles of the participants. Based on Bowen's (2009) suggestions with regard to document analysis in qualitative research, I tried to be selective about the most relevant documents addressing research questions, took into consideration the producers/writers of the documents and made the original purposes of the documents clear to myself as a researcher.

IB's criteria list for promotion to associate professorship and the university's own appointment and promotion criteria list act as guidelines for academics to learn and fulfill the requirements of appointment and promotions. While the strategic plan provides "narratives projected to the future" (Aavik, 2019, p.149), the annual reports

give a detailed report of academic and administrative works carried out in previous years. Obviously, while IB's criteria list addresses all academics in the country who aim to apply to associate professorship, the documents published by the university also cover all the bases including and addressing all the departments and programs offered at the university. In other words, apart from some partial information referring to the department of Foreign Language Education, these documents do not solely refer to and are not specific to English language teacher educators. Yet, it is important to have a detailed analysis of these documents in the sense that they present the broader context of macro and micro academia in which not only all academics but also English language teacher educators strive hard to fulfill their professional roles and construct professional identities. Consequently, the analysis aimed to reveal how English language teacher educators' roles are projected in these documents and also to trace the impact of neoliberal policies on their roles.

4.4.2. Interviews

As case studies usually focus on "human affairs" and "behavioral events", interviewing is a fundamental source of information in this type of studies (Yin, 2009, p. 108). Likewise, Seidman (2006, pp. 10-11) also puts the importance of interviews as follows: "if the researcher's goal, however, is to understand the meaning people involved in education make of their experience, then interviewing provides a necessary, if not always completely sufficient, avenue of inquiry". Moreover, interviews are of great benefit to the participants since they provide means for reflexive engagement with conceptualizing the relationship between practice and identity (Clegg, 2008).

Therefore, in the present case study, one of the main data sources was the interviews conducted with the participants. I conducted a thorough literature review to analyze similar research studies focusing on teacher educators' roles and identity, reconsidered the aim of the present study, and thus came up with interview questions that addressed the research questions of this research study. The advisor to the present study and a PhD candidate helped rewrite and add some questions to the interview. Additionally, piloting was necessary in order to identify the questions that needed revising or rewording (Merriam, 2009). Accordingly, one English language teacher educator

working at a different university was asked to be interviewed for the piloting of the questions, and some changes were made upon the suggestions by the participant.

The interview included a range of Kvale's (1996) question types such as introducing questions (e.g., How long have you been working at this department?), follow-up questions (e.g., Can you please exemplify the course materials you use?), probing questions (e.g., Is it possible to give examples of comments from end-term course evaluations?), specifying questions (e.g., What exactly do you think about the requirement of a PhD degree abroad to be employed by the department?), direct/indirect questions (e.g., Do you feel under pressure as an academic?/ Do you think that academics as intellectuals have social responsibilities?), structuring (e.g., What about going on with a new question?) and interpreting questions (e.g., Do you see any connections between politics and ELT?). In terms of content, the questions could be grouped under professional roles, political role and identity.

Although the questions were written around several particular themes, the interviews were designed as *semi-structured* allowing some space for flexibility. To be more precise, the majority of the interview was directed by pre-determined questions although both the order and wording of the questions were flexible in each interview (Merriam, 2009). This type of an interview helped me follow the participants' own pace of thoughts, and thus become respondent to their elaborations on and shifts from the issues. Additionally, they were also *in-depth* interviews in the sense that they aimed to reveal not only the facts about the phenomenon but also the participants' individual views (Yin, 2009). Depending on the participants' demands, some interviews were conducted at just one sitting, and some others required meeting with the participants twice. On the other hand, the participants who completed the interview at one sitting were also always available when I needed clarifications or elaborations later on any of their answers.

Each interview was conducted with a single participant in private. Both the participants and the researcher shared the same mother tongue, and therefore all interviews were conducted in Turkish. It is usually the participants who are expected to choose the venue for in-depth interviews (Legard et al., 2003). Based on this, while three of the participants preferred to be interviewed face to face at their offices, the

other two demanded online interviews in which they participated from their homes. Both verbal and written consents were obtained from the participants at the beginning of the interviews and they were also informed that they were free and could withdraw from the study at any time. . Table 6 provides detailed information about participant profiles and interviews.

Table 6
Participant Profile and Interview Durations

Participant	Gender	Title	Duration	Document
TE1	Female	Dr.	2 hours 25 minutes	16,911 words 34 pages
TE2	Female	Assoc. Prof. Dr.	1 hour 45 minutes	10,350 words 25 pages
TE3	Female	Assist. Prof. Dr.	2 hours 20 minutes	10,943 words 30 pages
TE4	Female	Dr.	1 hour 55 minutes	9,032 words 26 pages
TE5	Female	Dr.	2 hours 35 minutes	16,301 words 39 pages

There are several techniques of recording interviews for analysis: videotaping, audiotaping, note-taking and remembering (Kvale, 1996). While audiotaping is by far the most commonly used technique among others to record the interview data, note-taking is another common technique (Merriam, 2009). In this study, all of the participants except one agreed to use a voice-recorder during interviews. Voice-recording helped sustain a natural conversation environment. In this way, it is also aimed to keep both the respondent's and researcher's own focus on the flow of the conversation. As the participant whose answers to the interview questions were written down was an experienced researcher and aware of possible difficulty of writing down such a bulk of data, she made sure of pacing herself and took pauses when necessary to enable writing process to be as smooth as possible. Despite providing a rich data source, it should be kept in mind that interviews can be vulnerable to the respondents' biases, weak or inaccurate recall or wording of the issues, and thus the overall data requires the support of additional data sources (Yin, 2009). For this

reason, the interview data in this study was supported by classroom observations and document analysis.

4.4.3. Course Observations

Observation can be described as the basis of any type of research methodology in social sciences (Adler & Adler, 1994). Cases studies can readily lend themselves to the researcher's observation since they are supposed to be conducted in the natural site of the phenomenon under investigation. The same is valid for this study as well. As this study was conducted with the participation of English language teacher educators who are actively teaching, their teaching practices in the classroom were observed to find out how they perform their teacher roles as well as political roles. As Merriam (2009) suggests data collected with the help of interviews present indirect understanding of the phenomenon whereas observations provide a direct account. Including an observation component to the data collection process was necessary for the present research study for several reasons: to support the participants' statements in the interviews, identify any discrepancies between what the participants said in the interviews and actually did in the classroom, to uncover important details that were not revealed during the interviews.

Gold (1958) argues four field observer roles ranging on a continuum based on the degree of the researcher's interaction with the participants in the research setting. From his point of view, my roles in the classrooms alternated between being a participant-as-observer and observer-as-participant. In other words, in the classroom where I was present as the course assistant, I took on participant-as-observer role. On the other hand, I also had a chance of observing some other classes where I was not a course assistant but could stay and observe only with the permission of the course instructor. For the first situation, the course instructor was the only one who knew that there was an observer in the classroom. Since the students were already out of research topic and were not included as participants into the study, they were not informed about my alternate role, which was being observer. In the latter situation, the course instructor explained my presence in the classroom to the students as a researcher rather than a course assistant. Therefore, although the unit of analysis was only the course instructor, the students were also informed about the presence of a researcher in the

classroom. As a result, compared to participant-as-observer role, I was completely passive in the classroom in observer-as-participant role. Nevertheless, observer-as-participant role helped me direct my attention completely to the participant, and in this way, collect field notes in a more detailed way.

The Adlers (1987) also classifies the observer roles from a different perspective. Believing that observation in its real sense cannot be achieved thoroughly and raises ethical concerns, they defined roles such as peripheral, active, or complete membership roles. Instead of focusing on interaction levels between the researcher and the participants, they used the degree of involvement into the participants' group as base to differentiate between the roles. In line with Gold's (1958) classification, my involvement in the research setting was comprised of both peripheral and active membership roles. In the classrooms where my course assistant identity was also active, my membership role was active, as well. In other classrooms where I entered with the single role of observer, I stayed at the periphery.

By and large, there is a variety of undergraduate courses offered in the ELT program in which the study was conducted. The courses, on the other hand, can be grouped under language courses, linguistic courses, educational science courses, methodology courses, literature courses, practicum courses and elective courses. Table 7 gives an overview of courses offered in the undergraduate program as of 2022 Fall. However, the curriculum of the ELT program underwent some changes every year between 2018 and 2022 as a result of some decisions implemented by CoHE itself and also after delegation of authority to faculties of education.

Table 7
List of Courses Grouped Under Related Areas

Language Courses	**Linguistics Courses**
Contextual Grammar	Linguistics I-II
Oral Expression and Public Speaking	Language Acquisition
Listening and Pronunciation	Aspects of Bilingualism and Multilingualism
Language and Expression I-II	Current Issues in Linguistics
English for Academic Purposes I-II	
Advanced Writing and Research Skills	
Translation	

Table 7 (continued)

Educational Courses	**Methodology Courses**
Introduction to Education	Approaches to ELT
Educational Psychology	ELT Curriculum Design
Classroom Management	Instructional Principles and Methods
Turkish Educational System and School Management	ELT Methodology I-II
	Teaching English to Young Learners
Guidance	Materials Adaptation and Development
Community Service	English Language Testing and Evaluation
	Instructional Technology and Materials Development
Literature Courses	**Practicum Courses**
Introduction to Literature	ELT Practicum I
English Literature I-II	ELT Practicum II
Drama Analysis	
Novel Analysis	

To begin with, although all the courses were important components of the undergraduate curriculum, it was not manageable to observe all of them. The choice of courses was based on two criteria. Firstly, I tried to observe the courses whose instructors both agreed to be observed during teaching and to participate in the interview as well. Secondly, rather than linguistics and literature courses, I aimed to observe more language and teaching related courses through which not only the use of language but also current issues and practices in course design and implementation could be discussed. Namely, the priority was both the nature of courses and obtaining the participants' consent to fully take part in the research process.

Five courses in total were observed during 4 weeks each between 2017 fall and 2020 fall semesters. While four of the courses were given face-to-face, one course was taught online through a video communication platform. The way the courses were delivered did not make any changes in the way I collected data since the teaching platforms do not change the political roles of the instructors and their political roles are related to the content of teaching or material rather than physical or virtual environment. Table 8 shows the title and duration of courses observed.

Table 8
Date and Duration of Course Observations

Course Title	Participant	Duration	Document
English Language Testing & Evaluation	TE1	4 weeks / 12 hours	19 pages
Practice Teaching (ELT Practicum II)	TE2	4 weeks / 8 hours	13 pages
Oral Expression and Public Speaking	TE3	4 weeks / 12 hours	12 pages
Language and Culture	TE4	4 weeks / 12 hours	17 pages
Approaches to ELT	TE5	4 weeks / 12 hours	17 pages

Throughout my involvement into the courses, I started with descriptive observation as suggested by Spradley (1980) with the aim of exploring how actions take place. In other words, I tried to note down all the details regarding the participants during teachings which ended up with a considerable amount of field notes. I tried to keep a comprehensive record of not only "objective observations" but also "subjective feelings" (Spradley, 1980, p. 58). Later on, I made a clean copy of my field notes on computer which provided me with an opportunity to do reviews. To conclude, the overall data was collected via document analysis, in-depth interviews and course observations. Table 9 displays the types of data collection tools used to answer each research question posed in the study.

Table 9
Research Questions and Related Data Collection Tools

Research Questions	Data Collection Tools
R.Q.: 1. How are professional roles of English language teacher educators projected in the official documents produced by both Interuniversity Board and the University?	Document Analysis

Table 9 (continued)

R.Q.: 2. How do English language teacher educators construct their professional identities? 2.1. How do English language teachers develop into English language teacher educators? 2.2. How do English language teacher educators fulfill their professional roles? 2.3. How do English language teacher educators experience the impact of demands of professional roles on their professional identities? 2.4. How do English language teacher educators conceptualize the impact of institutional and national contexts on their professional identities?	Semi-Structured Interviews Course Observations
R.Q.: 3. In what ways do English language teacher educators' political roles as intellectuals influence their teaching and research practices?	Semi-Structured Interviews Course Observations Document Analysis

4.5. Data Analysis Procedure

Data analysis can basically be considered as a procedure to interpret the data. As Patton (2014) explains trying to interpret extensive amount of data "involves reducing the volume of raw information, sifting the trivial from the significant, identifying significant patterns, and constructing a framework" (p. 762). Likewise, Merriam (2009, p. 176) also underscores the fact that analysis is a complicated practice which entails the researcher "moving back and forth between concrete bits of data and abstract concepts". In the same vein, Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest three steps working in synchrony for data analysis: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification. Data reduction is an integral part of data analysis and starts even before data collection and finishes with the preparation of a conclusive report. In other words, data reduction is a process through which the researcher agrees on what data to exclude and/or analyze. Data display is about the organization of data so that the researcher can deal with excessive amounts of notes and transcripts in analysis.

Conclusion drawing/verification is another process related to making sense of data with the help of coding, finding patterns and themes, which also requires the confirmability of the findings in the end (See Figure 1).

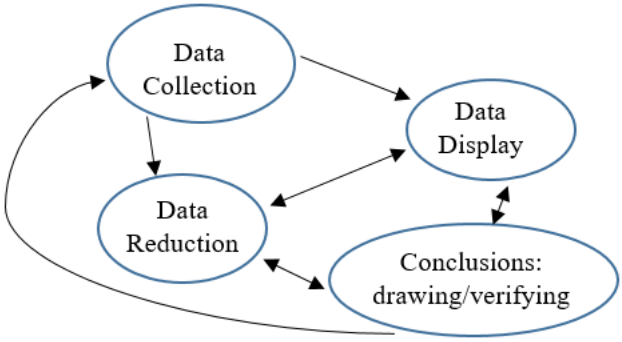


Figure 1. Interactive Model of Data Analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 12)

As Figure 1 also indicates, analysis of data in qualitative case studies consists of an "iterative, cyclical or inductive" process (Duff, 2008, p. 159).

Following the data analysis path suggested above, I started with typing observation notes. I retyped my handwriting on word documents on computer in a more systematic, arranged and ordered way. When the institutional and personal documents as well as field notes were ready, document analysis were carried out. Stake (1995) argues that researchers can either code field notes or prefer to utilize their direct interpretations. Therefore, I preferred to use my direct interpretations of the field notes and official documents for the purpose of analysis. However, it is important to note that this process does not merely mean to take relevant parts from the documents to use in the final report of the study (Bowen, 2009). On the contrary, this type of analysis took in three steps: first skimming, then detailed reading, and interpretation, and these steps constructed the base of content analysis (Bowen, 2009). In this sense, content analysis can be considered as "a first-pass document review" (Bowen, 2009, p. 32) through which I was able to identify relevant data and categorized them into meaningful units in relation to the research questions of the present study.

As for interview data, I had already written down one of the participant's answers to interview questions during the interview, and also transcribed another participant's data. For the transcription of other audio recordings, I received help from two

experienced university students. Instead of paraphrasing or skipping irrelevant parts of the conversations (Bassey, 1999), the transcriptions of the audios were "utterance-by-utterance or turn-by-turn translation" since my focus is the detailed content of the participants' utterances rather than a linguistic or structural analysis (Duff, 2008, p. 155). This type of data identification or display is necessary for the researcher to "to divide text data into analytically meaningful and easily locatable segments" (Reid, 1992, p. 126).

As it is usually suggested that a text transcription requires careful re-reading while listening to the recording once more to be able to correct any mistakes and fill in the missing parts, if any, before starting the analysis process (Merriam, 2009), I went over them several times to have the best understanding of the data. Later, transcribed interview data was entered into MAXQDA 2020, which is a qualitative data analysis software. For the analysis of interview data, this particular software was of great benefit since it both accelerated and facilitated the analysis of a great volume of data by means of functions ranging from writing memos to marking texts (Patton, 2014). Given all, the software was helpful for both data display and conclusion steps. To enable data interpretation, content analysis was used in this study. Patton (2014) argues that content analysis can be used especially for interview data to be able to spot the consistencies and meaning embedded in the text. Based on this, I applied thematic content analysis to analyze the interview data.

Accordingly, the analysis process continued with coding. It is an important process that can be considered as an initial step for a researcher to reach iterative patterns, themes and lastly conclusions. Saldaña (2013) argues that coding basically takes place in two steps: first cycle and second cycle coding. Yet, I first began the coding process by applying holistic coding (Saldaña, 2013). Namely, I wrote down the holistic impression I got from the content upon reading particular units of data. This approach helped me make myself familiar with the data and categorize it very broadly before going on with a very detailed coding scheme. In the next step, I applied first cycle coding, a process refering to the initial detailed coding of interview data and consisting first cycle coding methods and seven categories. On the other hand, researchers are not to stick to a single method, but rather they can mix and match overlapping or

related methods (Saldaña, 2013). Therefore, I employed several methods to code the interview transcripts.

To begin with, I made use of *descriptive coding* to assign labels to certain data chunks. For instance, I labelled a code 'a top-down curriculum' to describe the imposed nature of curricula implemented in teacher education programs. I also applied *in vivo coding* widely across the data. In this particular method, the labels I assigned to certain sentences or chunks were derived from the participants' own language. The reason behind this particular method was twofold. First, participants' own language was the best fit describing the sentence or chunk at times. Second, in vivo coding helped "prioritize and honor the participant's voice" (Miles et al., 2014, p. 80). For instance, I labeled a short description of education system as "dead innovations system", which was one of the participants' precise wordings of the system. Table 10 displays a sample procedure of coding cycles with respect to one of the participants' views about and experiences of shared governance in XU.

Table 10
An Example of Data Coding Steps

Holistic Coding	Excerpt	First Cycle Coding	Second Level Coding
Institutional Context of Higher Education	As for the recent appointment and promotion criteria … our president gathered both assistant professors and then associate professors. I don't know if it was done with professors, but he listened to and heard every idea there. So, the administration heard that reaction. This [meeting with presidency] has been done before, not the first time I mean. If need be, when there's a problem, the president can call you when you make a request. I think it's very comforting that an academic's voice can be heard or the hierarchical environment isn't very sharp. (TE3)	Meetings with the president Attending to faculty opinion Faculty reaction XU tradition Making oneself heard No sharp hierarchy	Shared Governance

Also, *process coding* was a widespread method applied during the analysis. Process coding is distinctive with the use of gerunds for codes related to observable or conceptual actions (Saldaña, 2013). To exemplify, 'informing a wider audience', 'struggling', 'updating students' were some of the codes from the present study that fell into the category of process coding. Moreover, *affective methods,* including emotion and values were used during first cycle coding. For instance, 'feeling amazed', 'feeling excluded' and 'moral corruption' can be viewed as codes developed through affective methods. As a result, I mixed compatible methods including descriptive, in vivo, process, and affective to code the data. As for the second cycle of coding procedure, the focus was more on going beyond the segments of data. Thus, related codes generated in the first cycle were grouped together to develop broader and meaningful patterns of codes (Miles et al., 2014).

4.6. Trustworthiness of the Study

It is a given that reliability and validity are integral components of any quantitative research study. However, these two concepts are viewed problematic in qualitative research studies. Reliability, which means yielding similar results with the repetition of the study, is already epistemologically irrelevant to qualitative case study paradigm. Furthermore, external validity, which means generalizing research findings to other contexts, is also seen pointless for case studies since these studies are usually conducted to investigate the particularity and uniqueness of cases (Bassey, 1999).

Considering all, Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggested the term "trustworthiness" so that the researchers can convince the reader and also themselves about the importance and quality of their studies. The criteria to establish trustworthiness of a study can be listed as i) credibility, ii) transferability, iii) dependability, and iv) confirmability (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Patton, 2014; Yin, 2009). In order to establish the trustworthiness of the present study, the related criteria were taken into consideration during data collection, analysis and interpretation processes. Table 11 displays the strategies used to establish trustworthiness in the study.

Table 11
Strategies Used to Establish Trustworthiness

Criterion	Strategy
Credibility	• Prolonged engagement in the research site • Member-checking (verification of interview transcripts by the participants) • Persistent observation of the participants • Peer-debriefing (discussion for constructing research questions and translation of participant quotations) • Method triangulation (document analysis, interviews and course observations) • Researcher triangulation (generating codes and reaching intercoder agreement)
Transferability	• Thick description of the research site and sampling
Dependability & Confirmability	• Audit trail (detailed description of steps and decisions regarding study as well as external audit review for data analysis and interpretation)

In order to establish *credibility* of the study, I spent four weeks to observe the courses and conducted interviews with the participants extended over time. Moreover, my informal observations and presence in the research setting continued even after data collection process came to an end. Therefore, my long-lasting presence in the research setting sufficiently helped me dig into the professional and institutional culture of the participants. Moreover, member checking is considered as an important strategy to ensure credibility. Therefore, I sent the interview transcripts to the participants so that they can review to request changes, additions and clarifications if necessary. Additionally, triangulation was also established with the help of data collected from three different sources (i.e., interviews, course observations, document analysis) in order to explore the phenomenon from various perspectives. Another important step I took to increase credibility was relying on researcher triangulation technique that meant in this study co-working with a PhD candidate in ELT to reach intercoder agreement. The peer and I coded one of the interview transcripts individually and then

compared the codes we generated. While the codes that were identical or very similar were approved by both parties, we held a discussion on the rest until we reached a consensus. Similarly, I made use of peer-debriefing strategy for translation of quotations, originally in Turkish, into English as well as writing interview questions. Both the dissertation supervisor and a colleague who was a PhD candidate in ELT gave their comments about the questions.

To construct *transferability* criterion, I provided thick descriptions of research process especially including the data collection and analysis parts so that other possible researchers can be informed about the details in case they may want to relate the research process to other contexts. As for *dependability* criterion, it does not simply imply the replicability of the results, but rather if the findings are consistent with the data (Merriam, 2009). In order to ensure the dependability, I made use of audit trail strategy. As an external audit, the PhD candidate I worked with to reach intercoder agreement helped review raw data as well overall codes and themes derived from interview transcripts. Similarly, I shared preliminary results, codes and themes with the dissertation supervisor to have an external eye on my work and to make sure that I completely based my findings on the data. Lastly, in order to eliminate the concern of *confirmability*, in the final report, I similarly relied on audit trail strategy and included all the reasons and motives behind every step I took during data collection and analysis process so that readers can understand the rigor of the study.

4.6.1. Researcher Positionality

Researcher positionality in qualitative case studies is of considerable importance as this research type originates from an interpretative research paradigm and leads to social constructivism of multiple realities. The main aim of the researcher is to gain insights into a social phenomenon considering the participants' points of views. The continuous relationship between the participants' emic perspectives as insiders to the phenomenon under investigation and the researcher's etic perspective as an outsider (Gall et al., 2003) calls the researcher's role and stance in the research study into question. As Denzin (2001) puts it:

> All researchers take sides, or are partisans for one point of view or another. Value-free interpretive research is impossible... All scholars are caught in the

> circle of interpretation. They can never be free of the hermeneutical situation. This means that scholars must state beforehand their prior interpretations of the phenomenon being investigated. Unless these meanings and values are clarified, their effects on subsequent interpretations remain clouded and often misunderstood. (p. 43)

Despite the challenges and preoccupations, neutrality can and is to be sustained about the content of the research study (Patton, 2014). To achieve this, the researcher, therefore, is expected to reflect on their "biases, values, and personal background, such as gender, history, culture, and socioeconomic status (SES) that shape their interpretations formed during a study" (Creswell, 2014, p. 187). Therefore, writing about the research process to reveal my own personal values, meanings, expectations, and even biases I might have carried over to the research process became inevitable, and furthermore highly necessary for me as a researcher. As well as helping me explain to readers my positionality throughout the research process, such a reflection, obviously, paved the the way for exploring myself as a researcher. Considering all, if and how my background, educational and professional history, and assumptions manifested themselves in the research process are presented in this section.

To begin with educational and professional background, I am a young academic both working as a research assistant and doing my PhD studies at the department of Foreign Language Education where I conduct this research study. I hold my BA and MA degrees from English Language Teaching and Teaching English as a Foreign Language Programs, respectively. When I first received my undergraduate degree, I started to work as a lecturer at a public university in a small western city in Turkey. For a few years, there, I had a chance to gain professional teaching experience with young adults. On the other hand, I was not satisfied with the delimiting atmosphere of the working environment. I often used to feel that the administrative practices and institutional culture were not supportive to broaden my professional identity. By exercising professional agency, I, therefore, decided to take a different route as a research assistant and foster my professional development with the start of my PhD studies.

Long before I decided to study on this topic, even at the very beginning of my own professional career, I relentlessly felt uneasy about the roles, worload and competitive working conditions of lecturers and tenure track/tenured academics working at

universities. Later on, the readings I did during my graduate studies and my own personal interest helped me make an account of neoliberalism and its pervasive influence in education and academia as a theoretical underpinning providing a better picture of the existing conditions. As Gee (2004, p. 96) claims, individuals, including academics, are expected to become "shape-sifting portfolio people". Namely, they are expected to design themselves, their careers, life-long projects; develop new skills, achieve more; and transform themselves and their work to address the needs of the market. Especially in academia, academics' efforts to become "better" and more "productive" selves seem to serve the purpose of contributing to knowledge economy and institutional prestige rather than social benefit and intellectual rigor. When I started to work as a research assistant, I had a better opportunity to observe professional lives and roles of teacher educators. This observation helped me develop a genuine interest into teacher educators' professional roles and identities. Moreover, my interest in exploring teacher educators' professional lives was also partly based on an intrinsic motivation since I was planning to work as an English language teacher educator having received my PhD degree.

Secondly, my observations as a teaching assistant showed me that teacher educators are highly interested in and busy with teaching "methods, competencies, strategies, grammar, tasks, exercises, drills, activities, and so on" (Pennycook, 2000, p. 89); however, I also felt completely agree on Pennycook's argument (2000) that they constitute only a particular part of language learning and teaching. In other words, ELT, in addition to its technical and methodological aspects, should also be viewed in regard to its sociopolitical orientation. To my view, therefore, English language teacher educators can teach and do research considering and reflecting on political dimensions of ELT as well. This view or awareness completely coincides with my dawning realization that the takeaways of a pre-service teacher from an undergraduate ELT program migh not necessarily address an in-service teacher's struggles of developing a robust professional identity. This was the first time when I realized that my undergraduate education was largely based on technical and methodological aspects of ELT. This meant that I did not have much information about the curriculum, course materials, student diversity, students' instrumental relationship to English, the relationship between English proficiency and their future professions, and whether it was a real need for them to study a preparatory year to learn English as students of

associate degree programs. I remember feeling puzzled about higher education policies in general as well as the policies and decisions of the institution where I worked as a lecturer with regard to ELT.

I also remember that there was no reference to or guidance for teaching English at university prep schools during my undergraduate education. All available practicum opportunities, in-class discussions and assignments were for first-order teaching. Therefore, when I started teaching in the prep school, I realized that I had knowledge about neither politics of ELT nor the context of higher education. This was my first-hand experience as a novice English language teacher. My second realization was related to the experience of students who graduated from the department I worked as a research assistant. I personally kept contact with some of them even after their graduation, and realized that some of them were at a loss upon starting teaching in a remote city of Turkey. Despite being highly equipped with ELT pedagogy, they felt out of place and things especially with regard to political, economic dimensions of ELT and how they relate to families, students, communities and even themselves as individual teachers. The readings I did as a PhD student, and some in-class discussions helped me learn about theoretical background of this issue. On the other hand, I realized that neither my random observations of and small-talks with teacher educators nor conversations with graduates of the program were adequate to provide full insights into teacher educators' professional and political roles. This was basically my mindset when I started working on this dissertation, and therefore I decided to carry out a systematic scientific study to explore their roles and identity.

While carrying out this research study, I tried to achieve reflexivity about my positionality and to disclose the relationship between my researcher and other identities through my constant self-talks throughout the process. At times, I also noted down my inquiries and concerns about the research process as well as articles and books I found relevant to the topic. Huddling with my supervisor on my notes and on particular issues with regard to data collection and analysis was also helpful for me as it provided a second opinion of an academic who had a lot professional commonalities with the participants to the study.

Comparing to many other qualitative case studies that required great efforts of the researcher to gain entry into the research site, my current position at the department definitely provided a convenience for me. Namely, I did not need a gatekeeper to do interviews with the participants since I was already familiar with them as being either their assistant or student in the previous semesters. Consequently, our mutual acquaintance helped me make initial contact with the participants themselves rather than by means of a gatekeeper. I also preferred to make a personal visit to their offices to request for observations in their classes and their participation into interviews. Being an insider worked a lot especially for my classroom observations since the participants were already familiar with the presence of a course assistant in the classroom during their teaching. They did not feel any restlessness because of my presence as participant observer in the classroom. Despite the benefits, Morse (1994) puts that being an insider and familiarity both with the research site and participants reduce the researcher's precision to understand the environment and construct meaning. In this regard, I felt that being an insider and the different roles I adopted at the department also caused some minor disadvantages especially when the participants seemed hesitant at times about sharing some intimate details about their personal or workplace related issues. Furthermore, some teacher educators frankly turned down participating into the study at the very beginning. This shows that they clearly could differentiate between my roles and did not want to work with my researcher role. Namely, my being a member of the group did not necessarily ensure their participation and they objectively decided to stay out of the research study. Yet, contrary to Morse's (1994) suggestion to the researchers which is to avoid doing research studies in an environment in which they are employed since handling both roles may cause conflict, I did not experience such a serious dispute between my researcher and employee roles.

As stated before, I conducted this study in a context which I also belong to as a member. Researchers based on the degree of involvement as a member of the group of participants take on different roles during data collection process: peripheral, active, or complete membership roles (Adler & Adler, 1987). As stated above, my own involvement in the research site went between peripheral and active membership roles. As an active-member-researcher, I attended some core activities of the participant group as a requirement of my job such as taking partial responsibility of course content, assignments and exams under the supervision of the course instructor. In other

order words, I shared a similar responsibility with the participants to some extent. As a more central role, I was present at the research site not only as a researcher but also as a colleague of the participants.

At times, on the other hand, I took on the role of peripheral membership. Neither my epistemological beliefs nor avoiding particular activities made me take on this role. It was actually because of the professional status factor regulating my relationship with the participant group. For instance, it was not possible for me to attend any of the departmental meetings where faculty discuss issues related to the running of the department. As a result, I had to take on the peripheral-member-researcher role. This situation showed that my roles and responsibilities in the department are different from that of the participants and thus, my functional role as a research assistant and a PhD candidate is quite limited in order to be able to an active-member-researcher in its full sense. However, I got some benefit from peripheral-member-researcher role as well. With the help of feeling partially detached from the participant group in terms of professional status and therefore, not being a complete insider, I had a chance to review my own personal concerns, principles and beliefs compared to that of my participants.

After all, I need to state that this research study was conducted with the sole aim of shedding light on a particular phenomenon, which is English language teacher educators' roles and professional identity and how they are affected by current neoliberal academic context. Revealing how English language teacher educators experience this phenomenon and how they construct meaning on their experiences are the main motives of this study. Therefore, I tried to keep my own experiences and thoughts to myself as much as possible when interviewing with the participants. Even if I was informed about some issues, places and persons they mentioned, I did not include my own comments and perspective to elaborate on theirs. This applied to data interpretation process as well. Also, I was careful about ways of asking the interview questions. Namely, I tried the questions to be short but to the point as much as possible so that the participants could express themselves without any interventions and lengthy questions and explanations. Unless they asked for clarifications or I realized that they lost the point, I did not involve myself in their answers. In addition to reminding myself of this before the interviews and monitoring myself during the

interviews, I also checked my possible influence on the participants' answers by listening to interview recordings.

As for observations, I noted down my own predispositions and biases with regard to the participants' political roles. For instance, before starting the classroom observations, I felt like I was predisposed by my subjective feelings originating from my own experience as a novice teacher, superficial and random observations as a teaching assistant and experiences of in-service teachers graduated from the program. However, by the time I was halfway through the observations, I realized that systematic and careful observations lent themselves to better opportunities to reveal how political roles were enacted. Thus, I was able to grasp particular instances that might have gone unrecognized without a systematic observation. That was the point when I realized that I did not start the observations as neutral as possible as an outsider. This helped me shift my preconceptions and I was able to see this shift through my reflexivity about my predispositions before and after the observations. After all, I in no sense aimed to judge the participants' statements or behaviors, but rather tried to interpret them based on available literature and theoretical framework.

4.7. Ethical Issues

The dynamic research design and unstructured data gathered in natural sites make the nature of the qualitative inquiry vulnerable to diverse ethical considerations. Those ethical considerations can be grouped as "minimization of harm, respect for autonomy, and the protection of privacy" (Hammersley & Traianou, 2012, p. 56). The first action taken for this research study regarding ethical considerations is to apply for a permission to Human Subjects Ethics Committee in order to conduct research. Only after getting official ethics committee approval, did I start with data collection. This approval was an official sign showing that the study would not bring any harm to participants. Therefore, that the researcher may cause either physical or psychological harm to participants during data collection process or after the dissemination of findings is by no means valid for the present research study. Apart from minimizing anticipated risks, any questions that may lead to unexpected problems or harms and that the participants did not want to answer were avoided during the interviews by the researcher. Additionally, some of the participants asked to speak 'off-the-record' at

some points during the interviews since the information they provided either might have either revealed their identity or was too much personal. Therefore, I excluded these parts from the records in order to secure the information. However, I personally benefited from 'off-the-record' information to understand and construct a global meaning of related issues.

Moreover, as a requirement of the principle of respect for autonomy, the participants were informed about the research study beforehand in order to get their consent. To do this, a consent form was prepared in which they could find aim of the study together with the identity and contact details of the researcher. This form also informed them on the fact that they could withdraw from the study at any time they want. In order to ensure the protection of privacy and confidentiality, I kept the real the names of participants hidden, and therefore used pseudonyms. I, also refrained from using any identifying details such as participants' roles and characteristics as well as the revealing details of setting or events (de Laine, 2000).

In order to prevent the participants from feeling that "the interviewer is a 'foreign body' within the private zone of the individual interviewed" (Shils, 1980, p. 428), I suggested them do the interviews in a place and at a time slot they would prefer. Thus, three of them preferred to be interviewed in their own offices, and the rest asked for an online meeting they attended from their homes. Given that they would feel comfortable themselves in their private zones and this is their own choice, I also agreed voluntarily on the venue of the interviews. The concern of being a foreigner was not valid for classroom observations, though. Since the participants were already familiar with being observed and assisted by a course assistant during lecturing, they did not feel the presence of a foreigner in the classroom.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

In order to investigate English language teacher educators' professional and political roles as intellectuals together with professional identity construction, this case study draws on various sources of data that can be grouped as i) official documents, ii) interviews, and iii) course observations. This chapter aims to present the results of analysis of data to find answers to the research questions stated below:

R.Q.: 1. How are professional roles of English language teacher educators projected in the official documents produced by both Interuniversity Board and the University?
R.Q.: 2. How do English language teacher educators construct their professional identities?

2.1. How do English language teachers develop into English language teacher educators?

2.2. How do English language teacher educators fulfill their professional roles?

2.3. How do English language teacher educators experience the impact of demands of professional roles on their professional identities?

2.4. How do English language teacher educators conceptualize the impact of institutional and national contexts on their professional identities?

R.Q.: 3. In what ways do English language teacher educators' political roles as intellectuals influence their teaching and research practices?

5.1. English Language Teacher Educators' Professional Roles in the Official Documents

It is aimed to give an answer to the first research question with the document analysis in this case study:

R.Q.: 1. How are professional roles of English language teacher educators projected in the official documents produced by both Interuniversity Board and the University?

The first part of this section is composed of an analysis of Interuniversity Board (IB) document about the criteria to be promoted to the rank of Associate Professor.

5.1.1. Interuniversity Board Document

IB was founded in 1946 as an academic body composed of university rectors, deans and two delegates from each university elected by the senate for a period of two years. Based on the order of chronological establishment of universities, the rectors rotate as the Chairperson of the Board on a yearly basis. The board is expected to hold two separate meetings in a year where the Minister of National Education (MoNE) and the President of Council of Higher Education (CoHE) can be invited as well. Together with the enactment of Law No. 2547 in 1981, IB has become a supra-university academic body coordinating universities academically, taking measures to meet the universities' needs of academic staff and preparing draft laws and regulations related to the administration of universities as well as education, publication and research activities. Among various duties, it is stated in the Law on Higher Education (CoHE, 2000, p. 14) that IB is in charge of evaluating and nostrifying the doctoral degrees and academic titles granted abroad.

First of all, the academic work of candidates who apply to IB to be promoted to the rank of associate professor comes under close scrutiny by a jury of three to five full professors in the related scientific area. In addition to the evaluation process of academic works, the Board used to arrange oral exams as well until April 2018 (Resmi Gazete, 2018c). From then on, however, it has become non-mandatory and the Board has left the oral examination requirement to be appointed as associate professor to the initiative of university senates while the evaluation of publication and research activities are still handled in the same manner as before.

In addition to academic publications and research activities that meet IB's criteria, the candidates have to prove their foreign language proficiency to be promoted to the rank of associate professor. Similarly, it was announced in the official gazette in 2018 that the requirement of minimum 65 points taken from either a centralized foreign

language examination organized by the Student Selection and Placement Center or an equivalent score taken from an international foreign language exam accepted valid by CoHE was decreased to 55 points (Resmi Gazete, 2018c). Considering the latest changes regarding oral exam and foreign language proficiency, it can be concluded that the standards for promotion to the rank of associate professor have been lowered.

It is important to note that IB's promotion criteria present a macro perspective regarding the academics' professional roles in the Turkish context. Namely, IB's criteria are valid for all academics in Turkey who are members of various scientific areas including academics working in teacher education programs. Therefore, although this is a small-scale case study specifically focusing on a group of English language teacher educators working in a certain university, the criteria set by IB are also relevant for the participants of the present study as well.

To begin with, it is necessary to start the analysis of the criteria with some preliminary information (See Appendix A for the criteria set). Firstly, the Board underscores the fact that the candidates are expected to perform scientific activities equal to minimum 100 points to be able to apply for the promotion provided that at least 90 points have been obtained from activities carried out after receiving a doctorate degree. Moreover, an author gets full points in single-authored publications whereas points are divided equally among authors if it is a multi-authored publication. As stated before, English language teacher educators as academics working at higher education institutions inherently take on some professional roles that can be classified as teaching, researching and service in general. This table of promotion criteria is a clear indicator of how professional roles of English language teacher educators are determined and controlled by external factors such as a supra-university academic body coordinating universities, which is IB in this case.

Especially the first and to a lesser degree the second item in the criteria set show that publishing in particular type of journals which are covered by particular indexes is an important requirement to earn the title of associate professor. Although publishing in the national index is a must, it does not bring as many points as publishing in journals covered by certain international indexes. Moreover, while publishing in such journals covered by certain international indexes is encouraged through the high points

received in turn, quite low points are allocated to the citations received. In other words, to publish in a journal covered by certain indexes may be the determining factor to be promoted regardless of the impact factor. In other words, this also reveals that the type of journals and book publishers are counted by the Board as a quality criterion of the publications much more than the citations they receive. Item 5 shows that citations that academic works get bring quite limited points considering the number of possible publications and also the number of citations they might get until they apply for the promotion. Moreover, the points obtained from citations differ depending on the journal or book type that the citation appears, in other words, if academics receive citations from books published by international publishers and from articles in journals covered by SSCI, SCI, SCI-Expanded and AHCI indexes, they get more points compared to that of national books and other journal covered by other indexes. This situation leads to the prioritization of publishing articles in journals covered by certain indexes over publishing book chapters by international or national publishers.

The situation for journal publishing is also similar for the publication of book and book chapters. It is clear that international publications bring higher points compared to ones by national publishers. It is well known that academics need to write in English to be able to publish articles or books internationally. Therefore, the Board's criteria system indirectly favors publications in English over local language, which is Turkish in this case. As the national publications result in lower points, academics may not prefer to put effort for national publications except the must ones.

It can be said that research and publication productivity, and specifically the international one, is on the foreground in the criteria set. On the other hand, teaching practices receive quite less recognition considering the points they bring. Being the last one, item 9 is the only item related to teaching. Although teaching is fundamental to academics', and more specifically English language teacher educators' professional roles, it brings almost the lowest points compared to other academic activities.

Last but not least, service practices, which is another integral part of academics' professional roles, cannot find a way into the Board's criteria list. Graduate thesis supervision (i.e., item 6) can be counted as the only type of service work (i.e., service to students) in the criteria list. However, although an academic may contribute into

numerous graduate students' academic development, the points that can be obtained from this activity are quite limited. While graduate thesis supervision is an activity that can be categorized under academic service work, none of the other items in the list falls under internal or external (community) service categories.

To conclude, the impact of current sociopolitical and economic environment encircling the international academic arena manifests itself in the Turkish academia by the promotion criteria of IB as well. The criteria set leads to increasing performance of English language teacher educators in a highly competitive international academic arena. It becomes apparent that IB's pre-determined criteria set, which leaves almost no room for teacher educators' self-governance of their academic work, prioritizes researcher role over service and teacher roles. Accordingly, it can be concluded that the requirements of IB regarding the academic performance of English language teacher educators are clustered around certain areas: growing importance of internationally funded research projects and international publications.

5.1.2. University Documents

In this section, an analysis of the university's documents consisting of 2018-2022 Strategic Plan; 2017, 2018, 2019 & 2020 Annual Reports; and Appointment and Promotion Criteria are also presented.

5.1.2.1. 2018-2022 Strategic Plan

Compared to IB's promotion criteria set, which provides a macro perspective of academic promotion and professional roles, this section presents a micro perspective giving information specific to XU. Both the university website and the 2018-2022 Strategic Plan state that the university's mission is to achieve excellence in research, teaching and community service by promoting creative and critical thinking, innovation and leadership drawing on universal values. Obviously, this institutional mission can be achieved through work of all academics. The statement also underscores the importance of three main professional roles of academics: research, teaching and service work. All three roles seem to be given equal importance according to the statement. The use of particular words in the statement such as

"innovation", "leadership", and "universal" is noteworthy in the sense that they are commonly used in the neoliberal rhetoric. Moreover, the vision statement of XU shows that the institution aims to become a university with world-leading academic excellence on an international platform as well as transforming both the local and the universal. Today, a 'legitimate' and well-accepted way of proving a university's academic excellence has become pursuing and obtaining higher international academic rankings in global university league tables. Accordingly, the university's recent rankings in a variety of international ranking lists are widely and continuously publicized through the institutional website as well. Thus, when visitors arrive at the homepage, they are welcomed by this particular information that functions as a banner advertisement originally and usually found at e-commerce websites.

According to the Strategic Plan, XU's activity domains are categorized as i) education and teaching, ii) research and development, and iii) community service, which is in line with English language teacher educators' professional roles that can be classified as teaching, research and service. Therefore, although there is not a direct reference to academics in the Strategic Plan, this categorization again gives implications about the expectations from academics, and particularly English language teacher educators. The first category is about teaching activities carried out in the university by academics including both undergraduate and graduate education, foreign language preparatory education, joint international programs, and distance education programs.

The second category includes activities such as publications; attending conferences and workshops; projects supported with university resources; research, development and innovation projects supported by the industry, Ministry of Development, TÜBİTAK and EU as well as other scientific works executed through Technopark and the university collaboration. Lastly, the activities carried out in i) Continuing Education Center, and ii) Society and Science Research and Application Center as well as other community service projects such as *Community Service* course offered by all the departments at the Faculty of Education are viewed as community service work in the university's strategic plan. This course is offered as a must course in undergraduate ELT program to sophomore students. In other words, the university administration acknowledges that English language teacher educators carry out community service by teaching this course.

Moreover, some scientific events such as *Science is Fun, Science through Art* and *Science at Home* have also been organized by the university for the purpose of community service. These events were open to all science geeks from all over the country, and thousands of K-12 school students, parents, teachers as well as individual visitors were hosted. The last event listed was designed by the university as a series of documentary as a joint activity with a television channel owned by the State in order to popularize science in the society.

The information provided in the website of the Society and Science Research and Application Center reveals that those scientific events are organized partially with the participation of volunteer students and also academics from the Faculty of Arts and Sciences, especially the Departments of Biology, Physics, Chemistry, and Mathematics. The Faculty of Education also plays an important role in the organization process; however, it is necessary to note that the Department of Mathematics and Science Education is the only unit of the Faculty that actively has a part in the organization of those events. Therefore, it can be concluded that the number of activities and organizations carried out by the university is highly limited. Similarly, the number of academics who participate actively in such community service events even more limited.

Apart from the activity domains listed above, 2018-2022 Strategic Plan also provides the readers with the SWOT analysis conducted by the university itself. This analysis reveals strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats related to the same activity domains of the university. The analysis underscores a weakness of the university which is the fact that the university could not achieve a desired level success in the field of community service. Similarly, the fact that not only dissemination of research project results but also social perspective of the projects is neglected to a certain extent is considered as another weakness of the university regarding community service. As a result, it can be concluded that although promoting service work is an important goal for XU, it is not fully supported by the university's existing policies. Academic are not fully encouraged to carry out community service work since the university does not offer enough opportunities, nor develop policies.

The objectives and goals section of the same Strategic Plan provides information regarding the university's future directions conforming to the categorization of domains such as i) education and teaching, ii) research and development, and iii) community service. In the education and teaching part, it is stated that one of the objectives is to provide an education promoting qualities such as creativity, entrepreneurship and leadership. The types of qualities mentioned in the objective fit into the neoliberal discourse, and implying that the university is run as if it was a business. As the academics would be responsible from this teaching process, it can be concluded that they are expected to cater for an understanding of teaching under the impact of neoliberal ideology.

In the research and development category, it is stated that the first aim of the university is to grow into a distinguished research university. Aiming to have comparable standards with other eminent universities in the world is a direct result of performance and competition oriented neoliberal ideology embedded in the field of higher education. Furthermore, enhancing both the volume of research conducted in the university and publications in high-quality journals and number of citations to these publications are listed as other aims of XU. The statements mentioned above lay stress on the increase of the ranking of the university, research-integrated education, research performances and citations. The aims specified in the Strategic Plan demonstrates how university management as an external factor can control the quality, nature and amount of research practice that academics engage with. Additionally, as the university aims to increase requirements and expectations from academics to contribute into the body of scientific knowledge, the time devoted to teaching and service works can be expected to decrease in turn.

As for the community service category, some objectives have been determined to improve the weaknesses related to community service practices of the university as specified in the SWOT Analysis. As a result, it is decided that the body of scientific knowledge produced in the university needs to be circulated in the society through open access mechanisms. Besides, spreading out public events and increasing both the number and content of courses which can boost the university's interaction with the community especially in the area of education are among the strategies developed to give more credit to community service. On the other hand, how academics can

contribute into this process and what strategies are going to be followed to encourage them for service work have not been identified exactly.

5.1.2.2. Annual Reports

The university publishes annual reports prepared by the Institutional Development and Planning Office on a yearly basis to inform its stakeholders about the latest academic and administrative developments. In this section, an analysis of 2017, 2018, 2019 and 2020 annual reports are presented. Table 12 provides data related to the number of staff and type of publications as well as the projects between 2017 and 2020.

Table 12
Details about Staff, Publications and Research Projects between 2017 and 2020

The total number of staff	**2017**	**2018**	**2019**	**2020**
Professors, Associate Professors, Assistant Professors and Lecturers	993	1088	1053	1058
Publication	**2017**	**2018**	**2019**	**2020**
The number of annual articles in journals covered by SSCI, SCI-Expanded and AHCI per faculty member	1.35	1.39	1.58	1.67
The number of citations received by publications published in journals covered by international indexes (SSCI, SCI-Expanded, AHCI)	36.178	37.215	41.020	45.483
The number of articles published in journals covered by international indexes (SSCI, SCI-Expanded, AHCI)	1.160	1.382	1.525	1.333
Projects	**2017**	**2018**	**2019**	**2020**
Total number of national projects	1.500	1.830	1.873	1.210
Total number of international projects	62	54	63	64

It is noteworthy that the number of articles/reviews per faculty member, citations received and articles published in journals covered by SSCI, SCI-Expanded and AHCI indexes are regularly on an increasing trend despite minor rise and falls. Similarly,

there is a growth in the number of international projects conducted by the academics at the university. On the other hand, the total number of international projects displays slight rise and falls throughout four years. It should be noted that these statistics are the sum of all faculty members from all departments including English language teacher educators from the Department of Foreign Language Education. This information shows that the academics in general make an effort to scale up research work either in the form of journal publication or project outputs. As all the annual reports reveal and clearly state, the university administration provides the academics with encouragement to increase the visibility and prestige of the university at both national and international platforms. To achieve this goal, it is said that Office of Sponsored Projects was established in 2009 to help and guide the academics who aim to apply to both national and international projects. Therefore, incentives provided by the administration such as funding and mentoring can be considered as one of the leading factors for the productive performance of the academics.

Another important aspect of academic productivity is relating to university-industry collaboration. As the annual reports provide information about the activities of Teknokent located on the university campus, it is also necessary to underscore the role of this establishment in the academic work conducted in the university. The establishment story of Teknokent dates back to the late 1980s as a World-Bank-initiated technopark. Functioning as a both research and business unit, Teknokent aims to manufacture technology with the help of cooperation between the university and industry, which in turn is expected to lead to higher rankings among world-class research universities and developed countries as well.

Together with a yearly steady increase in the number of both companies and employees in the Teknokent, as the annual report data shows, the number of projects conducted in Teknokent with the cooperation of the university is on the rise as well. The annual reports demonstrate that while 1.504 projects were prepared in 2017, 1.621 and 1.733 projects were conducted in the years 2018 and 2019, respectively. The companies mostly operate in areas such as software, mechanics, electronics, and information technologies rather than educational areas, and the affiliation between the university and the Teknokent works to promote university and industry collaboration. Additionally, this increase is an indicator of how the university supports its academic

staff and units to get in close relationship with a market-based establishment in order to create added value to scientific knowledge. From this perspective, it can be concluded that the roles and responsibilities of XU have evolved into new forms based on an understanding through which it positions itself, and thus its staff, as a source of industrial entrepreneurship and entrepreneurs respectively in the era of neoliberal globalization.

As for discipline-specific academic production in the university, the academics' publication data set based on faculties they are affiliated with between the years 2017-2020 was analyzed. In XU, there are five faculties including Faculty of Education. It can be said that articles published in journals covered by SCI-Expanded, SSCI and AHCI indexes also show an increasing trend for almost each Faculty year by year except some decrease in almost all faculties in 2020. This decrease might result from Covid-19 pandemic. In terms of publication performance, Faculty of Education maintains its middle-ranking position between 2017 and 2020 among other faculties. However, it is necessary to note the dramatic change in 2019 in the number of publications by Faculty of Education as it increased up to 77% compared to previous year.

Moreover, 2019 and 2020 annual reports present information specific to the departments in the Faculty of Education. There are six departments in the Faculty of Education. While Department of Foreign Language Education ranks the second after Department of Mathematics and Science Education, it becomes the third most productive department in 2020. While 25 of total publications can be categorized under original journal paper, only one of them is a review article in the Department of Foreign Language Education in 2019. With a similar performance in the following year, 2020, it has a total of 25 publications. The total number of publications consists of one review article, one book review, three book chapters and 20 articles. In line with overall Faculty productivity, the decrease in publication performance of teacher educators in almost all departments might be due to Covid-19 pandemic.

As for community service work conducted in the university between 2017-2020, the Continuing Education Center organized seminars open to public participation in cooperation with only several academic units and departments. Additionally, midterm

seminars were organized in 2018 and 2019. Last but not least, the university has organized another type of event through which academics working in XU visit different cities and give interactive talks to public. The number of academics across the disciplines contributed in these seminars and events are limited; and further to that, there is no English language teacher educator contribution at all.

5.1.2.3. Appointment and Promotion Criteria

This section presents detailed information regarding initial appointment and reappointment criteria for assistant professorship, and promotion criteria for associate and full professorship peculiar to the university. To begin with, all applicants, regardless of their disciplines, are expected to meet the requirements listed in the rules and regulations of XU for promotion and appointment of faculty members. Moreover, the applicants are also expected to fulfill IB's criteria for promotion specifically to associate professorship in XU.

Compared to many other Turkish universities, setting additional criteria for promotion and appointment is a long-standing and established practice in XU. Additional criteria for appointments are determined by the University Executive Board. In April 2021, comprehensive changes were introduced to the existing list of criteria for appointment and promotion, and this also resulted in changing demands on academics. However, only the candidates appointed to any position after April 2021 are affected by the new regulations. To begin with, applicants for initial appointment to any department or graduate school, including Department of Foreign Language Education, are supposed to either hold a doctorate degree from an internationally acknowledged university or carry out academic practices for a minimum of nine months in an internationally acknowledged university or research institution in case they have taken the degree from a Turkish university. Although the quality of the universities or the institutions for doctoral degrees or post-doctorate studies were not stated clearly in the previous criteria list, the newly published one plainly draws the lines of expected qualities.

According to new criteria list, these aforementioned 'internationally acknowledged universities' are expected to be ranked among the top 700 universities in well-known university rankings systems, and if the university itself that the applicant graduated

from cannot meet this criterion, either the faculty or the department is expected to be ranked among the first 250 in its area worldwide. Imposing such a prerequisite criterion on the applicants can be considered as a practice that reinforces the strict adherence to international rankings through which, as a matter of fact, holding an academic position has become even more competitive. Running in a competitive race in many aspects ranging from better public recognition to increased collaboration with industry worldwide as stated in strategic plans of the university, XU aims to climb upwards in the rankings by means of newly hired academics having possible international networks and a potential to accelerate knowledge production and even produce commodity of knowledge. In other words, this criterion aims to take for granted that newly hired academics' production potential depending upon their international academic studies, works, experiences and networks to carry the university up in international rankings.

Some other prerequisite criteria that the applicants are expected to meet did not undergo a change, though. For instance, as the medium of instruction in XU is English, the applicants are also required to deliver a seminar or demo lesson in English so that their proficiency of English as well as the quality of teaching can be evaluated. Additionally, they are expected to meet a certain level of English language proficiency determined by the Senate and prove it with the certificates recognized by the university in order to apply for assistant professorship, and also take an oral interview in English to be appointed to the position. Compared to the initial appointment standards of other Turkish universities, it can be easily understood that these three criteria are uncommon and may lead to the elimination of many potential candidates even before their professional performance is taken into consideration.

Furthermore, the rules and regulations indicate that the proportion of faculty who hold a PhD degree from a Turkish university, including XU, should be lower than 50% of total faculty working at the department that candidate applies for. It is obvious that this rule precludes the recruitment of pure inbreds. Moreover, it also seems to limit the number of mobile or silver-corded inbreds who have obtained their PhD degrees in XU. In other words, an external research experience may not be adequate to be recruited in XU if the quota does not allow. This results from the fact that they have not received their doctorate degrees from a university abroad. The rule is in accordance

with the internationalization policy of the university. The university's adoption of an international identity as stated in the university's mission and vision, taking part in international rankings, the expectation from the faculty members to conduct and publish research on international academic platforms, the increase in the number of international students and faculty can be listed as other components of the internationalization process. Therefore, the university administration aims to make XU a prominent actor in international academic market with non-inbred or mobile inbred academics affiliated with an international academic community.

Apart from these prerequisites, academics are expected to be in accordance with the point system set by the university both for initial appointment and promotion. Indeed, the point system of the university is partially the same as that of IB although the content is highly different. Namely, academics are expected to obtain a minimum level of points to deserve initial and re/appointment to assistant professorship and promotion to associate and full professorship based on some variables such as the position they apply for or the scientific area they work in.

According to the previous criteria list, a candidate applying to Department of Foreign Language Education for the position of assistant professorship was expected to gain a minimum of 15 points through both national and international scientific production, at least one of which is of type i) an article published in journals indexed in SCI-E (Type A), SSCI or AHCI, ii) a book chapter or a (course, scientific and vocational) book published by international Type A publishing houses. This criterion was valid for many other departments as well, in fact. In other words, Department of Foreign Language Education was listed in the older criteria set under Social and Administrative Sciences title comprised of a variety of unrelated disciplines. In the current version, however, the criteria have been determined based on the requirements of departments instead of being field-specific such Social and Administrative Sciences which was too general in practice and far from addressing the peculiarity of the faculty or department. Now, the candidate for the first appointment to Department of Foreign Language Education to is expected to fulfill one type of activity, which is either i) AHCI, WoS Q1, Q2, or Scopus Q1-Q2 publications + national / international book or chapter of a book, or ii) AHCI, WoS Q1, Q2, Q3 or Scopus Q1-Q2 publications + oral presentation at international, peer-reviewed conferences.

It is obvious that the new criteria introduced the quartile concept to be used for the purposes of appointment and promotion. In the previous criteria list, the requirement was to publish original research articles in journals indexed in SCI-E (Type A), SSCI or AHCI; however, the current requirement takes into account the journal impact factors categorized into quartiles in addition to indexes mentioned above. Namely, not all journals indexed in SCI-E (Type A) or SSCI in the Web of Science (WoS) database have the same impact factor. Therefore, it becomes important to publish in the quartiles with the highest impact factors. As a result, the university requires the candidates to publish at least in Q3 while Q1 publications are the most preferable considering the point they bring. As the points that belong to each journal quartile show, WoS Q1, Q2 and Q3 publications bring 40, 30 and 25 points, respectively. Similarly, while Scopus Q1 publication brings 30 points, Scopus Q2 and AHCI ones correspond to 25 points each. This change in the regulations and the ranking of journal quartiles and the points they bring to teacher educators again shows the competitive conditions of academic appointment and promotions regarding international publishing. The requirement of publication in certain quartiles of WoS and Scopus as well as AHCI shows the strict and external decisions regulating the type and number of academic productions.

It is also important to note here that both book publications and conference presentations are bound by certain University Administrative Board regulations. Academic boards of Faculties select the national and international publishing houses that are acceptable for appointment and promotion and send a list to the University Administrative Board for approval. Academic works of candidates can be considered valid, provided that they have been published by the publishing houses in the Board's list. Likewise, oral presentations given in any conference in the field cannot be accepted valid for appointments and promotions. Instead, the academic boards in each Faculty agree upon the most prestigious 20 conferences in the field, and the candidate needs to make sure that the conference they have attended must be among the ones determined by the board. Similar to quartile demands, the requirement of dependence only on certain publishing houses and conferences in the field to be appointed or promoted can be viewed as an external decision strictly regulating the teacher educators' work.

An assistant professor in the Department of Foreign Language Education is reappointed to the same position twice throughout maximum of 12 years. The first is at the end of four years and the second is at the end of eight years. In each reappointment, the requirements increase. While the scientific publication requirement of the first reappointment is almost the same with that of the first appointment, there is another activity group out of which the candidate is expected to fulfill two sub-activities. The four sub-activities listed are alternatives to one another, not a must activity each. As a result, international high impact journal publication is a must in the list. However, ULAKBİM TR index publication, participation into a TÜBİTAK Project, at least one graduate thesis supervision, and designing and teaching an original course can substitute for one another. Having done only one of them is adequate. Also, it is obvious that while international high impact journal publication is a must, ULAKBİM TR index publication is not considered necessary. In addition, teaching and internal service (e.g., service to the students through thesis supervision) are not prioritized as much as international high impact journal publication is.

In the second reappointment, the must requirement is again international high impact journal publication and participation into either TÜBİTAK or another scientific project funded by predetermined institutions. If the candidate cannot meet the criterion of project participation, they are allowed to compensate it with international publication again. Consequently, publication and also research have the utmost importance. The last one, Activity 3 is again comprised of sub-activities alternatives to one another and they belong to research, teaching and academic service.

As for associate professorship, the requirements become varied compared to that of first appointment to assistant professorship. The candidate for associate professorship in Department of Foreign Language Education is expected to complete 4 types of academic activities to be eligible for the position. In Activity 1, they are again required to have publications in certain quartiles of certain indexes (i.e., WoS Q1, Q2, Q3, Scopus Q1, Q2, AHCI) in addition to either an oral presentation in one of the 20 most prestigious conferences in the field or a book/chapter of a book by a national/international publishing house approved by the University Administrative Board. The number of journal publications is three if the journals where the articles

have been published are included in the quartile system. However, if there is a journal publication in AHCI, the expected number of publications increases up to four. It can be said that the expected number of publications has increased compared to the previous criterion where candidates, without considering the quartiles, were required to do only two publications, which are either a book or chapter of a book from an A-type international publishing house or SCI-E (Type A), SSCI or AHCI index. Activity 2 is a must for candidates and requires having supervised at least 2 graduate theses. This time, internal service receives as much attention as international publishing does. Activity 3 is another type of precondition for the position, requiring working in either TÜBİTAK projects or projects funded by other national/international institutions (which are also predetermined and listed by the Board) as coordinator or researcher. If the candidate cannot meet this project criterion, they are allowed to compensate it with an extra journal publication in aforementioned indexes. Lastly, the candidate is expected to carry out one of the following academic activities as a requirement of Activity 4: i) at least one article in a journal indexed by ULAKBİM, ii) having designed and taught one original course at least for one semester, or iii) participation into at least one national/international conference, symposium or congress organizing committee. These three activities are considered alternatives to each other, and meeting only one of them is adequate to meet this criterion.

As types of activities expected from candidates for associate professorship in Department of Foreign Language Education demonstrate, there is a mix of responsibilities consisting of research, teaching and service. Yet, as participation in a research project, having supervised at least two graduate theses and publishing articles in the same high impact quartiles are must, the importance attached to them outweighs the other activities. As a result, the criteria set requires the candidate to do internal service as well as research and publication. Publishing in a journal indexed by ULAKBİM TR, participation in organizing committees of academic meetings, and designing and teaching an original course are again optional and fulfilling one of them is enough. Therefore, publishing in a national index, teaching and another type of internal service (i.e., service to the discipline through participation in organizing committees of academic meetings) receive comparatively less importance. As a result, while one of the academic service activities, thesis supervision, is a must; the other one, participation into an organizing committee, has alternatives. It should be noted

that theses supervised by the candidate have a potential to be products of scientific project works or to turn into international publications, and this may help the university become more productive. While ULAKBİM publication is not a must in the university criteria, it is compulsory to publish at least 3 articles in journals indexed by ULAKBİM according to IB's promotion criteria to associate professorship. In this respect, publishing in national indexes is represented better in IB's critieria. Similarly, it was also a must to gain 25 points by means of national work based on the previous criteria of the university. However, seeing the importance given to publications in international and high impact quartile journals, it is not surprising that national publication is not a must in the university's criteria list anymore. Moreover, there is not a difference between XU and IB criteria sets regarding the requirements of service work and teaching. It is also important to mention here that there is no community service activity either encouraged or is obliged in criteria lists belonging to both XU and IB.

Promotion to professorship is similar to associate professorship in the sense that it also requires completion of four types of academic activities. Activity 1 is completely the same with that of associate professorship regarding subcategories; however, the only difference is the number of expected publications. If the publications are indexed in WoS Q1, Q2, Q3 and Scopus Q1 and Q2, four publications are adequate. However, if there is an AHCI publication among the candidate's publications, the number is five and an additional book/chapter of a book or oral presentation in one of the most 20 conferences determined by the University Board are also required. In the previous criteria list, the necessary number of publications was four and at least three of them were expected to be either articles indexed in SCI-E (Type A), SSCI or AHCI index or a book from a Type A international publishing house. The remaining one publication could be either a Type B international journal publication or a book chapter from a Type A international publishing house. As it is clearly seen, new criterion regarding scientific publication is more demanding for the candidates in terms of both index types and/or number of publications.

Similarly, Activity 2 requires the candidates to have supervised 3 graduate theses, one of which is a PhD. Different from the one in associate professorship criterion where being a researcher or coordinator are both accepted, the candidate is expected to have

participated in either TÜBİTAK or other projects funded by pre-determined scientific institutions only as coordinators within the scope of Activity 3. Lastly, Activity 4 consists of nine sub-activities out of which the candidate is expected to fulfill only three. Out of nine sub-activities, two of them are related to teaching practice. While one of them requires the candidate to have created and taught an original course for at least one semester, the other one is about having taught three or more courses in one semester for a period of at least eight semesters. The other four sub-activities are under research category. The candidate is expected to have gained a patent, conducted a Scientific Research Project (BAP), published in a journal indexed by ULAKBİM, or have been awarded by some pre-determined institutions. The remaining three sub-activities can be considered as service practices, all of which are academic service works. They include having worked for a minimum of three years in administrative duties, having organized or been a member of the organizing committee of an international congress, and lastly, being a member of national-international scientific committees, having been selected for national-international organizations and committees, being an editor, associate/field editor of national-international peer-reviewed journals. The situation is similar with that of associate professorship. It is usually the research activity that is emphasized most and considered as must. Although Activity 2 can be viewed as an academic service activity, it has a potential to grow out of a research project or to produce international publications as an end product. Therefore, as Activity 2 has strong clear ties with research practices, as well.

In the previous list, student evaluation was one of the criteria that has a slight impact on the promotion of candidates. At the end of each semester faculty members' teaching performances are evaluated by students through course evaluation surveys. According to older criteria, if the candidate was ranked among the top 10% or 15% within the faculty members, then they were awarded with 20 and 10 points, respectively. Additionally, there was a requirement for both associate and full professorship stating that the average score of last six semesters is expected to be above 4.00 out of 5.00 points or the candidate's score is expected to be within the upper 80% in the faculty. If the candidate cannot fulfill this requirement, their performance is evaluated by the Faculty Human Resources Committee. In case of an unsatisfactory evaluation, the candidate was allowed to compensate it with publication points. This requirement in general shows that student evaluation surveys were basically used as a tool for faculty

performance tracking. Furthermore, student evaluations of teaching were used for summative evaluation purposes, which had a decisive impact on the candidates' promotion. In the new criteria list, there is not such a requirement. On the other hand, it is underscored if the candidate cannot meet the requirements to be reappointed as assistant professor after eight years, their research and teaching practices are evaluated by the department. This shows that academics' teaching practices are controlled by various external factors such as students and departmental boards.

Last but not least, there is an important difference between the previous and current regulations by the Senate regarding appointment to full professorship. While maximum up to 60% of the candidate's academic works published during their associate professorship was accepted valid to apply for the position of full professorship, the new regulation underscores the fact that only the scientific works completed after being appointed to associate professorship can be accepted for evaluation for full professorship. Thus, the candidates are expected to be more productive with this new rule.

5.1.3. Summary of Findings

The document review starts with the investigation of IB's promotion criteria. It gives a macro perspective considering that the criteria apply to not only English language teacher educators but also all academics in Turkey. The analysis continues with documents having more specific information relating to XU and then the department that the present research is conducted in. The aim is to give general, specific and also comparative views of current academic and administrative situations surrounding English language teacher educators.

The first document analyzed in this section is IB's promotion criteria to be promoted to associate professor. As is the case with all academics from any field, English language teacher educators are also subject to certain requirements by IB regarding scientific activity types and points they get in turn. Apparently, articles published in journals covered by certain indexes such as SSCI, SCI, SCI-Expanded and AHCI and book or chapter of a book published by international publishing houses are favored over national indexes and publications since they bring higher points to the candidates.

Compared to international publishing, all other academic activities listed in IB's criteria bring less points. On the other hand, teaching and especially service practices get quite limited attention by IB, and thus bring very few points compared to research and publication.

The second document analyzed is the 2018-2022 Strategic Plan generated by the university. As the university acknowledges its activity domains as i) education and teaching, ii) research and development, and iii) community service, the content of the domains gives implicit information regarding English language teacher educators' professional roles as well. While research and development domain gets most of the attention among the activity units of the university, it is admitted that existing policies and works do not promote service work adequately. Thus, it can be concluded that academics in XU and English language teacher educators in particular are not supported fully and adequately to do community service work by the university's existing policies or initiatives.

The next series of documents under investigation are the annual reports between 2017 and 2020. The comparative analysis of the reports in terms of the number of publications first by faculties and then by departments specifically in the Faculty of Education demonstrates the increasing trend of publication and research activities. Moreover, as the university administration aims for higher in the international university rankings and more prestige, the academics' production is supported in different ways such guidance for project applications and increasing university-industry collaboration.

The university's appointment and promotion criteria set is the last document under investigation. The comparison of previous and current versions of the criteria gives an opportunity to demonstrate the increasing expectation of XU regarding the universities where the candidates are expected to earn a PhD degree or do a post-doctorate study. Obviously, XU looks for candidates who hold a PhD degree from abroad, and limits even the number of mobile and silver-corded inbreds as faculty members despite the fact that they have research experience abroad. Furthermore, the new criteria list sets a higher standard of publication in certain indexes, increases emphasis on the

researcher role, gives limited emphasis on internal service and teaching activities, and no emphasis on community service for English language teacher educators.

The results of the document analysis indicate that both IB and the university administration function as external bodies establishing control especially through the use of point system and incentives over the professional roles of English language teacher educators. They gain the highest points through international high impact journal publications, and thus the emphasis over the researcher role of the academics by the aforementioned bodies is increasing. On the contrary, teacher role of English language teacher educators receives less attention, and in turn, bring very few points. Especially community service work is encouraged in neither the promotion criteria of IB nor the criteria and other institutional policies of XU. Lastly, the university's efforts to work its way up through the global university rankings, and to gain a place in the competitive academic market can be achieved especially through the academics' growing production of knowledge. As a result, the impact of research and publication oriented academic performance in a competitive academic marketplace is evident in the professional activities and roles expected from the academics.

5.2. English Language Teacher Educators' Professional Roles and Identity

This second part of findings based on semi-structured interviews and partially on course observations aims to reveal the step stones of their professional identity construction. Therefore, the findings reported in this section will provide answers to the following research question and its sub-questions:

R.Q: 2. How do English language teacher educators construct their professional identities?

2.1. How do English language teachers develop into English language teacher educators?

2.2. How do English language teacher educators fulfill their professional roles?

2.3. How do English language teacher educators experience the impact of demands of professional roles on their professional identities?

2.4. How do English language teacher educators conceptualize the impact of institutional and national contexts on their professional identities?

5.2.1. Pathways to Become English Language Teacher Educators

This section specifically aims to answer the following research question through the analysis of participant interviews:
RQ: 2.1. How do English language teachers develop into English language teacher educators?

As identity is a complex issue, first, the pathways that the participants took to become teacher educators, consisting of their educational and professional histories, significant others, professional self-views and institutional affinity will be presented.

5.2.1.1. Educational and Professional Histories

Regarding the participants' educational and professional biographies, there are common points as well as some diversity. Except TE3, all other participants have an educational background at XU. To begin with, TE1 is a graduate of a four-year undergraduate program in ELT in XU, and she also completed both master's and doctoral degrees in the same program and university. Therefore, she is a pure inbred completing all degrees at the university she currently works. Having graduated as an English teacher, she started to work in a private primary school partly as a coincidence:

> So, there was no 'young learner' in my dreams. I had never taken a *Young Learners* course in that time… I actually applied to [name of the school], that is, to the preparatory school. While we were there, we decided to apply to the other [primary school]. My interview in the primary school went apparently well … It was never in my dreams… I felt a big disappointment during the course of two years as it was never in my dreams [laughter]. Because we are all types who begin the profession having watched *Dead Poets Society* and then saying "What the hell is this?", but I think that experience has given me a lot.

With an emphasis on the fact that teaching young learners was not her dream, her 'novice teacher disappointment' turned out to be a push factor influencing her search for alternative career paths. In the meantime, she got accepted to the master's program in XU, and then started to work as a research assistant at the department where the master's program was offered. Having taught young learners, she could find a chance to work with young adult ELT students in her new context. Simultaneously with the

beginning of her assistantship, she also started to teach some undergraduate courses. In other words, she was experiencing dual roles: a research assistant and an English language teacher educator. She was eager to teach undergraduate level courses at the department. When she was offered to teach a junior level ELT course by the administration as a result of a faculty shortage, she jumped at the opportunity. Ever since then, she has taught method courses.

At the end of six years, her employment with the department came to an end due to time limits for the assistantship position. In the mean time she was about to finish her PhD thesis and applied to not only school of foreign languages of XU but also another ELT department. Although she got accepted from both units, she decided to take a break from academia. Therefore, she went for the school of foreign languages to teach English for another two years during which she also taught undergraduate courses in the ELT program of XU as a part time lecturer. Apparently, even if she was transferred to another unit she did not break her ties with the ELT program and continued to simultaneously take on English language teacher educator identity together with English teacher identity. At the end of two years, the department opened a position for a lecturer and she was accepted for that. Since then, she has been teaching both undergraduate and graduate courses in the program. To conclude, despite her start with young learners at the very beginning of her career, she has later always taught young adults. It seems that she started to construct her English language teacher educator identity very early when she was a graduate student.

Likewise, TE2 is also a graduate of a four-year undergraduate ELT program in XU. She was well-aware of her interests and determined to take the academic pathway. She decided to follow a few graduate courses offered at the university when she was a senior ELT student. She had attended a variety of courses such as *Psycholinguistics*, *Computational Models of Mind*, *Philosophy of Language* and *Philosophy of Science* courses that had been offered by different departments before she decided to pursue a master's degree focusing on cognitive aspects of language. As for doctoral degree, she again returned to the ELT program on her own will. She evidently had a high level of learner autonomy as she puts: "I completely discovered what I wanted to do on my own hook. That's way I was very happy, because, no one directed me to a certain thing".

Upon getting a bachelor's degree in ELT and starting with master's studies, she began to teach English at a preparatory school of a private university for two years. Then she moved to another city for the same position at a different private university only to come back to XU one year later as an English lecturer at school of foreign languages. She believes that a total of six years of English teaching contributed a lot to her by providing experience. In the course of six years, she adopted an English teacher identity in addition to an emerging researcher identity through her graduate studies.

Having passed PhD qualifying exam, she went to a university abroad for two years for research purposes. Having completed her doctoral study, she was awarded with prestigious postdoctoral fellowships several times one after the other in Turkey, in Europe and in the States. Her focus was doing research related to language acquisition; on the other hand, she had a chance to give two graduate courses when she was in Europe and in Turkey during her postdoctoral studies. It seems that her researcher identity was on the foreground as a result of roles she took on for around ten years until she settled down for a tenure-track position at the ELT program of XU. Thanks to her academic career at universities abroad before returning to her Alma Mater for a tenure-track position, she can be considered as a mobile-inbred. She highlights the fact that she is really happy with her area of interest in addition to the extended academic experiences over different disciplines and countries saying that "So, given another chance, I would do the same thing again". This excerpt also shows that her current professional position has arisen from a conscious effort and choice. Contrary her previous only-researcher positions, she now works as a full time academic both doing research and teaching.

TE3 has been working as an adherent assistant professor in XU. She had had no connections with XU until she started to work as a faculty member. Contrary to TE1 and TE2, TE3 does not have a bachelor's degree in ELT. She is a graduate of English Language and Literature program from another state university. Having chosen to work for Ministry of National Education (MoNE), she was first appointed to a post in the northern part of Turkey where she worked as an English language teacher at a K-12 school.

One year later, she got acceptance for a master's study in the same university she completed her bachelor's degree. Back then, teachers at MoNE could demand reappointment to the city where the graduate program they were enrolled in was located. Thus, TE3 was also reappointed to do her master's studies in a completely different scientific area. In the meantime, she continued to work as an English language teacher for approximately five more years. When she entered the academia as a master's student, she had been a newly recruited teacher, almost a year, and both teacher and academic identities were taking shape. Having completed her master's degree and after a six-year teaching experience, she applied to MoNE scholarship for graduate education and was awarded with scholarship for a doctorate education in applied linguistics. This scholarship was important in the sense that it had a decisive role in her prospective professional career because it came with an obligation of compulsory service. As a result, she took an important step to become an academic in the field of ELT. On the other hand, ELT was not really the field in her dreams. Despite her teaching career of six years, she was still more into English language and literature:

> I especially wanted English language and literature but I didn't have an opportunity to do in that area with a scholarship. That's why I shifted to the field of education. You know, it wasn't a big obligation, that is, I thought I could use literature in the field of education as well. The purpose of my going to England is indeed English language and literature and to see the places whose background I had learned for four years.

Obviously, she was not able to study in field of literature for a PhD degree due to predetermined areas offered by the scholarship. To compensate this situation, she decided to live and study in the country whose literature she had learned as an undergraduate student. When she earned her doctoral degree, she returned to Turkey, and started to work in XU as a result of compulsory service.

To conclude, it seems that finding a sponsorship had an impact on her decision to become an academic. However, it seems that the fact that the scholarship would not offer education in the field of literature is the underlying triggering factor for becoming an English language teacher educator. On the other hand, this does not mean that she just took a random action; it is obvious that she deliberated over the decision of becoming an English language teacher educator as she already acknowledges that she was already a teacher, someone who was not an outsider to the field of education;

and may have had an opportunity of combining two disciplines, teaching and literature. As a result, earning a scholarship and a possibility of combining two disciplines were pull factors for TE3 to become an English language teacher educator.

TE4, similar to TE1, is a pure inbred English language teacher educator. She does not have a tenure-track position, rather works as a full-time teaching staff. She is a graduate of a four-year undergraduate program of ELT in XU. Having graduated from bachelor's degree, she began to work as an English lecturer at a language center of a state university in the same city. There, she taught adult learners English at all levels for a period of four years. In the meantime, she completed her master's degree in ELT program in XU. Then she made an institutional move to the school of foreign languages of XU where she was going to work for the next 12 years. Her audience was again young adult learners. As she also highlights, she has never worked with a student group in K-12 schools.

During course of her teaching at the school of foreign languages, she also earned a PhD degree from XU in the same area. Until she started to work at the ELT program, she taught English ceaselessly, and therefore she started to construct and shape an English teacher identity from early on. Some professional activities such as attending seminars and workshops as well as master's and doctorate degrees as various means of professional development, had important impact on her English teacher identity. On the other hand, she had already made her career planning to become an English language teacher educator even when she was an undergraduate student and prepared herself for that identity accordingly. She describes the process of constructing her English language teacher educator identity:

> Actually, when I started university, I planned to do something like this, so to go on in this academic way… I realized that I really like this job. Yet, of course the education I received made me gain a much more reflective perspective. In this direction, I can say that at the beginnings of my professional life, I had a chance to study in a teacher training course in America. We had a one-month course there with Egyptian teachers. We made various classroom observations. These were the elements that gradually shaped my teacher educator identity, these experiences. Then I completed a training at [name of the university] on 'the training of the trainer'. Also, during my graduate education, I both took part in various seminars and ELT events as a speaker and did presentations. I also attended them as a participant. I can say that all these prepared me for this role. I also realized that I had intrinsic motivation for this work.

Not only with the help of graduate studies through which she learned to do research but also other professional activities such as trainings and seminars, she had already begun to construct her English language teacher educator identity gradually within years even before she moved from school of foreign languages where she used to work as an English teacher, to the ELT program where she started to work as an English language teacher educator. And lastly, rather than push factors, she has been triggered by her love of teaching, early career planning, and intrinsic motivation that can be considered as pull factors.

TE5 is a mobile inbred holding a full-time lecturer position. She holds a bachelor's degree in Translation and Interpreting Program. She started her teaching career in a state high school in her hometown; however, after two years of teaching in MoNE schools, she continued to work as a lecturer teaching English to young adults at the school of foreign languages of a state university. Similar to TE2 and TE4, she does not have a teaching experience with young learners either. In the meantime, she earned a master's degree in the field of teaching English in a prestigious private university. Having returned to her institution where she continued to teach English, she realized that professional environment in that particular university did not meet her expectations and she embarked on a quest to find a way out and decided to apply for a doctoral program in ELT in XU:

> I, frankly, didn't come [to this department] doing much planning… I was tired of working in [name of the city], the unprofessional environment there. I wanted to come to a place where I could realize myself more. I applied for a PhD, I got acceptance, then in the meantime such a staff position was opened… I wanted to escape from [name of the city]. I wanted to work in a more professional environment. I came to this department completely by coincidence. I mean I hadn't planned to become a teacher educator but I would have ended up with doing something like this when I completed the PhD, so for me, it was a bit more by accident than by judgment.

As she also states, she was looking for a professional environment, and this search resulted from dissatisfaction with colleagues and administration in the previous institution. Moreover, she aimed to find opportunities for self-realization as the institution she had worked at had not provided favorable circumstances for professional development. Therefore, she underwent a process of academic and professional change with the help of serendipity. As she was accepted to the doctorate

program and was recruited for the lecturer position in the ELT program shortly afterwards and quit the job of teaching English in her previous institution, she all of a sudden experienced a shift from being an English teacher to becoming an English language teacher educator as well as becoming a graduate student again. A couple of years later after completing her PhD, she also went abroad as a post-doctoral researcher. To conclude, she embodied several identities on her pathway to become an English language teacher educator, and the construction process of English language teacher educator identity was not isolated from other identities. Moreover, how she decided to become an English language teacher educator is based on not only push factors related to her dissatisfaction with previous professional environment but also pull factors such as pursuing a doctoral degree and better opportunities for professional stimulation.

5.2.1.2. Significant Others

Significant others that the participants in the study gave an account of are composed of academics belonging to their previous educational histories, both as undergraduate and graduate students. They have had notable touches upon the participants' professional lives with their impressive professional or personal characteristics. The impact of the participants' role models can be grouped under two areas: cognitive attitudes and affective attitudes.

5.2.1.2.1. Cognitive Attitudes

Cognitive component of the attitudes of significant others is related to their professional beliefs and knowledge, and how they are projected as professional behaviors. To start with, TE3 gives reference to her undergraduate education and a group of intellectual academics she had a chance to know during her bachelor's education: "That university had very knowledgeable, very intellectual academics for that period. Some of them are still there. Well, I was impressed by them". Furthermore, she was also attracted later by the intellectual level of another professor who she worked with for some time during her PhD studies abroad. As she puts in her own words: "[Name of the professor] is so knowledgeable and a very high level of intellectual, but besides, her life is very plain and simple." Obviously, she was

impressed by her intellectual capacity combined with a modest personal life. Likewise, TE2 also points out the same characteristic: "I, well, was very impressed by our literature professors here during my undergraduate period. In terms of their intellectual capacities". It is clear that both TE3 and TE2 believe that having high levels of intellectual knowledge and skills are one of the most impressive assets of an academic.

TE4 underlines the impact of having a sound knowledge of the academic field drawing on her role model who was an academic in the ELT program of XU:

> So, if I'm at this point maybe I can say that I owe this to her … I can't deny [name of the professor] contributions to both constructing this academic identity as well as getting used to this new identity during the course of master's studies which was the first step to transition to academic identity. She was the one who had labor of love. She also had a teaching background. Therefore, I observed that having a teaching background contributed to her a lot, that is, when I look at it from the perspective of a teacher educator.

She helped TE4 experience a smooth introduction to academic studies and identity although the doctoral program itself had just been started and was not highly successful at supporting graduate students. The professor's pedagogical competence also helped TE4. As a result, the academic support combined with a well-practiced pedagogy became "a source of inspiration" for TE4.

In the same vein, TE1 mentions one of her professors who she took courses from both as an undergraduate and graduate student. TE1 underlines that the professor had a major impact on her career choice: "I think my reason is purely romantic. I graduated from here. It's our dream, I'm sure we look at some professors with admiration while studying here, so I also had one". TE1 also draws attention not only to her professional but also personal qualities, and accepts that she was impressed by both. Furthermore, TE2 also refers to a professor she worked with abroad as a PhD candidate. She accepts taking him as a role-model: "His approach to his work, his calmness … I may not be as calm as he was. You know, I always think of it, so in moments of panic, his approach was very healthy". It seems that the professor's professional qualities impressed her a lot. Then, she mentions another academic figure in her life, a professor she had a chance to work with as a post-doctoral researcher abroad. She draws attention to his academic qualities as a researcher:

> After my doctorate, I always try to take my professor at [name of the university] as a role model for his approach to science. That person is very good in the sense that he tries to find the truth in science, to approach things without taking sides.

For TE2, objectivity of the professor and the way he performs scientific research were inspiring traits. TE3 also underscores the fact that her advisor in England was really successful in her field referring specifically to the research studies she conducted. Moreover, TE3 adds:

> Well, they have lots of parties gathering students and stuff, but when it comes to work, she never messes with it. She criticizes you in the harshest way. I really liked it. I think it is something that I can't do much. But they balance them very well and that impressed me a lot.

She draws attention to the balanced relationship between private and work life of an academic. The fact that she was a very successful professor academically and also that success in professional life does not necessitate private life remaining in the background were influential characteristics of her professor although TE3 accepts that she is not as successful as her in balancing two lives.

5.2.1.2.2. Affective Attitudes

Affective component, on the other hand, is usually relating to positive feelings aroused by significant others, and how affective attitudes are projected in their professional behaviors. All participants give accounts of their significant others in a similar manner highlighting that they were impressed not only by their academic excellence but also affective attitudes towards themselves or other students. TE1 mentions the same professor she finds very successful in the professional sense saying that: "As a human being, she is an exemplary person as well. To me, if I don't like a person as a person, it is not possible to like her other characteristics". In this sense, TE3 mentions the difficulties of being a graduate student abroad where she felt the need of emotional support intensively, and draws attention to her advisor's affective attitude:

> Her approach towards me impressed me a lot … I don't want to make comparisons, but when you're abroad, you're very lonely. For example, she was very close to me any way … she used to invite me over for dinner.

TE2 similarly refers to her advisor and acknowledges that she was a role model regarding her attitude towards students as well: “I mean PhD students usually do their PhDs with such a thing, in a war of nerves. There is such a love and hate relationship, so it didn’t happen to me. I did it willingly thanks to her”.

TE4 also calls attention to the importance of affective approach of significant others. She emphasizes that she tries to model her professor’s affective approach and build up a relationship based on catering to affective needs of her own students as well their academic needs:

> She supported us affectively to get used to this profession, or rather academic identity. She was a very good listener. So, in line with my observations right now teaching master’s courses, people or candidates may feel really insecure. They are having great difficulties in both directing their academic studies and maintaining motivation to continue these studies … they struggle for time management. I can say that my experience with [name of the professor] turned out to be the one that showed me how important these are, that a teacher educator should support academic candidates not only on cognitive dimension but also on affective dimension.

Considering all, the participants seem to rely on their supportive and enlightening experiences with their thesis advisors and course instructors when forming their professional identities. Therefore, certain professional and personal characteristics of significant others have become important indicators of their current approach to their profession and students.

5.2.1.3. Professional Self-Views

In order to understand professional identity construction of the participants, it is also necessary to know the identity or identities they adopt or find relevant to their professional practices. Moreover, the meaning they attribute to those identities is of great importance to make sense of their self-views. To begin with, TE1 and TE5 have a common view and place themselves more on the side of being a teacher educator, albeit for different reasons. In the excerpt below, it is clearly seen that TE1 describes herself primarily as a teacher educator:

> I view [myself as] teacher educator. Now I think academics have two missions. One is doing research, the other is handing down professional knowledge and manners to the next generation. I find this handing down from generation to

> generation logical. Since I think that academic profession has a side that doesn't deem teaching to be worthy, I prefer to put myself in the category of teacher educator in this distinction.

It seems that the way she positions herself is basically relating to the importance she attaches to teaching although she is also into research. On the other hand, the way she views herself professionally is also a strong reaction to colleagues who tend to believe that teaching is of less worth and give prominence to research practices. She also refers to an article related to this issue. Based on the article, written by one of the retired faculty, she brings criticisms to some faculty who did not consider teaching profession as worthy, pursued academic careers in literature and linguistics but still taught in the English Language Teacher Education Program. As a result, she discusses that it is the old story that staff of the ELT program is composed of academics having different areas of interest that may neglect the mission of the program. Therefore, working in an academic environment where some academics do not value teaching despite their educational and professional backgrounds, she brings teacher educator identity to the foreground.

Arising from a different reason, TE5 also describes her dominant identity as being a teacher:

> I guess I feel more like a teacher educator than an academic. Because a great part of the work I do, my labor goes to the training of teachers, that is, to prepare seminars, prepare lessons to try to improve the quality of education. So I spend most of my time on this work. Because it's a very heavy responsibility, and it requires a great effort. Well, I give school practicum courses, I go to schools.

The fact that English language teacher identity is more dominant for TE5, in deed, results from the nature and intensity of responsibilities she shoulders. She directly associates research with academic work and view it as prerequisite of being an academic. From her point of view, teacher educator identity is, in practice, more related to teaching. Thus, having limited time to engage in research activities and devoting most of her time to teaching and preparing courses for pre-service English language teachers make her adopt a teacher educator identity to a greater extent than a researcher identity. It is clear that the intensity of teaching activities is a factor pushing her into teacher educator identity, on the other hand, she feels passionate about being a teacher educator and demonstrates her life-long commitment saying:

> I'm very pleased to work as a teacher educator because I think we do a very critical work, that is, we train teachers of Turkey. I don't know, we have a chance to impress hundreds of teachers. We have a chance to impress their classes… I also loved teaching English very much but teacher training is something more extraordinary, for me… Having much more responsibility. When you're an English language teacher, you can only control your own class, change people there. But if you're a teacher educator, I think you have a chance to make a difference in the classroom at university, in primary school, high school, kindergarten, all around Turkey through your students, your teachers there. So, I think it's an extraordinary work, I'm very pleased. I don't think I'll ever change my job. Well, I can do this job forever.

The excerpt above shows that she decidedly feels happy in teacher educator identity, and cherishes her role as an important agent in the training of future teachers. The opportunity to have a wider impact on generations and touch upon students who she would by no means have a chance to know is a motivation factor for TE5 to readily adopt a teacher educator identity as an enthusiastic professional dedicated to her calling.

Having a tenure-track position, TE3 on the other hand, views herself as both an academic and an English language teacher educator without acknowledging one is superior to or more valuable than the other. She actually does not feel that making a distinction between them is necessary. She maintains that both academia and academics are in the loop of education system: "I don't differentiate much … if we consider one as an academic because the research dimension is added on, I think the teacher educator should also do research". She underlines the fact that English language teacher educators should not be interested solely in teaching but undertake research. She also believes that 'English language teacher educator' title is not really different from the title of 'academic' but the former title has more reference to the group of students they teach. She also echoes TE5's views regarding the importance of being a teacher educator:

> I think that teacher training is very important. Teacher training may be, in that sense, different from training engineers because let's say you're training an individual who will educate people… I view myself as a teacher educator as well, and think that this is a heavy responsibility.

The fact that she provides service for the training of future teachers is a motivating factor paving the way for adopting teacher identity as well. Similar to TE3, TE4 also

believes that there is not a dichotomy between being a teacher educator and academic as they already overlap:

> In fact, in my own personal opinion, all the people working in the faculty of education are already teacher educators, that is by duty. But of course, this is an identity, and the extent the person manifests this identity or to what extent they adopt this identity is another issue… I have colleagues working as trainers at MoNE, they are also teacher educators, but we are working in an academic department here and we are shaping the prospective teachers, its being research-based is very important. In that sense, I see myself as a blend of two areas.

TE4 believes that university-based English language teacher educators should have a quality that differentiates themselves from other teacher educators who work for MoNE or private institutions. For her, their researcher role is one of the determining factors. In that sense, a researcher component is an integral part of her professional identity.

TE2, holder of a tenure-track position, gives a professional definition of herself focusing on her area of research in particular:

> I define myself as a language scientist. When they ask what field I work in, I say I work in the field of psycholinguistics … Being an academic is a job. It's not a definition, so you can be a researcher elsewhere without being an academic. So, you can work as a full-time researcher somewhere. You work in academia just because it gives you something, gives you a roof. That's why I don't define myself as academic. Well, teaching, that is, an educator, of course, I'm an educator. So, after all, if you work at a university, you have to be an educator at the same time.

Defining herself primarily as a language scientist, she also reflects on other identities. Her account shows that she sees herself, first and foremost, as a scientist, and thus researcher. She does not overtly reject other identities; however clearly acknowledges that being an academic is not an identity she adopts as she views it as a type of job. Actually, what defines her are her practices. In addition to researcher identity, she highlights the educator identity emerging as an inevitable result of working in a university. Yet, notwithstanding being an educator, her researcher identity is the one through which she introduces and defines herself.

5.2.1.4. Institutional Affinity: "A Feeling We are All Addicted to"

XU became another determining factor for the participants' professional futures especially at the beginning of their careers in the ELT program. All participants had their own reasons to aspire to work in this particular university.

To begin with, TE3, who is the assistant professor that had been sent abroad by MoNE scholarship for graduate studies, came to work in XU after she was awarded with a PhD degree because she had studied on behalf of XU. She states that she listed the universities she wanted to work in and she was placed according to her score: "My first choice was XU, then [name of another university]. I won XU." In other words, working in XU was her own decision. She highlights that she intentionally placed the name of XU at the top of the list and wanted to work in this particular university despite other very successful institutions she could have chosen to work at. She indicates many times during the interview that she feels happy working in XU, the university she chose to work on purpose.

Contrary to TE3's predetermined choice, TE4 had contacts with other institutions. She had some opportunities to work in ELT programs of other universities since she had earned her PhD degree. Once, for instance, she had a chance to be appointed for a tenure-track position in an ELT program of a state university located in a different city. And more recently, she was offered a position in a private university. Yet, she did not want to change her workplace and has continued to work in XU. Similar to TE3, TE4 also repeats several times during the interview that she feels lucky and happy to be a part of the university in general.

For TE2, XU provides an academic context through which her professional identity has been shaped. She willingly wanted to work in XU, and has several reasons for that:

> So, I, of course, firstly preferred as it brings together both linguistics and ELT… for instance, there were things among the places I could go, for instance linguistics departments, pure linguistics departments. But let's say I preferred to be here instead of places like [name of other universities] because I wanted to be in XU, I preferred here, to some extent, as of course I am an XUer … Also, because I know a thing about XU, there is a freedom of research in XU, which is rare in the world. In other words, you can do research on a subject

> you want, out of the framework of the department. I mean nobody tells you in XU that this is irrelevant, you can't investigate it. Or, they do less than other places. The courses I offer … have a structure allowing for an interdisciplinary thing. This is the primary reason I preferred XU.

As it is clear in the excerpt above, TE2 has an area of interest requiring an interdisciplinary work. Therefore, she gives utmost importance to working in an institution enabling her to offer courses and do research bringing together her areas of interest. As XU facilitates this, she can teach and do research based on her professional expertise and interest. Moreover, her previous educational background in XU and the feeling of belonging to XU turn out to be other important factors that have an impact on her professional identity.

TE5 is another participant who preferred to work in XU on purpose. Although she had no prior working experience in XU and just started the PhD program, she was knowledgeable about the educational quality of the ELT department drawing on her observations of colleagues who had graduated from XU:

> I had friends from XU at the institutions I worked and I realized that they were professionally very good. They were different, and because I saw their difference, I said that XU is good in this field. I said I had better go to XU now that I wanted to do something good in the field of English language teaching … So, XU was important for me. So, I wanted to do PhD, and I wanted to work in a more professional environment.

She states that the university which she got her bachelor's degree from was an alternative to apply considering the success and prestige it has in addition to her familiarity with it. On the other hand, she decided to be a part of XU first as a doctoral student and then as a lecturer believing that it can meet her expectations and lead to professional self-realization.

The case of TE4 is also partially relevant for TE1. Towards the end of her PhD study and after she earned the degree, she was invited to be interviewed for academic positions in ELT programs. Yet, she, in the end, always went for XU as TE4 did. For TE1, one reason for being affiliated with this university in particular is related to a factor that she calls as "relay race". She believes that the university contributed a lot to her as a student. Therefore, she also wants to make a contribution to her own students in return for the support she got previously. Apart from this aim that can be

called as her life-long personal project, she also mentions the marked impact that XU creates on her professional life:

> So, all the teachers of the university are so happy with the prestige of working in XU, in here, being a teacher in XU. There is a feeling we are all addicted to, how to say it, and that feeling is working for, working in XU. In other words, when asked about our profession, everyone who says that 'I'm a lecturer in XU' or 'I'm a faculty member in XU', is so aware of the impact it creates on the other part and enjoys it so much ... So there are many people, for example, waiting for appointment for a position for a year, a year and a half, working without salary … So, that prestige that the institution gives to them is very important. I think, it's very important for all of us. Some professors turn 75, and still don't want to get retired … It [XU] has become a part of them.

The excerpts above demonstrate that XU itself emerges as a site providing its members, irrespective of their disciplines, with status, prestige, value, professionalism and freedom. The emotional satisfaction and professional benefits that becoming a part of XU brings are so considerable that they provide a strong institutional affinity that positively affect professional identities of all participants.

5.2.1.5. Summary of Findings

The pathways that the participants took to become English language teacher educators are analyzed in four categories. Their educational and professional histories, significant others as role models, professional self-views and institutional affinity are considered as important factors that have led them to their current professional positions and identities.

To begin with, all participants took an academic pathway to become an English language teacher educator in this particular ELT program. While almost all of them received all or some of their academic degrees from XU, only TE3 did not have an educational background in XU. Considering all degrees and their post-doctoral studies, TE1 and TE4 are pure-inbreds, TE2 and TE5 are mobile inbreds, and lastly, TE3 is adherent. While TE2 is a tenured and TE3 is a tenure-track faculty; TE1, TE4 and TE5 work as full-time lecturers. The participants mention some pull and push factors that pave the way for their current positions. Dissatisfaction with previous student group, colleagues and administrators were push factors. Determination, early-career planning, love for teaching, intrinsic motivation, professional stimulation,

pursuing an academic degree, and having been rewarded with a sponsorship can be considered as pull factors. They all taught English either in K-12 schools or in preparatory classes of universities before becoming an academic in the ELT program of XU. Therefore, they all adopted teacher identities when they used to work as English language teachers. For almost all participants, teacher educator identities have started to emerge simultaneously with their graduate studies.

As for role-models, there is a clear relationship between the participants' significant others and their current teacher and researcher identities. Namely, the participants were in general terms were influenced by their significant others who took an important place in their previous educational histories in two broad categories. In cognitive level, the participants were impressed by their professors' intellectual capacity, academic and pedagogical knowledge, approach to and performance of scientific research. In affective level, on the other hand, the emotional support they provided was distinctive, helping the participants find necessary motivation to pursue graduate studies. The participants either implicitly or explicitly reveal that their significant others have had an important impact on their professional lives to an extent that affects their professional practices, and thus have contributed in their professional identities.

Moreover, the participants acknowledge their subordinate or dominant professional (sub)identities through their self-views. It can be said that the participants all engage with both teaching and research activities regardless of their academic positions, and they all address the same group of students, pre-service teachers. As a matter of fact, almost all of them view themselves as academics. However, the dominance of their sub-identities may vary. For instance, TE1 and TE5 admit that their teacher identities are dominant. The reason for that for TE1 is the fact that she both has labor of love for teaching and also, she places herself on this identity as a reaction to her colleagues who view teaching less important than research. TE5 also has a life-long commitment for teaching pre-service teachers. However, her researcher identity takes a backseat due to intensity of teaching responsibility and lack of time to carry out research extensively. TE3 and TE4 underline that they do not make a differentiation and they take on both teacher and researcher identities. On the other hand, TE2 does define herself as a language scientist. Thus, her researcher identity is on the foreground

although she views herself as an educator as a natural consequence of working in a university.

Lastly, the impact of institutional affinity on their professional identities is considerable. In general, the participants intentionally aimed to work in XU since it is viewed as a privileged academic institution due to its established national and emerging international academic prestige. More specifically, paying back the contribution XU has made them; having a sense of belonging to XU; that XU allows for interdisciplinary work and provides an academic context where there is research and teaching freedom; that XU makes a positive difference in ELT program and provides an environment for professional self-realization are other personal reasons increasing the importance of XU in their professional lives. Lastly, waiting for delayed appointments, working without being on salary until being appointed, willingness to continue teaching after retirement, having difficulty in breaking off professional links with the university even after retirement are regarded as ordinary, which shows the extent of institutional affinity for XU.

5.2.2. English Language Teacher Educators' Professional Roles

English language teacher educators as academics are expected to fulfill certain roles that can be grouped as teacher, researcher and service provider. It is intended to provide an answer to the particular research question below with the analysis of interviews course observations presented in this section:

2.2. How do English language teacher educators fulfill their professional roles?

Having presented the pathways, consisting of their educational and professional histories, significant others, professional self-views and impact of XU, that English language teacher educators took to become academics in XU, their practices of teaching, research and service will be presented in the following section.

5.2.2.1. English Language Teacher Educators in Teaching

This sub-section aims to provide a detailed understanding of the English language teacher educators' teacher roles. The participants adopt and enact certain pedagogies in their personal teaching practices. How they implement those in classes as well as

their core values in teaching matter for a better understanding of their professional identities. The pedagogies they enact in teacher roles are analyzed in four categories: approach to and prior experience in teaching, English language teacher competencies, teaching philosophies, and lastly choice of instructional materials.

5.2.2.1.1. Approach to and Prior Experience in Teaching

As stated in the previous section, TE1, TE4 and TE5 are English language teacher educators with PhD degrees and work in the position of 'lecturer'. It is a non-tenure track position and officially requires solely teaching at undergraduate and graduate levels without official expectations of research. TE2 and TE3, however, hold tenured and tenure-track positions respectively, and are responsible from both teaching and research. Therefore, they all teach pre-service teachers in the ELT program as a requirement of their positions. Moreover, teaching is a practice that the participants have been engaged with even before their careers in academia. They all state that they enjoy and like teaching and the mission they undertake through teaching is highly important. The fact that they view teaching as a meaningful and important work helps them become committed to their teacher identities.

Moreover, they all believe that their prior teaching experiences have contributed to their current practices to a considerable extent. For instance, TE1 stresses that she frequently refers to her teaching experience with young learners when giving T*eaching English to Young Learners* course, believing that her prior experience as an English teacher of young learners "has given [her] a lot". As a result of direct observation of and practice with young learners, she can find opportunities to transfer her experiences to her students who are also prospective English language teachers. Moreover, I also had a chance to observe TE1 for a period of four weeks in *English Language Testing and Evaluation* course she offered to senior students (see the results of 3rd research question for a detailed description of the course conduct and content). When she was teaching 'testing writing skill' in this course, I observed that she brought to the classroom some very popular test types specifically designed by the assessment unit of Cambridge University for young learners of English. While they were analyzing the content and objectives of the tests, she referred to her teaching experience in a private primary school. She went over the test items and objectives

designed for a particular level of students and then compared what she used to teach her students at the same level.

Additionally, she gave many examples of testing and assessment both from the ELT program, TEFL program, school of foreign languages in XU whose dynamics and contexts the students were familiar with. In order to illustrate how to maintain 'content validity', she brought a course outline for an English course offered in XU. She showed the course description and objectives to the students and underlined that assessment in this course should include all four skills in an integrated way so that it could be consistent with the objectives. In another lesson, she talked about a variety of techniques to maintain construct validity. Again, she referred to her previous teaching experience in the school of foreign languages and gave details about an established practice there. She told the students that the testing department makes the exams open to all teachers for some time before the midterm and final exams are given to the students so that all teachers could go over, analyze and give feedbacks about the exam questions to increase construct validity. Lastly, when she was introducing 'reliability of scoring in testing', for instance, she brought a sample paragraph to the classroom written by one of her students in the school of foreign languages. She also brought a sample rubric that she used for paragraph writing. Having analyzed the rubric all together, she asked the students to assume themselves as if they were instructors in the school of foreign languages; she wanted them to do inter-reliability check in their groups. Considering these, it can be concluded that TE1 skillfully integrates prior English teaching experiences to the courses she teaches in the teacher education program.

In line with TE1, TE2 also says that: "[previous experience as an English language teacher] has always contributed to me a lot. I liked being an [English] teacher very much; and I also like teaching". I observed TE2 for four weeks when she was giving *Practice Teaching* course, which is named as ELT Practicum II in the current undergraduate program (see the results of 3rd research question for a detailed description of the course conduct and content). In one of the lessons, two students did a presentation about classroom management. Thus, the classroom discussion was centered on this specific topic through which the students were exchanging both their own past experiences as K-12 students and their current experiences as student

teachers in the teaching practice school. TE2 also made references to her classes when she used to work as an English language teacher. She gave examples of classroom management problems she had undergone as a novice teacher; and how she had approached those problems. Additionally, the students were assigned with a task where they were presented with a case about a teacher's classroom management problem. The students were expected to come up with a solution to that problem with the support of theories from the literature. As TE2 later acknowledged, the problematic case she used for that assignment was her own experience as an English language teacher in the preparatory school she used to work at. Consequently, she made use of her previous experience of working as an English teacher not only in teaching but also in material preparation for student assessment. In the same vein, TE4, referring to her prior teaching, says:

> I see that it actually has returned as a gain in my own classroom practices. Because being able to develop many practical solutions not only at the theory or practical end; but also to really eliminate the connection between these two … tell me that it's a gain indeed. At the same time, such a teaching background and as a person having practical experience has had a very positive contribution in both directing and giving feedback to the students in the *Methodology*, *School Experience* and *Practice Teaching* courses I constantly give at the department. I hear these as feedbacks from the students, and this makes me very happy.

I did observations in *Language and Culture* course that TE4 taught for four weeks (see the results of 3rd research question for a detailed description of the course conduct and content). As part of an international project work integrated in this course, she gave the students enrolled in this course a single training session about how to give feedback on an online platform. She frequently underlined and reminded her students of important aspects of giving feedback during the lessons. As she already had experience of teaching English to young adults, she told them what worked and failed when giving feedback and showed strategies she used to prefer to give feedback to her previous students. In order to model her students and check how they were doing, TE4 herself gave regular feedback on her own students' practices of giving feedback.

Similarly, TE5 admits that: "I think that my teaching English experience so far and that I worked in different institutions have fostered [being teacher educator] a lot". I observed TE5 for four weeks when she was teaching *Approaches to English Language*

Teaching course (see the results of 3rd research question for a detailed description of the course conduct and content). While TE5 was teaching chain drilling as a technique in Audiolingual Method, she referred to her teaching English experience in the English preparatory class. She modelled a drill where she said her own name and a fruit she liked. The student next to her repeated the information TE5 gave and said her own name and something she liked. In other words, each student repeated the former students' sentences before saying their own. She told the students how she used this chain drill as an icebreaker activity in the very first week of the semester, and suggested them use it in future.

The participants' previous teaching experience is of use not only in their teaching practices but also for research purposes. TE3 describes how useful her prior teaching experience is for her: "I did a comparative study in my PhD thesis. I mean, I was able to make that comparison more easily based on my teaching experience and knowledge". Obviously, factors ranging from having knowledge of pedagogy and opportunity to practice this knowledge in other contexts, to being knowledgeable about teacher-learner relationships and how learners learn help the participants have a smooth transition into pre-service teaching that requires a different content knowledge than that of their previous experiences.

Participants frequently refer to their previous teaching contexts (i.e., the school and/or classroom environment), learner profiles, how learning and teaching take place in classrooms and etc. as vivid examples to set the scene for pre-service English language teachers so that they can support English language learning and teaching theories with experiential knowledge. They also make use of successful teaching strategies they used in their previous contexts such as guiding students through their learning process and providing effective feedback to them by moving those strategies to their current classes. Thus, the fact that they like to fulfill their teacher roles and make use of prior experience enable the participants to adopt a teacher identity in academia willingly and with ease. Lastly, their experience, providing a knowledge base for their research studies, can be considered as a benefit for their researcher identity as well.

5.2.2.1.2. English Language Teacher Competencies

Competencies are the collection of professional knowledge and skills that pre-service English language teachers are expected to develop and adopt throughout their undergraduate education. ELT programs have already been supplied with a national framework of teacher competencies prepared by MoNE, consisting of three main areas: professional knowledge, professional skills, and attitudes and values. Additionally, CoHE makes a classification of courses given at ELT undergraduate level as subject matter knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge and world knowledge, each having a certain weight in the program. Largely based on the framework of MoNE and the classification of CoHE, the participants in the study have determined their responsibilities towards and expectations from pre-service English language teachers. On the other hand, there are other personal and professional values that the participants give importance to and shape their teaching practices accordingly.

In the first place, the participants both explicitly and implicitly make reference to CoHE course classifications and general teaching competencies by MoNE when they talk about their teaching practices. They believe that their students need to develop both subject matter knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge, and this is their responsibility being fulfilled through the courses they teach. For instance, TE4 states that: "Teacher competencies shared by MoNE in detail are very important for us". Moreover, TE1 speaks of competencies in such terms:

> Since CoHE divides it into three, let me divide it into three and tell you. [The students] should be good in knowledge, good in language, have some world knowledge … knowing the target of the material they have prepared in the classroom, knowing the purpose of the lesson, designing assessment accordingly are good things, of course.

Similar to TE1, TE5 touches upon the importance of gaining professional knowledge and language skills. On the other hand, she puts an additional emphasis on having a critical stance. In other words, she believes that developing a critical approach is an integral part of the overall teacher competencies. She also mentions the necessity of pushing students' limits and helping them become intellectual students and teachers in future who are sensitive to the goings-on in their immediate or wider environments.

Therefore, in addition to subject matter knowledge, she intentionally brings up trend topics or hot-button issues to discuss in the classroom:

> I think students should be forced. Their minds are empty. They spend [their time] on *Twitter* or whatever. Emrah Serbes, you know, something had happened. Turkey was being shaken with that news at that moment. No one in the class knew that. I said the author of *Behzat Ç*. There was just a blank stare. I said 'Do you and I live in the same country?' While the country was being shaken with that news, they didn't know who he was, what it was …So, I don't know how they spend their time. Too much emptiness, too much consumption … So, I shook them, maybe it's necessary to take [them] out of there and channel somewhere.

In *Approaches to English Language Teaching* course, I observed that TE5 started one of the classes by informing the students about one of her former student's plan to establish a library in a village school, and encouraged them to contribute to his plan by donating books. Next time, she welcomed a senior student who informed the students about a project for which they were looking for new members. The aim of the project was to match pre-service teachers who wanted to provide free tutoring with children who were in need of academic support. TE5 told the students that they could participate in the project not only to do community service but also to practice ELT techniques and methods they had been learning in the course. At the beginning of another lesson, she invited the students to a meeting that was going to be held by the critical pedagogy reading group about transformation of the teaching profession; and she also encouraged the students to attend the Teacher's Day event as future teachers which was going to be organized by the faculty of education. The observations show that TE5 tries to create opportunities for students to enable them to realize and fulfill their true potential to become fully fledged teachers who are both morally and professionally responsible to their own students as well as their wider environments.

The necessity of personal and professional development of pre-service English language teachers is another point that was brought to the fore by the participants. They do not directly associate personal and professional development with MoNE's competencies framework, though it is included in it. Instead, they underline that they personally attribute high importance to it. TE3 believes that: "Personal and professional development of [pre-service teachers] is very important because they will raise the next generations. Eventually, they will become teachers. I'm one of those

who think teachers should follow the developments in the field". TE4 also maintains that the value of continuous professional development should be conveyed to pre-service English language teachers, and she tells how she tries to create a sense of professional development in her student:

> For instance, there is *Teaching Skills* course that I give. Within the scope of this course, I required students to attend a conference, experience this practice-based environment face-to-face … or many webinars are hold. Attending webinars and writing a reflection report on them is also okay.

In line with her example, she frequently informed the students in *Language and Culture* course about academic events that can contribute to their professional learning and development process. For instance, she invited the students to a webinar on inclusive education, saying that: "We also need to be familiar with how to insert this inclusive aspect into our teaching as well". Another week, she informed them about another webinar on online teaching, giving feedback and Web 2.0 tools. She also suggested the student be aware of opportunities for professional development when they become teachers. She said: "There are some virtual exchange fairs. As teachers, you can get partners to work together. Also, there are different Erasmus projects to take part in. Try to incorporate them in your work". In this way, she underlined that professional development is an ongoing process that requires commitment and focus on opportunities throughout their teaching careers.

Another competency that both TE3 and TE4 attach particular importance to is that pre-service English language teachers should be aware of their future students' needs. While TE3 implies that these student needs are basically related to cognitive skills, TE4 regards both cognitive and affective skills. TE3 puts that pre-service teachers need to develop skills "to understand the needs of the group they teach and diagnose [the need] and come up with solutions". She believes that knowing student profile and addressing their needs can be achieved with the help of research-based teaching. TE4 also mentions:

> … on the dimension of humanist education, they take care of their students, get to know them closely… are all important to me. At the same time, the fact that students shape all their theoretical knowledge according to the class profile they teach, that is, having a command of differentiated classroom strategies is crucial.

It is apparent that TE4 tries to teach her own students to be teachers who cater to students' different learning styles as well as emotional needs. Contrary to TE3 and TE4 who emphasize that the pre-service English language teachers need to know their future students' needs, TE2 prioritizes that the pre-service English teachers should first and foremost know the program they are enrolled in and their own capabilities and dispositions: "I first would like the students here to graduate with an awareness of the intellectual richness in here … they shouldn't graduate unaware of how far that [ELT program] extends, and I make an effort for that". She thinks that the ELT program provides the students with an opportunity to work or further study in other related areas. In line with her aim, she tries to guide her students when an opportunity arises in her courses:

> At the beginning of each semester, whatever course I teach, I give a speech about what they can do after graduating from here… For example, in *Language Acquisition* course, the course I teach most often, I always underline the thing in that course: 'You can study epistemology setting out from here. You can study developmental psychology setting out from here. You can study clinical linguistics setting out from here.' Because my students are very young, they are students and unaware.

In line with her statements in the interview, TE2 touched upon this issue in *Practice Teaching* course as well. She asked the students how many of them were planning to work as teachers. Most of them raised their hands, a few of them seemed hesitant, and the others did not say anything. She asked the students who told that they were planning to work as teachers where they were going to work. Most of them said that they would like to work for MoNE, and they were studying for KPSS, two of them said that they were planning to work in private schools. Then she asked for the plans of the rest of the students. They were usually planning to apply to a master's program in ELT, linguistics, English language and literature. The students also asked for her suggestions. She said: "I'm happy you are sure about your interests. If you want to be a teacher, go for it. You can also do a master's when you are working as a teacher. But you have different opportunities". She then answered the students' questions about her own path after graduation; mentioned previous graduates' career trajectories, suggested them study by integrating different disciplines such as psychology, philosophy, and language; and take their time to decide.

TE4 also takes on a guide role when trying to create opportunities in her classes to help her students adopt "fundamental values" of teaching such as being fair, being flexible, and having a growth mindset as she believes that they are the bare necessities of teachers of the 21st century. In the same course where I observed TE4, she asked the students whether they were familiar with the concepts of 'growth and fixed mindsets. She gave quick definitions of the concepts and told them they need to have growth mindsets as teachers saying that: "Developing growth mindset early on from kindergarten may prepare us to be non-judgmental when we become adults". She also added that she had a session with senior students about how to facilitate growth mindset in K-12 schools and decided to share the materials and lesson plans with the students taking *Language and Culture* course. Additionally, she repeatedly underlines the importance of feedback skills for teachers in the interview:

> As a role-model, just I try to practice what I teach; that is, I try to reflect what I say to the students in my own classroom practices, at the same time, in my behaviors and communication with them as a teacher educator. I integrate a study I conduct on My Schools Network Blended Learning Environment in my course. The students are required to give written feedback to K-12 students from many different countries around the world through an online platform. In this project, I also give them training on how to give feedback, namely written feedback… I also try to give constructive feedback in the way I show them.

The excerpt above also demonstrates the fact that TE4 is aware of the fact that she not only teaches but also models the way she teaches. Therefore, she tries to model good teaching practices. In other words, she aims to create opportunities through which pre-service teachers can model her practices and infer what to do and how to do when they start teaching. Last but not least, TE1, who believe that students should have subject matter knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge as well as world knowledge, also highlights two core values of a teacher:

> I think the first condition of being a teacher is to be a good person ... The good person thing in my mind is of the quality who won't waste the time of the student, and I view it as a person who will serve this society, or the world, or this universe in their profession in some way. I see the second thing as showing respect to the profession.

The fact that English language teachers need to be good persons to be good teachers and cherish their profession by showing respect matters to TE1 most. Moreover, she

implies English language teacher educators' being powerful role-models for their own students. She, referring to "respect to profession" says: "I like it when they say: "She's a good professor. I can take on such a characteristic of her". This makes me happy". Without undervaluing the need for professional and pedagogical knowledge base, she gives out the message that it's also the moral values of being a teacher that matter.

As a result, TE1 and TE4 make it explicit in the interviews that they intentionally model not only professional values (e.g., respect to the profession) but also pedagogical decisions and practices (e.g., how to give feedback). This is evident in the course observations as well. For instance, TE1 modeled how to score student assignments or exams referring to the pre-service teachers' assignments and midterm papers in *English Language Testing and Assessment* course. Moreover, she explicitly explained her teaching behavior while modelling. More specifically, she shared the rubrics she used for scoring and explained how she adapted or designed them for scoring assignments or what exactly she did to achieve interrater reliability while scoring their exams. In the same vein, it can be concluded that TE5 also practiced modelling in her *Approaches to English Language Teaching* course. At times, she asked the pre-service teachers to take on the role of primary or secondary school students in the short activities where she acted as an English teacher. In this way, she created opportunities to implement some of the techniques that she taught in the course. Also, she carried out some activities with the students as if they were students in a language class. To set an example, she did a dictation activity when teaching Direct Method, worked on tongue twisters and several types of drills when covering Audiolingual Method. She also modelled teaching at the pre-service teachers' own level. For instance, in one of the observed classes, she first started a whole class discussion, and then turned it into a debate activity to model how some techniques of Communicative Language Teaching can be implemented in a language class. The students took on the role of a professor trying to revise the undergraduate ELT program. Similar to TE1, she usually explicitly explained her teaching behavior while modelling. Given all, some of their teaching practices seem to be in line with congruent teaching.

Moreover, it is obvious from the course observations that all teacher educators widely use technology, digital applications and tools in their teaching. Although they did not

mention in the interviews that they expect the pre-service teachers to develop digital competencies, it is obvious from the observations that they also model teaching through technology and increase the students' awareness of digital pedagogy. To conclude, although modelling can occur between any student-teacher relationship in different contexts and disciplines, it is perfectly possible in a professional relationship between a teacher educator and pre-service teacher considering that pre-service teachers often start to build their careers through apprenticeship of observation. TE1 and TE4 are highly aware of such a potential as they are teacher educators deeply rooted in and knowledgeable about teacher education pedagogy. From a different perspective but in line with her statements, TE2 also can be considered as a model for the pre-service teachers. Both the course observations and interview results show that she cares about professional well-being and career choice of the students. While she tries to guide them to be open to opportunities and increase their agency to pursue another profession or job if they do not feel satisfied with teaching English, she also mentions her own career trajectory. She answers the questions posed by the students and tell them a variety of possibilities so that they can find their own ways and interests as she did. In this way, she models her passion for her discipline as well as how she found her way out for a more fulfilling career.

5.2.2.1.3. Teaching Philosophies: "Silent Mentors"

The participants in the study give a detailed account of theoretical grounds on which they build up their teaching practices. It is of importance that they are aware of their own pedagogies and why they act in certain manners to be able to attribute meaning to their teacher roles and professional identities.

TE1 touches upon many issues that inform her teaching practices in the classroom. To begin with, she thinks that knowledge itself is of great importance. Believing that theory and practice are in a complementary relationship as opposed to the common belief that they are in clash. Therefore, she says: "Every teacher, every person can enter classroom and do some things [but] if there is theoretical knowledge, it is easier to make sense of practical knowledge." In relation with this issue, she refers to theoretical approaches of learning saying that:

> I think eclectic is reasonable for everything. Each theory has its good and wrong sides … but if I have to choose one, I think it's Vygotsky. Zone of proximal development, other things, I think it's very successful.

Although she favors eclectic approach, social constructivism makes a better sense over the other approaches in general. Moreover, she believes that apart from her own teaching philosophy, the most crucial factor affecting student learning is their motivation in deed. In *English Language Testing and Assessment* course, I observed that she taught the content in a way that fully supported social learning as she stated in the interview. First of all, she preferred a semi-circle desk arrangement through which the students could see and attend each other effortlessly when she was lecturing and posing questions to them. Moreover, pair and group works were typical of her classes. For instance, the students, in pairs, analyzed the differences between levels in three bands in CEFR. As for group work activities, in order to introduce the stages of test development, she grouped the students and requested each group to put the papers indicating the stages of test development into the correct order by discussing. She also showed the students a set of questions related to the topic and asked them to discuss each question with their group members. After some time, one student in each group moved to the next group and reported their previous discussion to the new group members to bring a new perspective to the group. At the end of the discussion, she asked for individual opinions from students.

In another lesson, she put the students in groups with a grouping technique before she taught five principles of language testing in detail. She assigned a number from one to five to every student, and then made students who had the same number come together in a group. Then she assigned a particular validity type to each group and asked them to find as much information as possible in five minutes about the assigned type of validity by using their course books and google search. In the groups, the students were renumbered from one to five again. At the end of five minutes, the students who shared the same numbers across groups come together to form new groups and exchanged what they had learned with their new group members. Whenever there was a group work, TE1 visited groups and monitored the activity.

In the same vein, TE4 explicitly mentions Vygotsky's social constructivism as the most influential theory that has shaped her teaching. Relying on the fact that negotiation is the basis of learning, she says:

> The person actually goes for constructing knowledge and at the same time configuring the knowledge through interaction. Therefore, the learning process has both cognitive and socio-cultural as well as affective components. I think that I'm a teacher educator who has really embraced this. Because I reflect this on my classroom practices. I have an interactive style of teaching students and the input from them is very important. Vygotsky also argues that knowledge is co-created. This co-creation processes are extremely important in the approach I use in lessons.

In *Language and Culture* course, I observed how "co-creation of knowledge" and "interactive style of teaching" took place. As it was an online course, TE4 used breakout rooms available in the online communication platform almost in all lessons to promote interactivity and interaction among the students. In the first lesson I observed, one student told TE4 that he enjoyed discussing in breakout rooms very much after they completed a discussion activity. He suggested her do it more frequently. TE4 replied him saying that she also liked interactivity in her course sessions. In the next lesson, she put the students into groups so that they could categorize some items into frameworks of culture. After they left the breakout rooms, TE4 conducted a whole class discussion. In another lesson, she requested the students to discuss Turkish and Mexican cultures in the breakout rooms referring to a particular model of culture and then uncover limitations of the model with a critical view. In the meantime, she visited the groups to check how the students were carrying out discussions in breakout rooms. Then, through the end of another lesson, TE4 wanted to wrap up the topic and learn the students' take aways from the lesson. She said: "I see that some of you were quite active in the discussion but some of you did not speak up. So, I would like to give you a chance to work in small groups to come up with some key words". It is obvious that she would like to encourage the students who did not participate in the whole class discussion, and therefore provided them with a safer and smaller cite where they could interact with each other.

Similar to TE4's emphasis on the interactive nature of her teaching and co-creation of knowledge with students, TE2 mentions the place that co-creation of knowledge holds in her classes:

> By doing something together with the student, it is not as if you're transmitting knowledge to the student, but as if we discover it together. Even if I transfer knowledge, every time I become more amazed; I'm genuinely surprised by how we do that, how a child learns a language. I get surprised over and over by what I teach. So the thing that makes me happy is to discover that thing together with the student in the learning process and to feel amazed from what you have discovered.

Obviously, she is an active agent in students' learning process, not only as a co-learner contributing to the learning process but also as a facilitator that triggers the curiosity of students about their own learning processes. She says that she aims: "… to always invite [the students] to think about this process of learning; trying to make them gain a meta-perspective of how they learn independent of what they learn and how they process what they learn". In line with her philosophy, she almost never lectured in the observed classes. Each week, the students in pairs did presentations on particular topics, and posed discussion questions to their peers. TE2 sat together with the students to listen to the presenters, to guide their presentation when necessary, to elaborate more on some questions and certain points they brought up. It seemed that the she preferred not to dominate the lessons since she sat among the students as if she was one of them, and encouraged the students to participate in the discussion rather than herself talking all the time. As the classroom size was around 10, each student had a chance to receive one-on-one attention from both the teacher and their peers. In other words, the whole class seemed like a small and interacting community itself. Additionally, she implicitly underlined that she was not the ultimate authority in the class as she told the students that they would all learn from each other's experiences.

While TE2's philosophy emerges from social constructivist theory to a great extent; TE3 draws on her experience as a PhD student abroad and the academic environment she works in to construct her philosophy: "I think questioning and research are very important. Scientific and rational approach. I think that there is no absolute truth and that all kinds of knowledge can be, should actually be negotiated in university". She states that she adopted that philosophy through experience within years. While TE3 emphasizes overall thinking and questioning skills, TE5 particularly draws attention to critical thinking skills. TE5 highlights that her philosophy in general is based on the fact that teachers should have critical thinking skills: "I want them to problematize the issues on the agenda". In *Approaches to English Language Teaching course*, she

usually told the students to take a critical stance towards the approaches and methods they covered. For instance, she brought a cardboard game to the classroom as an activity that could be used in Communicative Language Teaching. After the students played the game in groups, she requested them to identify the weaknesses of the activity. In another lesson, she asked the students to criticize Total Physical Response and Content Based Language Learning. In this way, she provided the students with opportunities to take a critical stance towards the technical aspects of topics covered in the lesson.

5.2.2.1.4. Instructional Materials

Instructional materials the participants use in teaching are an indicator of how they enact their pedagogies. They prefer to use ready-made course books, book chapters, scientific articles or other printed or audiovisual aids that they adapt according to the course objectives. Depending on the nature of the material, they may be followed throughout the semester such as course books, be relevant to a single week's topic such as an article, or be prepared or adapted only for an activity taking place during the lesson.

The common point of materials that they bring to the classroom or suggest their students read or watch are that they are being up-to-date. TE2 states that she usually teaches linguistics and practicum courses. Yet, as practicum courses are not in direct relation to her expertise, she, like many other professors teaching practicum courses, may prefer to use ready-made tasks that pre-service teacher educators are assigned with every week to do observations in teaching practice schools. TE2, on the other hand, decides on the type of materials in linguistics courses she teaches on her own initiative: "So, I make sure they're up-to-date. I make a point of including the latest research studies. So, research from 10 years ago, a lot of things aren't valid today, because it's a field changing every day".

TE3 similarly emphasizes that she includes up-to-date studies: "I pay attention to the fact that they are up-to-date studies; I try to follow new developments, the latest publications". She mostly offers language courses and in line with the topics and objectives of her courses, she prefers: "… materials that people can analyze,

synthesize or approach critically, rather than memorization." In *Oral Expression and Public Speaking* course, she used a variety of reading and mostly listening materials. For instance, the students got a short piece of reading text to discuss the facts and lies in the text; they watched *TED* talks about happiness and intercultural experiences; they listened to audio recordings on a variety of issues including the lives of famous figures, and city tours. They also played board games twice in the classroom. All the materials TE3 used acted as a means to reinforce the students' speaking skills in English.

Likewise, TE4 states that she gives importance up-to-date materials as a result of her interest in catching up with the trends in the field. She also underlines the fact the materials provide basis for her in-class teaching practices. In other words, she draws on electronic articles as course materials and ask students to generate questions so that she can conduct in-class discussions within the framework of their questions. Moreover, drawing on the requirements of diverse learner profiles, TE4 underlines that she integrates audiovisual materials in her lessons as well as printed or electronic articles rather than a single course book. She says:

> Because now we are faced with a diverse learner profile that is increasing day by day; that is, our teacher candidate profile in the faculty is also changing. So, a single book, which I see that it sometimes doesn't overlap with the Turkish context, since most of the books in this field are published in America or Europe. For example, let's say examples from that [book], sometimes there are examples incompatible with the Turkish context, or there is research focused on the student profile there. So, I think the more resources we include, the broader perspective we'll provide the students… And I use not only printed materials but also audiovisual ones.

In *Language and Culture* course, she suggested plenty of articles and book chapters for each week in the course outline with the aim of providing the students with theoretical knowledge about the course content. In the same course, she touched upon the content they were going to cover and activities they were going to do at the beginning of each lesson. While she was talking about the activities, she told the students: "In order to be an effective teacher, you need to have a balance of printed and audiovisual material. If I bombard you with printed materials, that means I'm stealing from the quality or the effectiveness". In line with her statement, she also used video clips from several movies to activate the students' schemata about cultural issues she was planning to discuss in the lessons. She also used a variety of images taken

from newspapers to analyze gender bias in media. On the other hand, she used power point presentations to lecture only for a very limited extent. Last but not least, she was also aware of and an active user of digital tools and applications that can be used for instructional purposes. For instance, she used *Padlet* several times for the purposes of discussion. On another occasion, she benefited from *Mentimeter* through which the pre-service teachers created a word cloud about culture.

TE1, on the other hand, makes reference to one of her professors' drawing a distinction between job and profession, as an underlying principle that informs her material choice or preparation. She, as her professor told previously, believes that if a teacher considers teaching as a job looks for a material when the time comes, but if they view it as a profession, they ponder on anything they look at and then find ways to use them as a material in the classroom. Relying on this principle, she aims to find a "teaching point" in every material she intends to use:

> One day, there is a cartoon in *Penguen* … The child writes a letter to his teacher, and the teacher corrects and returns the whole letter. I think this was a great cartoon on what to consider when giving feedback. And well, I think that just fell into my lap, and I use it in the *Young Learners* course, in the assessment week about how to give feedback. And I use it like that: Years ago, when I was working at the primary school of [name of the school], a student of mine in the sixth grade wrote me such a letter, not a letter of love, but a female student expressing her liking. There are a million of mistakes in the letter. I give that letter in class to ask how you would give feedback to that student. And those in the class are trying hard to give feedback. Okay, but the student didn't write it as part of a lesson. The student [wrote it] as an extra, just to make the teacher happy, and the effect of this [material] wondrous. But I didn't set what the student did. Neither did I the other one. It fell into my lap by chance but the impact is huge. Is there teaching 'assessment'? Yes, there is. You prepare material for five hours for [teaching] feedback but it sometimes doesn't have that much effect.

With the example she provides, TE1 draws attention to the importance of creative skills in material choice or adaptation. She would like her students adopt her point of view on how to integrate materials in lessons and try to be a role-model by her in-class practices by basing her decisions on two criteria, which are that the material has a "teaching aspect" and is "of use to the students".

In *English Language Testing and Assessment* course, she used two coursebooks that highlighted technical and practical aspects of language testing and assessment as

primary sources. Apart from them, she used a wide variety of materials during lessons. For instance, she brought English course books to show how assessment was carried out in books. She used cartoons to add some humor to the topics; some authentic materials such as course outlines generated in the ELT department or rubrics used in the school of foreign languages in XU to assess speaking and writing skills; audiovisual materials such as a *TED* talk or a psychology experiment video to illustrate validity types in testing and assessment; a reading text on Thanksgiving through which the students analyzed various test techniques. Moreover, she is a skilled user and implementer of a variety of digital tools and applications. Apparently, she gives importance to learning about current technological developments that can be implemented in the classroom. She benefited from several digital tools including *Mentimeter, Kahoot* and *Socrative* during my observations and had an effective combination of digital pedagogy with content. For instance, she made use of *Mentimeter* to elicit the pre-service teachers' previous knowledge on CEFR. In addition to that, she used such digital tools as an in-class assessment material when she asked the students to take a short quiz on *Socrative*.

Materials that are of use to the students appears on TE5's agenda as well. TE5, on the other hand, maintains again a critical stance when providing students with materials useful for their language and pedagogical skills in addition to world knowledge. As her teaching philosophy is also based on teachers' being critical, she chooses materials accordingly. She tells how she uses materials as a means to provide not only professional knowledge but also critical view.

> [Through critical materials] I let them see the world differently, get rid of their taboos, break their prejudices... In the *Reading* class, I was choosing different topics. I don't know, I made them read something about Gezi Park; or there was child abuse on the agenda, I made them read that, I made them read something about March 8. That is, it goes beyond that language lesson as they were reading very different [topics]. We both learn vocabulary, talk and write about language and develop an awareness of world view… In ELT courses, I for example, make them read critical materials. Let's say in *Materials* course, there's this article on the exclusion of LGBTs in materials, or gender roles in ELT textbooks, sexism, racism, whatever. How the material is developed, how it is adapted etc… I'm doing these basic things, I need to do them, they need to know it because just knowing about critical isn't enough. I teach them and I put that on top of them.

In *Approaches to English Language Teaching* course, she used course books and chapters focusing on technical aspects of teaching. Although they were the primary source, there were also articles that brought a more critical stance to approaches and methods. Additionally, she frequently brought materials into the classroom to illustrate the techniques she taught. For instance, she used flashcards and realia to model some techniques, *Youtube* videos showing the implantation of some methods and teaching nursery rhymes, English course books to analyze techniques and methods used in them. The only reading text that the students got was for the purpose of illustrating authentic materials. It was a piece from a newspaper about an ill-treated dog.

5.2.2.2. English Language Teacher Educators in Research

As one might expect, teacher educators carry out scientific research studies as they pursue a career in academia. Therefore, this sub-section presents a detailed understanding of the English language teacher educators' researcher roles. How they carry out research and their related practices as researchers carry a considerable importance for a better understanding of their professional identities. Their researcher roles are analyzed in three categories: research projects, funding for scientific activities and academic network.

5.2.2.2.1. Research Projects: Getting through Red Tape

The English language teacher educators who are holders of tenured and tenure-track positions in this study are officially expected to take on a researcher role by conducting research and getting their work published through academic journals and publishers. On the other hand, the full-time lecturers in the study, as holders of non-tenure track positions, are not officially expected to do research as their recruitments are based on teaching. Still, not only their own accounts but also their academic profiles which are open to public and provided by XU's researcher information system reveal that they have conducted research studies and projects in addition to having academic publications published through national and international indexes and publishers. TE4 emphasizes that she actively takes part in research activities, and reveals the intrusive

messages sent by the administration or colleagues in past regarding non-tenure track faculty's researcher role:

> There was a professor who said we had been recruited only to teach, who had such an approach in the past… not to me, another lecturer told me [that], but for example, I conduct many projects as a lecturer. After all, these are expected. So, maybe it's not in your job description but right now there is such a situation. For example, you're expected to contribute to the added value of this department. So, anyhow you cannot exist in this department without doing anything.

Despite a tenured colleague's comment implying that their job is not to do research, rather teach, TE4 clearly feels that full-time lecturers are also expected to contribute to research activities carried out and high-impact publications produced in XU. The fact that they can also apply to academic performance awards given for their research related activities and to academic development program designed for newly recruited academic staff with the aim of introducing them to research and academic network opportunities can be viewed as an implicit message sent by the university administration to full-time lecturers to encourage them to do research. As a result, they take on a researcher role in addition to teacher role.

All participants, regardless of their positions, have taken part in small-scale university-funded research projects or large-scale international research projects. Both TE4 and TE2 state that they are heavily busy with project works they carry out at the national and international levels. On the other hand, they indicate that they have hard times resulting from bureaucratic red tape of project works. For instance, TE2 says:

> Here, we have to do everything by ourselves. While I was doing a project at [name of the university], I wasn't doing anything about the project budget. Nothing. I was saying I was going to get something, and they were preparing all the documents, everything. The university had an office that dealt with only this work. We also have such an office here but they don't do that. Therefore, the professors here have to deal with paperwork or try to figure out the law, dealing with what kind of a trouble they will experience and where they can make a mistake. And because we can't learn it, we constantly pay penalties. A professor doing this [project] is being constantly punished financially, sentimentally, and time-wise. In order to do science, I need a little state of mind, right? You're dealing with lots of stuff, paperwork, entering [information] to MYS [expense management system].

TE2 reveals how she experiences a friction between financial and bureaucratic management of the projects and academic research. Her account shows that carrying our research has not only become a burdensome task but also consumed her in many ways. In the same vein, TE4 refers to the same financial and bureaucratic problems she experiences. She states that "organic connection" of the project staff to the university that the project is conducted in is a problem they experience in a EU project she coordinates. This problem leads to difficulty in financing project staff's expenditures even if they are graduate students in XU. She highlights that such problems in research "creates some constraints and limitations on the healthy progress of the processes".

TE2 also underlines that XU should provide the academics with necessary guidance and help rather than creating an environment that makes doing research more challenging: "My only motivation is that there is grant for those children [her advisees]. If there was no grant, I wouldn't do any projects because whenever I did a project, I dug into my own pocket". In addition to problems arising from institutional bureaucracy, the participants reveal how they have difficulty in acting within the usual constraints of MoNE to do research. For instance, TE3 puts emphasis on the necessity of increasing research studies based on university and K-12 school collaboration, and complains about the difficulty of that:

> Because teachers are also closed to research. For example, even when taking students for this practice teaching, it is difficult for us to enter the classrooms. It's much harder to get into for doing research. Such projects should definitely be carried out but these are not things to be done individually.

She also implies that not only MoNE bureaucracy but also school teachers' reluctance to cooperate with teacher educators make her feel powerless to conduct an individual research study or project in these sites. Therefore, she underlines the importance of researcher collaboration to come through such challenges. Along the lines of TE3, TE4 draws attention to challenges of collecting data in K-12 classrooms. As part of her research project, they need to enter the classrooms and record pre-service teachers' teaching sessions. However, bureaucratic constraints become a source of problem for doing research: "While the teachers at school, who I worked with for years, allowed this [video recording], when it was time to get an official permission, we faced terrible

obstacles". This shows the difficulty she experienced in getting official permission to collect data. TE4 also draws attention to the administrations of private K-12 schools that may turn out to be more of a hindrance than support. As face-to-face lessons were changed to online classes at the beginning of Covid-19 outbreak, TE4 asks for permission to continue collecting data in online classes; however, she happens to find an unwilling school administration:

> Within the scope of Covid-19, we wanted to take this study to an online platform but the online dimension wasn't accepted. We were prevented from communicating with the students, or from carrying out the project upon being told that it was on the school's own initiative. In summary, it's not easy to work with private schools.

TE5 also mentions problems of getting official permission from MoNE particularly with respect to research topic. Although she has not had such an application for official permission, she is informed about other academics' experiences: "For example, I know that many studies on Syrians can't get permission from [Ministry of] National Education. It's written for permission, it's returned. It's written for permission for a research project on inclusive education, it's refused". Due to controversial issues in the politics of the country, it seems that some research topics may be viewed as sensitive by MoNE, and such topics come under close scrutiny often resulting in either complete rejection or requests for methodological or topical revisions. To conclude, English language teacher educators face a variety of bureaucratic difficulties ranging from the university itself to K-12 schools and MoNE, which is a demotivating experience that consumes the participants' time, motivation and energy.

5.2.2.2.2. Funding for Scientific Activities: "There is No Money to Sit and Think"

Regardless of their scale, scientific research projects conducted by academics usually depend on grants over which they compete. The case applies to the English language teacher educators in the study as they also apply to public institutions or other organizations where their research proposals are evaluated by a group of experts. Relying on their experiences, the participants heavily discuss the drawbacks of social sciences and how their scientific field is in a disadvantaged position compared to natural science and engineering. TE3 says: "By its structure, that is, because more labs

and more technical materials are used in the field of natural sciences, and it has a bigger dimension of research and development, they get more [financial] support". TE5 also compares the activities undertaken both in natural and social sciences, and highlights the links between natural sciences and the market:

> [academics in natural sciences] take part in projects with very high budgets, produce market-oriented knowledge through industry-university collaboration, for example. They produce knowledge for the use of the market, use of a company, and receive a lot of funds there; or the state supports them … Social sciences, on the other hand, produce so-called knowledge that is not directly useful to anyone; or it may even be producing dangerous knowledge causing questioning of some things. You're punished even more for producing knowledge for the public good, knowledge that has no use value in the market, that won't increase somebody's profit more ... My topic was about multiculturalism; they didn't give me the scholarship because it means they see it as a threat. Maybe it wasn't because of that but I take it as that.

TE5 remarks how academics in natural sciences particularly have the drop on academics in social sciences regarding access to research funds. For her, if it is the status quo in question, then it becomes even more difficult to get financial support regardless of scientific field. In the same vein, TE2 discusses the disadvantaged position of social sciences:

> First of all, we live in a country where social sciences are not perceived as science… Funds generally go to engineering and basic sciences. So, this mindset also affects funds. For example, let's say cancer research comes to you, and suppose that something about teacher education. [Funding committee] thinks that cancer research is more important, so mindset is like that, that kind of mindset. However, teacher education is just as important as cancer. For example, when you say that you'll do research on philosophy, there is no one there to fund you. There is a point of view like "What are you going to do? How are you going to use this fund sitting at the table?" Money always goes to applied things, there is no money to sit and think.

Complaining about the fact that the prioritization of natural sciences and engineering is deeply entrenched in academic mindset globally, the participants think that XU is not safe from this mindset and is dominated by basic sciences and engineering. In the same vein, TE4 grouses about XU's policies related to distribution of funds: "They [engineering departments] already have serious resources as they're linked to private sector. There's a resource they create themselves but unfortunately, a uniform strategy is followed regarding support by the university". While TE4 implies that portion of

financial support by the university may be rearranged for the benefit of departments of social sciences as engineering departments already create their own funds, TE1 believes that each department should be self-initiative to generate their own financial sources rather than expecting more support from the university or the state:

> In my opinion, every field needs to create something [source] of income for itself, and we shouldn't expect everything from the university and the state at this point. So, if the department of history can't create it but wants to use the resource created by the engineering department, then I ask a question there, if it's normal to use it.

Contrary to other participants, TE1 thinks that there are enough funding resources both at the university and national/international levels to be financially supported. She further states: "So, you can get support, you can receive a fund from abroad, I also have a project, for example there is this and that, but I already view salary as the main support in a way". Despite the multiplicity, however, TE2 underlines how difficult it is to be awarded with those funds and talks about its competitive nature. Similarly, TE3 states that her experiences demonstrate that getting an international fund "is very difficult in our field", and therefore she firstly looks for funds at the national platform. Furthermore, she specifically refers to EU projects saying that: "If [countries like] Germany and England are involved, they take it serious, otherwise, it's very difficult for a project from Turkey [to get accepted], or that is what I've seen". The idea that applying from Turkey might be a hindrance to get acceptance from international organizations and agencies is also evident in TE5's accounts. She depicts the process of applying for a grant:

> I think there is a bias. If you don't write something very very good, I think that [your background] also has an effect on your refusal. I went to an interview to do research for post-doc and there was only one person left with me. They said to me: "You're from Turkey. What about your work permit? It will be issued with great difficulty … It takes long". Therefore, they didn't accept me. I think this is the reason they didn't accept me.

Yet, both TE3 and TE5 sound more positive when they refer to a special grant given by the university to each newly recruited academic staff within the framework of academic development program inherent in XU. Through this induction program for novice academics, the university administration aims to introduce the academics to both national and international opportunities of carrying out research as well as

providing a budget to support their initial research projects. TE3 emphasizes that the program serves the purpose very well, and she "made use of it very much" with the help of a budget which was made available to her after completing the program. Similarly, TE5 states that she could receive a modest amount of grant thanks to the program despite the budget restrictions going on. While the university introduces national and international funding opportunities and provides a budget for newly hired academic staff, they expect to have an on-going support from the university in terms of project application processes. TE2 says:

> Both TÜBİTAK and XU's research office hold meetings for professors, or rather for researchers about these projects … This is something positive but, for example, there should be more support in the writing process, and if you're applying to HORIZON or top things, TÜBİTAK provides you with support; a similar support should be available in the university for all funds. When does it happen? There is an office in Teknokent, for example if you give them money and hand on a certain part of the project to them, they provide such a service… While I was writing [a proposal for] Marie Curie in [name of the university], there were people who read the whole fund [proposal] and gave me feedback. There is no such thing here. I have to pay money to that company [the office in Teknokent] to make it happen.

Her experiences show that carrying out research supported by important funding programs may require the academics to extend their activities beyond university campuses to develop business-like relationships with companies with the aim of seeking and securing prestigious international fundings. Moreover, this happens with the encouragement of university administrations. In order to find a solution for the lack of feedback in proposal writing, she relies on her previous experience in another university and wants to implement that 'successful' practice in XU as well by means of Academic Writing Center, an office providing feedback for academics' and students' academic writings. Referring to the Center, she says: "There can be a group there for instance, and their only job becomes reading proposals. I say it every time though, whoever I talk to, it just doesn't happen".

Last but not least, the participants in the study look for financial aid not only to carry out research but also to disseminate its results in national or international academic meetings. In order to cover the expenses of attending a conference, the means that the participants usually use are applying to the Faculty of Education grant, using project budget if they carry out one at the time of conference, or pay out of their own money.

Applying to the Faculty of Education to receive a grant is the most common practice among the participants. However, their accounts reveal that the Faculty's grant is grossly inadequate. TE5 refers not only to the fact that they can apply only once a year but also to the limited amount given: "Well, you already have one chance a year in the Faculty within the university. There was one domestic and one abroad before. [Now only] one because of budget constraints".

TE4, similarly, talks about the financial problems of going abroad: "We need to go abroad once or twice a year for academic trips or to present papers. Budget allocated for them [by the faculty] is really limited". TE2 also underlines the amount of support they get: "And money they give, I don't know, it can barely afford half of the airfare at the moment". TE1, on the other hand, believes that it would be impossible to meet the demands of all faculty members with regard to more financial support. On the other hand, she says: "[The university administration] understands if I've attended the conference by the stamp in my passport. What I've presented there, whether I've been successful or unsuccessful, I mean, they're not interested in such things at all". She suggests that conference attendees can present their work in the university as well in return for the grant received. Consequently, she is more interested in whether the grant serves the purpose rather than the amount of the grant.

5.2.2.2.3. Academic Network: Going to Eat Cookies?

Academic network is another point emerging from the participants' accounts regarding their professional activities in academia. TE4, for instance talks about the influence of network on research and professional career: "Well, the [research] studies we carry out with different colleagues and with different academic cultures abroad have a great contribution to us: creating a vision, contributing to international cooperation". She believes that having an academic network with colleagues abroad brings them professional benefits, and adds that she tries to create new networks especially by means of research projects. Despite TE4's positive attitude, TE5 sounds ambivalent about networking. She thinks that production and performance-oriented academia has led some academics to unethical practices. She says that they cite one another by means of "non-existing academic networks" in reality. Therefore, even if she does not reject the benefit it may bring, she sounds wary of working with others

for the purpose of research and publication: “They tell me that these things can’t be done alone but I don’t know either. I mean I don’t want to work with anyone unless there is somebody who I can work with in harmony”. Although she has networks through which she publishes book chapters and also issues periodicals, she prefers to be selective about the networks she builds up in order to avoid the highly instrumental nature of networking.

TE3 makes a comparison between academic network opportunities in Turkey and England: “[In England], there are more projects through which you can construct networks not only within England but also with joint works you can do in European Union and with America”. Despite the limited network opportunities in Turkey, she, on the other hand, underlines that XU aims to help newly recruited academic staff develop academic network by means of the academic development program. TE3 says that they got training in Cyprus within the framework of that program and depicts the aim of the program: “[The aim is to] help people there socialize more in that environment, have a talk with people from different departments. Maybe like preparing for a network that will be formed later. I think it’s really meaningful”. Believing that conducting research in collaborative partnership is of great importance for an academic career, she states that she utilizes the opportunities to create new networks as well as maintaining older ones:

> We attended many meetings abroad about how to write European Union projects or to build a network… because international area is about networking. Didn’t I give it a try? Of course, I’ve tried and I’ll try it. Because I’ve international connections as I studied abroad.

TE1 also thinks that the understanding of academic network is not as common in Turkey as it is abroad. Comparing current understanding of network and publication practices in academia with that of her old PhD student days, TE1 puts that there is a far cry between them:

> What I observed in America is that they immediately start working on publications in the very first year of master’s. Names are very important; network is very important. I think this network effect has come to Turkey recently. A [job] candidate came to us. While answering “Why should we hire you?””, he replied: “Because I have a very good network”. I first heard that there, and I said to myself: “Look, the man is coming with his network”. Well of course it may be true but I don’t know if it’s that much in Turkey.

The anecdote she told shows that membership of academic networks can be used as an aid for access to employment. Nevertheless, she believes that the graduate programs in the department were far from guiding them to be researchers with necessary skills for and understanding of getting research works published compared to today's practices let alone developing academic network skills. She highlights that such practices have recently started to be popular or to be viewed as a valuable asset of academic job candidates. On the basis of her experience abroad, she likens the environment of conferences in the States to a "jungle". She also mentions academic conferences as sites for developing academic networks: "[Name of the professor] used to say that here everyone goes to eat cookies. No, nobody goes to eat cookies there, everybody goes to meet each other". TE1 points up the fact that conferences in today's academe have turned out to be places where attendants aim to get the most from their participation by constructing new networks, and this has recently become a strategically important purpose of attending conferences in Turkey.

5.2.2.3. English Language Teacher Educators in Service

For teaching role, faculty members are informed about how many hours they have to teach weekly and they may determine course requirements such as exams and assignments based on the type of the course they teach. Similarly, for researcher role, they are also informed about what type of research activities and how many publications they need to get appointed or promoted. On the contrary, service emerges as another type of activity whose lines are not well drawn, though it is explicitly or implicitly expected by the university, faculty or department administrations as well as the students. Despite the less straightforward nature of service work, the participants in this study also take on various service commitments in addition to teacher and researcher roles. Their commitments are analyzed in two groups as internal and external service works.

5.2.2.3.1. Internal Service

In internal service, English language teacher educators are expected to serve their institutions, their discipline and students with the aim of carrying on academic and

administrative business. One particular activity common for all participants is attending administrative meetings held by the department. Considering that both faculties and departments function by means of meetings, their attendance is officially expected. In the meetings, they not only discuss topics of general academic and administrative concern but also take decisions. Moreover, there is flow of information between departmental and faculty level meetings. For instance, TE4 says that they discussed updated appointment and promotion criteria in one of their departmental meetings and also, they were informed more about the details "through the sharing of professors who had attended faculty or university senate meetings".

In those departmental meetings they also discuss curriculum changes and how to adapt those changes to the existing ELT program. TE5 describes this process: "We decide while the program changes. We meet up, we set up a commission and decide". Apart from meetings regarding curricular decisions, they additionally hold meetings for recruitment of new faculty members. TE2 states that: "We [set up] a department committee and watch [the candidates]. It's the same in every department. We watch, and for instance they give a presentation to us". At the end of the recruitment meetings, they discuss and vote for the final decision regarding the candidates' being hired. Moreover, they may also be invited to attend external meetings hold by various councils, commissions, institutions, or MoNE either to be informed about changes in academic issues or to transmit their expertise and knowledge on a particular topic. TE4 gives an example for such a meeting: "For example, I [attended] a CoHE meeting before these programs were renewed. From XU, from many faculties of education, many heads of departments attended. I attended as proxy". TE4's example brings up another service activity, which is serving as vice-chair. Not only TE4, but also TE1 and TE3 have an experience of working as vice-chair for different periods by providing assistance to the chair to ensure that the business in the department is carried out effectively or stand in when the chair is off duty. The participants state that they also serve as coordinators of particular units in the department. For instance, both TE1 and TE4 have experience in serving as 'practicum coordinator' with the aim of arranging pre-service teachers' training processes in K-12 schools. Similarly, TE2 holds an experience of serving as 'ELT coordinator' who is in charge of arranging academic and administrative matters related to ELT students.

Additionally, although undergraduate students enter the program through an exam based on Student Selection and Placement Center's central placement, graduate student recruitment in master's and PhD programs in ELT is the responsibility of the faculty members. The participants in the study also take part in this process of selection by taking turns in each academic year. For the selection of new graduate students, they form a commission through which they evaluate candidates' potential and performance in the interviews they hold. Furthermore, they may also take part in other commissions external to the department in the role of elected or appointed members. TE2 speaks of this as: "For instance, I take part in BAP [Scientific Research Projects] Commission. You're being appointed [to that duty]". Given this, service to the institution may not necessarily be on a voluntary basis since they, at times, are also appointed to a certain service or office.

In addition to their institutions, the participants serve for their discipline by contributing to field-specific knowledge production and dissemination on a voluntary basis. For instance, TE4 notes that she is currently engaged with "giving various webinars and [giving presentations as] as an invited speaker in conferences". Apart from that, TE3 highlights the importance of being a jury member for master's or PhD theses. She describes this role as:

> I try not to refuse anyone, none of my friends in that sense. This [invitation to attend thesis juries] doesn't only come from within XU. Of course, I also care much about the juries out of XU. I think it's very important to contribute to knowledge there and the development of individuals who will step into an academic career. I think that I myself, that is, all academics are responsible for that.

Obviously, TE3 serves as a member of various thesis juries. She also draws attention to another type of service to the discipline. She says that "being a reviewer, this is also very important to me" despite underlining that they have no gains for working as a reviewer for peer-reviewed academic journals.

Last but not least, service to students in various ways is another common practice for the participants. They state that their help ranges from guiding students with their academic concerns or through professional development to writing letters of

recommendation for a variety of applications. Moreover, they also provide academic advising for thesis writing. For instance, TE2 says:

> I would like to see a student one-on-one at least once every 15 days, that is, once a week if they actively write a thesis, and once in every 15 days if they aren't writing a thesis, that is if they haven't reached the thesis stage. I hold lab meetings, we hold seminars.

Thesis supervision is not the only form of service she provides to her students. She conducts extramural activities regularly when classes are in session: "We have group meetings going on for two years. [It consists] completely of voluntary students. After 17.30, until 19.00 or 19.30, we sit and talk on articles. Today, for instance we've 48 people in our reading group meeting". Apparently, TE2 takes on various responsibilities to help students' academic improvement on a voluntary basis.

TE1, TE4 and TE5, on the other hand, cannot work with students on thesis writing as advisors since 2016 when a regulation, indicating that only faculty can become advisors for thesis writing, was issued. However, until the regulation was put into practice both TE1 and TE4 had advisees and served as advisors. When asked, yet, they can become co-advisors of master's thesis written in a university different from their workplace, XU. Thus, although limited in number, both TE1 and TE5 have become co-advisors to outer theses as well after 2016.

Organizing small- or large-scale seminars is another common activity for all participants. TE4 refers to in-class seminars she arranges for her students' professional development:

> There is currently a field of study called classroom interaction competence. Therefore, we had a session with the students about this, and I even invited [name of the professor] who has worked in this area. Or, in a course I taught last year at master's level, [I taught] teacher's research, an emerging concept in teacher education. I invited [name of the professor], an expert on this subject, to the lesson. So, by inviting such guest speakers, I try to ensure that the students are up-dated.

Similar to TE4, TE1 also invites guest speakers particularly to *ELT Practicum I* and *II* courses for the students' professional development and make those sessions available to all practicum students in the department. Still, she would like to increase

the faculty members' contribution to students' professional development. She suggests that the faculty members offer seminars in the department where they present their research studies. Believing that undergraduate students already have very limited opportunities to attend academic meetings, she views this both as a contribution to the students' academic culture and as an opportunity for faculty to do service.

TE5 also has a first-hand experience of arranging seminars both specific to the interests of the department and also broad in scope and open to the participation of the whole university. On the other hand, she feels that not only students but also academics need professional development opportunities:

> As service, I try to organize more educational seminars. I also find them invaluable. I mean what you call a 'university' should have an academic liveliness, professional liveliness. People from different places should come. Students and academics should feed through different channels. So, there should be such a liveliness. There should be something out of lessons.

She believes that academic events both at the department and within the university is not only inadequate but also uninspiring, describing such an environment as "arid climate". She continues referring to her experience in the States: "I mean I remember in America there was a seminar every Friday in every department, and all those graduate students and professors were there. Think about what a nurturing environment it is". Similar to TE5, TE3 mentions talks given in the university when she was a PhD student abroad. She highlights: "A researcher invited either from within the university or outside the university used to talk about their research. It was a very informal environment where everybody was invited. I got considerable benefit". She likens those talks to the ones currently being delivered at the Faculty of Education in XU. However, she thinks that the talks in the faculty are not as frequent as the ones in England and also have a more formal context. Despite the participants' work to provide both an academic and a social environment where pre-service teachers may learn from invited speakers, their accounts show that it is not only students but also English language teacher educators themselves who need service regarding their professional and intellectual development.

5.2.2.3.2. External (Community) Service

External or community service practices of English language teacher educators are expected to take place beyond the campus addressing an external and usually non-academic audience. In this study, academic discipline of the participants has an effect on their understanding of community service. Thus, they state that community service is inherent in the essential characteristic of working as a teacher educator. For instance, referring to their profession, TE1 states that the instructors in the Faculty of Education do community service, and adds that "The idea of serving my country makes me happy". With the same motivation, TE5 says that "We train teachers of Turkey". Similarly, TE4 thinks that teaching future teachers is "an approach for the wellbeing of society as a whole; that is, social responsibility". Therefore, the fact that the participants work through the educational process of teacher candidates and prepare them for their future jobs is viewed as a form of community service since pre-service teacher education has a potential to have an impact on society and next generations. In addition, TE3 also mentions ethical responsibility as a particular way of community service to contribute to the students' professional and personal development: "The most important ethical principle of this [contribution to the students' professional and personal development] is to use up-to-date and accurate knowledge. So, I think this should be the most important ethical responsibility of an academic". In that sense, TE3 also implies that teaching pre-service teachers is already a kind of community service.

Moreover, service-learning model is an important component of ELT program as a means of combining community service with undergraduate course work. The participants, including other faculty members, teach *Community Service* course by taking turns, and they deal with logistics of organizing students' service to various associations, societies or groups. Although they may not directly serve the community themselves through this course, they bring together students and other people in the community, and they also guide the students so that their work serves the purpose. TE3 talks about the central role the course has for outreach work: "As the Faculty of Education, we also have this *Community Service* course. I think it's important that students become aware of the needs of certain parts of society and try to help them".

Another way to get engaged with community service is doing community-based research, though limited. TE2, for instance conducts a research project in which they work on language and cognition development of refugee children in Turkey. Drawing attention to disadvantages that those children suffer from, TE2 describes how they try to help that particular group of refugees:

> Now, we have two things to do on our agenda. One is to disseminate those findings to various groups with a newspaper article or like giving talks. But while doing this, it's necessary to make sure that this won't return to those children in a negative way, so that discrimination doesn't increase even more. Because we're planning to organize events that prevent racist attitudes such as "These are idiots, they don't have a memory or whatever" by using these findings. In other words, to underline the point that these innocent children wouldn't have these shortcomings if these inequalities didn't exist.

Apart from their future plans regarding dissemination of results to a wider community, TE2 asserts that they have already shared the results with the NGO they work with so that families can be informed: "For example, we explained our data to the NGO that helped us … They'll give training accordingly, have an idea about the cognitive levels of children. They'll give a briefing to [refugee] families". The example TE2 provides shows how she extends herself to marginal groups in society in order to reveal the disadvantages they experience. TE4, on the other hand, is much more interested in reaching K-12 teachers of English with the aim of giving professional counseling. Referring to her belief that teacher educators have a mission of informing community, she describes her activities:

> In this sense, we're already working with teachers at K-12 level, for instance we work together in an international project. I try to contribute to their professional development within the scope of this project and in different fields. We have a group. I share different professional activities with them in this group … or sometimes, they consult me on various issues and I give counseling on those issues.

Other service activities that the participants fulfill out of the campus can range from writing for non-academic journals to giving talks relating to their field to non-academic audience or extensive public. For instance, TE5 talks about her contribution to publishing a journal through which she shares her academic expertise with extensive public. "Our [name of the journal] isn't an academic journal. Teachers can read it, anyone who is interested in education can read this journal" and she adds that she has

not only written articles to the journal but also has worked in its editorial board. TE4 remarks that she has recently gave a speech at a private school as an invited speaker. TE2 also states that she gave talks in non-academic events with the aim of introducing their discipline to lay audience. She gives an example of one of her talks open to public through a *Youtube* event organized by Equal Education Platform based in XU. Furthermore, she also underlines that they work with kindergarten students to collect data for their research studies, and they offer community service to the parents whose children they work with. She describes their practice: "We organize face-to-face seminars [for parents]. For instance, we tell the kindergarten that we would like to talk on bilingualism. After all, they provide us with participants. We do such things in return for that". TE2's example also shows that she links research and community service activities, and both roles contribute one another. This shows that professional roles may be inclusive, and oftentimes community service can be viewed as a natural extension of researcher role.

5.2.2.4. Summary of Findings

How the English language teacher educators in this study perform their professional roles is analyzed in three broad categories: teaching, research and service. Their practices in teacher role are also sub-categorized as approach to and prior experience in teaching, English language teacher competencies, teaching philosophies, and lastly instructional materials they use.

Firstly, all participants state that they like and enjoy teaching. They admit that their prior teaching experience has contributed to their current pedagogy as well as research practices. The teacher role they perform is somehow a carryover from their past to academia in a variety of aspects including planning, instruction, classroom management, and assessment. Although the content knowledge of their teaching changed, they underwent a smooth transition to their current context with the help of commitment to teaching and accumulated experience.

The participants take into consideration MoNE's national framework of reference and CoHE's course classifications as a basis to shape their teaching. They underline the importance of subject matter knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, world

knowledge, personal and professional development. Additionally, they aim the pre-service teachers to learn how to cater to students' cognitive and affective needs. Apart from MoNE and CoHE classifications, there are other competencies that the participants give importance to: increasing awareness of students about critical pedagogy and developing their intellectualism; helping them discover their own potentials and professional opportunities; learn about professional values of teaching, and showing respect to the profession.

Furthermore, the participants talk about their teaching philosophies as an underlying factor that shapes their teaching practices. It became obvious that most of the participants favor social constructivist theory in the sense that it enables co-creation of knowledge. Additionally, questioning skills based on the fact that there is no absolute truth and teaching critical skills to problematize the issues on agenda and relate them to teaching can be regarded other important philosophies that inform their teacher roles. Last but not least, the participants use certain types of instructional materials in their classes. They may be in the form of books, book chapters, articles and audiovisual materials. They mostly attach importance to the fact that the materials they use are up-to-date, latest publications and reflect the trends in the area. That materials that are relevant to Turkish context and pre-service teacher profile and also increase students' awareness on various issues apart from language skills are other considerations of the participants.

As for researcher role, the participants talk about their experiences and views in three categories: research projects, funding for scientific activities and academic network. To begin with the first category, the most salient point in their accounts is facing two types of bureaucracy when carrying out research. It is believed that XU should provide more assistance for academics and an atmosphere that enables doing research. The other is bureaucracy by MoNE. It is believed that getting permission to carry out research in K-12 schools is a difficult practice in Turkey. Both types of bureaucracy create constraints on project management. Additionally, research turns out to be a time- and energy-consuming experience that discourages the participants from future works.

While the participants talk about their experiences of search for funding for scientific activities, they all mention drawbacks of social sciences compared to natural sciences and engineering. It is believed that natural sciences and engineering is prioritized over social sciences is a common practice not only in XU context but also in academe. It is believed that their resources and the funding allocated to them is considerably higher than that of social sciences. Industry-university collaboration is thought to be a facilitator for the advantaged position of these areas of science. Base on their personal trials, they stress that seeking and securing an external fund for research is a highly difficult and challenging work. Some of them think that Turkish background may be a disadvantage for receiving funds from international organizations. While they also think that the academic development program in XU is successful for encouraging initial small-scale research projects for newly recruited academics in XU, they look for a better support from XU for proposal writing for prestigious international funding programs. Moreover, the participants also talk about attending academic meetings at home or abroad. In order to meet the costs of these events, they usually apply to the Faculty grant or use project budget if they carry out one at the time of conference. They believe that the Faculty budget is very limited and can be used only once a year; therefore, they have financially hard times when they go to the meetings. They sometimes have to pay out of their own money. Thus, this situation turns out to be a constraint on their professional practices.

Lastly, it is believed that the practice of building academic networks has recently developed in Turkey. It is believed that academic networks increase the collaboration and may bring benefits for academic work. Academic meetings such as conferences, research projects with national or international partners and study abroad experiences can be counted as means of building networks. Some of them also mention XU's academic development program as fostering network among attendees and showing ways for academic network opportunities. On the other hand, TE5, compared to others, is more cautious about building networks. She believes that the academic system that expects academics to be more productive may urge them to build networks on an unethical basis as well.

As for service work, the participants' practices are analyzed in two broad categories, internal and external service. The participants give internal service by means of

providing support to their institutions, their discipline, and students. They are all engaged with attending administrative meetings hold in the department. In these internal meetings, they take curricular decisions, and decide on the recruitment of new faculty members. They also attend external meetings hold by various councils and commissions to share their expertise or to be informed about some field related policies or changes. Serving as vice-chairs to provide administrative support to the chair, working as coordinators of particular departmental units, taking part in departmental commissions for the selection of candidates for graduate studies are other types of service work they shoulder. As for service to their discipline, they talk about giving webinars and presentations as an invited speaker in conferences, being a reviewer for academic journals and also a jury member for graduate level theses. Guiding students with their academic studies and for their professional development, writing letters of recommendation are common practices for all participants. Working as an advisor for graduate theses and meeting with advisees, and forming reading groups to discuss articles are other practices mentioned by some of the participants. Moreover, all participants arrange small or large-scale seminars for the students' professional development. Some participants also underline that not only students but also academics need more service by their own institution regarding professional and intellectual development.

The external service offered by the participants takes place outside the campus in principle. Thus, they extend themselves as a researcher to disadvantaged groups in society; as a reviewer and writer to non-academic readership, as a professional counselor to K-12 teachers, and as an expert to public through talks. On the other hand, they believe that offering community service on campus is also possible for them since they teach future teachers. From their point of view, community service is the natural outcome of working as a teacher educator. Also, all participants teach *Community Service* course which they believe is a way to give external service.

5.2.3. Requirements of Professional Roles

English language teacher educators as academics are expected to fulfill certain roles which can be grouped as teaching, research and service. Moreover, they need to comply with institutional and/or the IB's appointment and promotion criteria when

enacting those roles. Considering their professional roles and their relations with those appointment and promotion criteria, it is intended to provide an answer to the particular research question below with the findings presented in this section:

2.3. How do English language teacher educators experience the impact of demands of professional roles on their professional identities?

Having separately demonstrated the ways that the participants fulfill the roles of teaching, research and service; the appointment and promotion criteria sets and the relationship among the roles as factors influencing the participants' professional identity will be presented in the following section.

5.2.3.1. Appointment and Promotion Criteria: "Moving Targets"

XU's appointment and promotion criteria and IB's promotion criteria to the position of associate professorship are major determinants of the English language teacher educators' academic journeys like any other academic in other disciplines. The participants in the study all agree on the fact that XU's criteria compared to that of other universities are different and more stringent to fulfill. In order to show the considerable difference, TE2 says that: "There are people who was promoted to full professor at other universities with the point I was first appointed to XU. Very different. Right now, by their criteria, I must have been a professor by far". The participants think that the underlying reason behind the top-level criteria arises from the fact that XU aims to gain an outstanding success both in national and international academic market. TE1 underlines that: "I think XU doesn't work with the local market here. I think XU is trying to attract academics who might want to return to Turkey from America and England. So, of course the criteria are very different". TE3 also particularly refers to the latest criteria enhancement process and mentions how academic competition among Turkish universities has had an impact on the criteria of XU:

> The universities in Turkey have a concern about ranking among the top 100 universities in the world. This is particularly expected from certain universities. One of them is XU. We're told [by the Presidency] that XU ranks first in terms of citations but [name of a prestigious Turkish university] leads regarding Q1 publications. That's why I think so many Q1 and Q2 publications are required in the new criteria.

As TE3's excerpt shows the university criteria value publications in journals ranked among the top journals due to competition among universities. In this respect, TE4 complains about the fact that this expectation turns out to be a restrictive imposition:

> When a colleague in a different university publishes something, they chalk up gains. But publishing only in certain journals is imposed on us. This is really annoying. I even was told that one of my colleagues had told a research assistant here: "Why did you publish in that journal? Are you crazy?" So, this is an application that will discourage and demotivate people.

Another common point for the participants is that XU's criteria to be promoted to associate professor is not in line with that of IB, an institution which is affiliated with CoHE. As a result, even if an academic is promoted to associate professor by CoHE, they have to fulfill other more demanding criteria to be promoted to associate professor in XU by the University Executive Board. In line with TE1, both TE2 and TE3 believe that the difference between the criteria of the two institutions is necessary considering that those criteria give XU a distinctive academic characteristic which differentiates it from other universities in Turkey. On the other hand, TE2 draws attention to how that difference might affect academics: "Of course people falter out of this difference because you have to fulfill the requirements of CoHE and you have to fulfill those of XU. Of course, it's a difficult process". Regarding the effect of demanding criteria mentioned by TE2, TE4 shares how she feels:

> So, how should I put it, it has a demotivating effect on me because it makes me feel like whatever I do won't be good enough here. I suffered from this severely in the past but I don't care about them anymore. While colleagues in other universities were given the title of associate professor and appointed to the position, the promotion of our own staff who was given the title of associate professor [by CoHE] five years ago is still incomplete due to the extremely high criteria in XU. In my opinion, there is such an extreme height.

TE4 does not meet XU's criteria of PhD or post-doctorate abroad. Therefore, she does not aim at a promotion by XU any more, instead currently works for associate professor title given by CoHE. TE5, on the other hand, adds academic incentive criteria into this comparison and tells how complicated it becomes if one tries to meet all those criteria:

> So, there are three different criteria sets. The academic incentive criteria change every year, though. Its criteria are different. CoHE's criteria for

> associate professorship are different, XU's criteria are different. What brings high points in one, doesn't bring points in the other. It brings very low points in the other. Which one will you position yourself for? This is the first thing. The second thing, … they [the government] said that universities can determine their own criteria, so it didn't help me because the university determined its own criteria. So, I now work as a lecturer. Maybe I give much more qualified education in one of the best universities in Turkey but someone can become an assistant professor or 'doktor öğretim görevlisi' upon graduation but I cannot. They make more money than me but I can't. They can be a [thesis] jury member in a university in Anatolia but I can't. They can supervise a thesis, get additional course fee due to supervision but I can't do any of these. I'm at a disadvantage because I'm in a better university.

Despite TE5 meets XU's criteria of post-doctorate in abroad, she complains about demanding additional criteria she has to fulfill to be appointed to assistant professorship.

Another source of stress for the participants is the frequent change or rumors of change in XU's appointment and promotion criteria. As TE3's excerpt above shows, the university feels a need to update its expectations from academics in an increasing trend so that it can catch up with and even get ahead of other universities in the global and local academic market. TE2 uses "horseracing" as a metaphor to describe academics trying to fulfill XU's criteria and adds: "But the criteria are in a state of moving targets. It comes to somebody's mind and they take that out, put this in". TE4 echoes TE2's idea about the change in criteria saying that: "Since it's a XU tradition, I cannot argue that we should remove or reduce these criteria because this wouldn't be realistic. But I think that we need to be ensured, in the long term, the criteria have been fixed". TE3, on the other hand, discusses the negative effect of criteria changes on the works of academics referring to their future career plans. Having already made their future plans with regard to publishing in SSCI (Social Science Citation Index), she feels that new expectations of the university administration create stress to be flexible enough to update the plans: "Not every SSCI publication falls in Q1, or there are some others that don't fall in even Q2. Then, your efforts go waste. It takes minimum one and a half or two years to get published in SSCI". TE3 thinks that academics need time to adapt themselves to new criteria and have to redesign their career plans according to more demanding criteria.

The participants also question not only the presence of criteria as a tool to evaluate their performance but also the purpose they serve for. TE3 states that she disapproves of the use of criteria to evaluate their academic performance although she underlines that she is regularly awarded with academic incentive and received XU's academic performance award before. She says: "Evaluating an academic's value, I'm saying it in quotation marks, just through numbers doesn't seem right to me. But unfortunately, appointment and promotion criteria are like that and will go on like that". TE2 similarly tells that she does not support being judged on the criteria and "earning their corn" should be the criterion for academics' self-evaluation:

> In those criteria, it's necessary to provide opportunities that can develop the ability of people to continue scientific activities more responsibly all over the world. I mean, it's not something that will happen with these criteria. It's a moral thing I'm talking about … Academic criteria should be organized in a way that will contribute to your development without turning out to be a threat [but] that's impossible. It's not like that anywhere.

An atmosphere of gloom regarding the prevailing nature of appointment and promotion criteria is apparent in the participants' accounts. TE2 highlights that an academic should stick to moral values instead of external criteria to continue with their work in an ideal academic world; and having inner peace after squaring up with themselves can be the indicator of if they are on the right track. However, she is well-aware of the fact that moral values do not work equally for everyone, and therefore the presence of criteria might be necessary for academics who do not "earn their corn". She adds that: "The purpose of criteria is to force people who don't work on their own, but at the same time those criteria turn into a situation that puts stress on, limits and affects people negatively who really strive for science".

TE1 believes that criteria may work to set academic standards. On the other hand, she underlines that they may not necessarily serve the purpose considering academia has an abundance of publications most of which are not read widely.

> They did research and found that 47% of the articles are downloaded only by the authors. I think this is very sad and tragic. There are too many publications but who reads them? So, no one. It's nice that they publish in that sense but do the articles have an impact? I think the impact factor is more important. There is no "How many people downloaded it? How many citations did it get?" in

> impact factor. What's more important is if someone does research and something is added to a school according to that research, I call it impact factor.

TE1 discusses her own understanding of "impact factor" which is both different from the common understanding and also independent of appointment and promotion criteria. In that sense, she attributes a personal meaning to impact factor, and her view tallies with that of neither global nor local academic systems.

5.2.3.1.1. Politics of Publication

The appointment and promotion criteria of XU make publishing in journals ranked according to quartile scores as well as indexed in AHCI obligatory although the number of publications may vary depending on the position being promoted or appointed to. Publishing in a national peer reviewed journal is not compulsory in XU's criteria set. The publications in national journals except the ones indexed by Ulakbim TR Index are not even accepted in XU. However, in CoHE's associate professorship criteria, publication in a national peer reviewed journal indexed by Ulakbim TR Index as well as not indexed by Ulakbim TR Index are compulsory. This gap turns out to be a factor that affects the participants' views and practices of publishing as well. TE5 states that: "As the points that international journals bring are higher everybody wants to turn to those journals". Referring to publication criteria, TE3 underlines that: "In XU, international platforms are preferred". TE2 compares the criteria of XU and CoHE for being promoted to associate professor:

> CoHE, for instance, wants three national articles but XU doesn't. There is no place for national articles on the international platform anyway. I mean, the expectation of CoHE has been set for the majority [of academics in Turkey]. What you do national remains only in a very small circle. You don't come up with anything novel there anyway. So, for example if you come up with a novel idea in a national publication, it becomes wasted then. Nobody notices it, unfortunately.

The university does not encourage its academic staff for publications in national peer reviewed journals as it implements policies to take part in the international academic market. Moreover, international publications in journals ranked in certain quartiles bring prestige and better opportunities for promotion. TE4, on the other hand, compares herself to the rest of the academics in the program and says: "I'm definitely

a person who doesn't agree on the common practice here at all. There are articles I published in journals here [in national indexes] because I believe that's how it should be". TE4 highlights the fact that the common practice of English language teacher educators in XU is to arrange their academic activities according to international standards, paying less attention to national academia as a result of a desire to fit in the international academic circle.

The problem of publication in national peer reviewed journals brings up a related issue, which is writing and publishing in Turkish. The participants all hold positive views about publishing in Turkish for similar reasons. For instance, TE1 states that academics do not necessarily have to write articles in English. She says: "The duty of an academic is to be a solution to a problem of their own country as well as contributing to the literature in the world". TE3 mentions the importance of common use of Turkish equivalents of terms in the field of ELT through publications. She also adds "that students know the Turkish equivalents of these terms and that they are used in the academic world" is highly important for Turkish to be used as the language of science.

TE5 talks about the fact that an ELT article written in Turkish might appeal to the interest of readers who are either non-academic or members of different academic fields:

> After all, it [ELT] is an education-oriented field as well. For instance, a professor at [name of the university] who isn't in the field of ELT but wonder about your research may read it if their English is not good. Or we can produce something that an ordinary reader can understand. It's social science, after all. A curious reader may read it but not everybody has to know English. I think it's important to develop science in mother tongue.

Although they speak of the necessity of publishing in Turkish, their practices are not necessarily in line with that view. In other words, they prefer to write and publish in English due to several reasons. One reason is the impact of the field and habit of using English in every domain considering that they work in an English medium university. TE5 talks about one of her articles in a national peer reviewed journal: "Since we already write everything in English, it was easier for me as it had already been written in English. And frankly, I didn't need to translate it into Turkish". Obviously although most national peer reviewed journals provide opportunities to publish both Turkish

and English, they may still go with English. Another reason behind their use of English is related to the promotion criteria sets. As these sets prioritize high impact journal publications and pat attention to citations received, teacher educators try to align their work closely with the requirements TE3 speaks of this impact as:

> When you publish in your mother tongue, you're very unlikely to get it published in SSCI or international B [type journals]. Surely, there are people who publish in Turkish in international B but you'll receive more citations and be read more when you do it in English.

TE1 criticizes the impact of the criteria on academics as she views them as the driving force behind decisions in language of publication. She believes that none of the appointment and promotion criteria serves for the good of society, instead they are related to individual academics' achievements: "There is a place where academics would like to see themselves. To reach that place, if publishing in Turkish serves their interest, they publish in Turkish. If publishing in English serves their interest, they publish in English". On the contrary, TE2 underlines that writing in English is not necessarily driven by the indirect imposition of the criteria but by the fact that science requires a common language: "Of course you want what you do to reach as many people as possible … There's no point in publishing in mother tongue right now because you can't become a part of that scientific world". Additionally, TE2 underscores the fact that current language policies favor the use of English in academe, and they have to use a common language so that scientist all around the world would contribute to knowledge production.

5.2.3.1.2. International Mobility: An Issue of "Perspective"

Holding a doctoral degree abroad or a minimum of nine-month-post-doctorate abroad if an applicant has earned their doctoral degree from XU or other domestic universities is a prerequisite to be appointed to a position in XU. The participants in the study have their own experiences regarding this issue and talk about how this requirement has affected their professional selves. The common feeling regarding this issue is the fact that a different academic institution enables one to adopt a new and different academic perspective. TE3 is the only participant who earned her PhD degree abroad. She believes that hers was a great opportunity which she benefited from very much. She says XU might have put this as a requirement because she thinks: "There can be

different practices we learn there, we can offer different experiences to students, and we can improve ourselves". TE2 is the participant who earned her PhD degree from XU but worked as a post-doctoral researcher abroad several times. She underlines that the experience of studying abroad is necessary: "I think the student should get out of here [XU]. They need to see different perspectives". TE1 is one of the pure inbred participants in the study. Earning a PhD degree from XU, she continues working as a full-time lecturer without going for post-doctoral research abroad; however, she draws attention to the fact that this was her personal choice: "I used to view the requirement of [post-doctorate] abroad as academic imperialism. That didn't exist in the future I envisioned [for myself]". She prefers to respond to the requirements of the university with a complete sense of agency; deciding not to follow a tenure-track position. On the other hand, she now has a positive attitude towards studying in a foreign country:

> To give an example from my own department, [name of the professor] for example, completed her PhD abroad. I think she came with a different perspective when I compare her with someone who did their PhD here. Because I know what the others mean anyway, so people don't change. I think we keep talking about the same things, and the perspective stays the same. But I liked the arrival of such a new perspective.

Obviously, TE1 views people who have an experience of study and research abroad as 'new blood' in the department, with a potential to polish up the academic atmosphere repeating itself in the department.

As for professional gains that study or research in a different institution in a foreign country, TE3 underlines two issues. The first is her close contact with K-12 schools: "I had a chance to see not only the university but also [K-12] school environment thanks to the research I did there. I think I am able to convey this to my students". The other point she stresses is how she learned to analyze and synthesize, two important skills she had not been taught before her education abroad. It was a demanding process as she learned those skills from scratch:

> When I went there, I had a hard time because it's very different from our education system. They place great emphasis on analytical perspective and synthesizing. They are expected in all the research you carry out, in all assignments. It's the same in class, you're expected to have a constant discussion and to put forward your own opinion, and in fact, there wasn't much of them in our education life at that time.

Despite the difficulty she had resulting from the difference between the two education systems, she views those skills as important gains for herself. TE2 elaborates on her gains through working as a post-doctoral researcher abroad for long years.

> I gained everything. First and foremost, everything. When you do something good, there's this 'pat on the shoulder', which doesn't exist in Turkey, I gained that. I was able to see that such a thing is possible, that an environment where everyone says each other "You can do it! Bravo! Go for it!" instead of an environment where no one cares about anyone. Then, how science is done. I was in environments where people used to discuss science in coffee breaks … But by being in such an environment, you gain the possibility of doing something to activate that culture here as well.

It is apparent that academic culture she adopts originates from her lived experience in different academic institutions abroad. Similar to TE3, who has been working to teach analysis and synthesis skills she learned abroad to her students in XU, TE2 also aims to provide her students, particularly advisees, with an academic culture where they support and inspire each other as well they learn how to approach science. This is why she aims to construct a solidarity culture among her advisees through which she requires them to give feedback each other's research or at least academic writing support for manuscripts.

In the same manner, TE4 holds positive views regarding this issue despite being a pure inbred. She says that PhD or post-doctorate abroad has "a positive reflection" on academics' practices and speaks of this experience as means of creating academic vision. On the other hand, she talks about accompanying problems when a full-time lecturer intends to do post-doctoral study abroad in particular, referring to her own case and that of her colleagues. She believes that full-time lecturers are discouraged to go abroad for post-doctorate as they have to face administrative, financial and time-wise problems. TE4 states: "If you're a full-time lecturer here, research isn't viewed as a requirement in your position. Therefore, you're not paid any money [during post-doctorate]. So, people do that by making great sacrifices and paying out of their pockets". Moreover, planning, organizing and actually securing financial resources for going abroad is not adequate. One has to seek the good offices of the administrators to get permission to go abroad for post-doctorate as such a long-term leave is not a legally protected right of the lecturers. Underlining the drawbacks of full-time lecturer position, TE4 suggests reducing the one academic year period to six months. TE5 has

similar views on this issue and speaks of her own experiences. As she earned her doctoral degree from XU and wants to become a faculty member, she had to go abroad for pursuit of post-doctoral research. However, she mentions both administrative and financial problems she had to deal with:

> I'm trying to meet XU's criteria. I can't find a grant. In the end, without finding a grant, I try to go abroad taking on debt, forcing my own means in order not to be at a more disadvantage, and I was told that: "You can't go to post-doc because you're not allowed to take a long-term leave as a lecturer". A research assistant has a right for a long-term leave, a faculty member does but a lecturer doesn't. If you put such a criterion, you should facilitate it, right? You should for example allow for one-year-leave. You tell me to go and you say: "You can't get permission". This is very annoying. Will I be more qualified if I go for a year? Will I be more qualified when I go to America? Don't you trust your own doctoral education? You can say: "Go to another university." Is it necessary to go abroad if the aim is to increase what you've seen? Or does it have to be one year, can't you go for three months or six months?

As TE5's accounts show, she had to bear the considerable expense of going abroad as it was difficult to find a grant. Additionally, the expense she had to bear was not only financial but also psychological since she had to struggle against institutional restrictions. Despite being an adherent faculty, TE3 has up-close observations about post-doc experiences of teacher educators. Therefore, she is highly empathetic and echoes TE4 and TE5's views by reflecting on the situation her colleagues have lived through:

> Going for a post-doc isn't an easy thing either. You'll be accepted by the host university. It will be financed. You'll stay there for nine months. Your familial situation here might be different, and you'll leave it behind. And in the end, you have to resign. For the time being, it's possible to leave without resigning because it happened in our department. But such a rule had been introduced before. That's why the lecturers couldn't go abroad.

TE5 also agrees with TE3, and says: "People would already want to go but it's not nice that it's an imposition" referring to the struggle she put up.

5.2.3.2. Role Demands and Conflicts

As the findings above demonstrate, the English language teacher educators in the study teach undergraduate or graduate courses, carry out various research studies, and lastly are engaged with service works both on and beyond the campus. Although

teaching, research and service may be viewed as separate roles, the participants bring up the interconnection of these, particularly referring to the fact that teaching role brings a heavy load, how enacting one role may push aside the other(s), and how they would like to arrange their own workloads.

To begin with, minimum and maximum teaching loads are determined by the law of higher education; therefore, academics can neither be involved with nor have a say in its arrangement. Minimum teaching load for faculty is 3-3 (three courses per semester) and 4-4 (four courses per semester) for full-time lecturers in the ELT program. In addition to this, they also teach one extra course, though not compulsory, to another group of students studying in an international common undergraduate program (TEFL) offered in XU in collaboration with an overseas university. As a result, the teaching load of the faculty and full-time lecturers increases to four hours and five hours, respectively. The courses they offer are composed predominantly of undergraduate courses, including graduate courses as well.

The participants' lack of agency on their teaching load poses a problem at two levels. One is at the institutional and the other is at the staff level. In XU, they state that academics at the department of engineering and basic sciences teach two courses while they have to teach three as members of the Faculty of Education. They think that this situation puts them in a disadvantaged position since they have to put extra effort for additional courses. Moreover, TE2 say that she cannot teach bigger student groups in lecture halls as they do in engineering or basic sciences; instead, she has to teach to small group of students placed in several sections. Moreover, the type of course they teach carries great importance regarding the effort it requires. TE3 speaks of this as: "You teach four courses in a semester and one of them is a master's or a PhD course. There is a huge load in that sense". TE2 also highlights the number of courses she teaches saying that: "I like teaching but not that many courses. For instance, if I were teaching two courses, my energy could be very different". TE2, furthermore, describes the courses she teaches referring to the extra effort they may require:

> There comes a time when you teach three different courses. You don't necessarily have the luxury of teaching two sections [of the same course]. For example, I recently taught three different courses. One was something I recently opened, let alone being a graduate course. One of them was undergraduate and I offered that for the first time as well. I also taught one

> course I had taught before. Three courses, of course I don't count TEFL course. If you teach in TEFL, you get an extra, the fourth.

Designing a brand-new course or teaching a course for the first time obviously requires more effort on behalf of the instructor. In that respect, TE5 mentions the strain of teaching and states that: "I think I take the title of 'the lecturer who teaches the most in the department'. I counted and realized that I have taught 13-14 different courses". Thus, TE2, TE3 and TE5's accounts show that not only the number of courses but also how familiar the instructor is with the course is an influential factor affecting their workload.

As for the staff level, both TE4 and TE5 believe that they are, as lecturers, expected to take in charge of extra courses should the need arise. Additionally, they believe that they have diminished agency on the course types they teach. TE5 states that: "I think this is also about my position. Because we are at the bottom, we are the most exploited group, the group with the most courses". TE4 similarly talks about the position she holds and the impact it has on her teaching load:

> If I were a faculty member, an assistant professor, if I say that I don't want to teach that, maybe they would say "Okay, don't give it". But I don't have such a luxury. I have to teach practicum course every semester. Thanks God, I like this course but that's a different issue. But these kinds of sanctions are imposed a lot on people in lower positions.

TE5 similarly gives the example of practicum courses and describes how she is loaded with its requirements:

> They [practicum courses] are given compulsorily but even if it wasn't the case, I probably would want to teach every year at least once. Maybe I wouldn't want to teach them every semester because it's a very labor-intensive work but I still like giving practicum courses. But it just takes a very large part of time and there is little time left for that academic identity, in that, for doing research, sitting and thinking and writing. I usually give five courses.

From their point of view, lectureship is a position vulnerable to institutional requirements and demands more than tenure-track and tenured positions. In addition to that, the excerpt above shows that TE5 candidly admits that her teacher and researcher roles compete and this results in her prioritizing teaching no matter how

much she values carrying out research. Therefore, she says that: “There is such a burden on me that it takes years to be promoted to associate professor by CoHE”.

As TE5 reveals, the other participants in the study also accept that both teaching and research roles have their own competing demands and duties, which may force them or other English language teacher educators to prioritize one or the other. Further to that, TE1, TE4 and TE5 emphasize that teaching suffers as a result of overemphasis on research by academics who mostly highlight the researcher identity. In this regard, TE4 says: “Academics whose teacher identity hasn’t developed much, unfortunately see this [teaching] as an unnecessary effort, because they approach things pragmatically. So, I see they feel a dichotomy on this dimension”. Considering her researcher and teacher identities, TE4 says that she is mostly engaged in teaching particularly as a direct requirement of her full-time lecturer position. On the other hand, she tells that she tries her best to make sure that neither rules out the presence of the other. TE1 echoes TE4, saying that: “They have to make a choice. They’ll either labor over something in the classroom to be a better teacher or over the other side [research]. That is, they make that choice in favor of the other side”. She compares herself with teacher educators who are more committed to research and says that her own priority is her class. TE5 also has completely similar ideas to that of TE4 and TE1 and acknowledges the underlying reason behind this dichotomy in detail:

> Because research is more prestigious. Because nobody asks you how many students you’ve trained well. It doesn’t matter; they just look at whether you’ve taught a class or not, whether you’ve graded your students or not. But they ask for publication and your promotion is by way of publication. I mean academics turn towards what makes money, brings prestige and promotion, and what is more valuable in the system. That’s why they turn to publications, leaving courses aside. They’re on autopilot, teaching on autopilot.

TE5 clearly describes how academics face a dilemma over teacher and researcher roles, and how the academic system sends explicit and implicit messages about the value of research and teaching practices through appointment and promotion criteria. The dilemma they face has an impact on their feelings as well. TE5 discloses how that makes her feel: “Teacher education work maybe takes 80% of time, that is educational practices. 20% is about research, thinking, reading and writing on teacher education or education in general. Maybe even less than 20% and this doesn’t make me happy”.

She obviously would like to devote more time to research for two reasons. One is to find an opportunity to address a wider audience and the other is providing a more qualified teaching. TE5 and TE4 think alike in this respect. Although heavily busy with teaching, TE4 carries out research particularly on teacher education. She thinks that: "There is an enormous pressure on us right now; that is, an anxiety of collecting points. Because these are clearly defined in appointment and promotion criteria". Therefore, she believes that diminished course hours would make a positive difference for their researcher roles and suggests that academics' teaching load be diminished especially in case of carrying out international projects. Despite the pressure she feels, she still underlines the positive impact of researcher role on teaching practices saying that: "I think it [research] has greatly increased my performance [of teaching]". It seems that although researcher and teacher roles complement one another, and research, in particular, contributes to the quality of teaching, there is a possibility that one dominates the other.

When explaining how they handle with their roles, usually a discourse of struggle dominates their accounts. For instance, the responsibilities TE1 shoulders range from carrying out a project to administrative support to the chair. Despite her busy schedule, she acknowledges that:

> My first priority is my class and students… How to strike a balance? I think that some things shouldn't be too difficult since we can sometimes take our work home; home office in today's terms. I know that there were days I left here [the department] at 15:00 or didn't come for half a day, but I also know that I read papers at home on Saturday and Sunday. I don't see a situation to say "I'm tired of life, I'm fed up. Ugh! Is that the papers again!" because I read papers on Saturday and Sunday.

Obviously, TE1 tells that flexible work schedule allows her latitude in adjusting her working hours to meet the requirements of her professional roles. TE1 also adds that she has learned how to handle her various professional roles through two incidents. One happens when she was a primary school student complaining about going to school. Upon her refusal to go to the school her mother compared her going to the school with miners who work in harsh conditions in underground so as to make her stop complaining. And the other is when she used to serve as the practicum coordinator in previous years. She remembers having felt suffocated as a result of some people's

behaviors. At the same time, the president of XU used to deal with the mayor of the city due to some problems between the university and municipality. Comparing her struggles to the problems that the president had to deal with, she says that: “I thought complaining about that wouldn’t be right, and this thought really fired me up”. In other words, she has to take on various roles, however, she either tries to reach a compromise among her demanding roles and responsibilities either by playing with the lines of work life and personal life or by reflecting on people who work under more challenging conditions.

Similar to TE1, TE2 also has a variety of professional responsibilities. She underlines that she tries to fulfill all her roles “by being crushed, being terribly crushed”. Different from TE1, on the other hand, TE2 states that she devotes a great deal of her time to combination of service and research practices. She states that she likes teaching, on the other hand, designing activities to test a scientific problem with her students as well as supervising her advisees are other activities appealing to her. She particularly mentions the expense of committing herself to service activities extending to research practices: “I do this by being crushed, getting tired, stealing from my own power, my own body whatever .... I think that supervising students comes with some responsibilities, and I try to discharge them as much as I can”. The struggle she is locked in to fulfill her roles is evident in her tone. She also reminds that her efforts to help students become researchers and the extent of her investment in this process are completely on a voluntary basis rather than a must. Still, she takes great pains with duly performing her role. Moreover, she also refers to her other roles such as serving as a coordinator and other administrative works saying that: “There is work to be done day and night”. This excerpt is an indicator of the fact that her busy schedule blurs the lines of work life and personal life.

TE3 touches upon the roles she is engaged with saying that she tries her best to distribute her time equally among teaching, research and service. However, she refers to academics in England as they have a very balanced work and personal life divide, adding that: “It’s something I cannot do well”. Contrary to the academics she observed in England, she says that she has difficulty in drawing distinct lines between her two lives, resulting against her personal life. Likewise, TE4 takes the professional roles she performs into account and concludes that: “It’s like that [professional work]

takes up 70% of my life. Because at the moment, carrying out several projects simultaneously for example cause me to make a lot of sacrifices from my family life". It is obvious that TE4 fulfills her roles paying a high personal price. Similarly, TE5 also talks how her struggle to meet the requirements of her roles gets intensified:

> I prepare a lesson, write e-mails, read assignments all day, so I already become exhausted. So, I have neither time to open a news website nor energy when I go home in the evening. I mean, most of the time I learn from my husband. He summarizes the daily news for me and if there is something very important, I open and read it myself. I don't follow that much but if I'm not very busy I try to follow the agenda by looking at two news sites at least, I read one or two articles. But other than that, I haven't read an academic book, professional book or an article for a very long time. Either I don't have time to read as I just prepare a lesson or I'm writing an article myself and dealing with it. Or for that [the article] I read something I've read before or research something for that. I can't even read most of these things I've researched.

The accounts of TE5 reveals teaching a course brings along additional loads such as addressing students' academic needs and questions in and out of class hours as well as reading and scoring their assignments and exams. The way she toils away meeting the requirements of her teacher role and she struggles to write an article without enough time to read are apparent in the excerpt above. To conclude, she performs teacher and also researcher roles at the expense of other activities or work. In addition to this, she underlines that an academic in the States or in Europe teaches one or two courses maximum, which leads to the fact that they have more time do research, and in return to publish. Based on this, she complains about being evaluated on publications as if they were under the same conditions with those academics abroad when applying for a grant. Therefore, TE5 tells "I want the two [research and teaching] to be balanced, in that, let me teach less". In the same vein, TE3 would like to allocate more time to carry out research as a result of the pressure of appointment and promotion criteria. She believes that it takes much more time to collect data, write a paper and then get it published: "These academic criteria force you to do research … I'd like to spend more time for research but it's not because I don't care the others [teaching and service]. I need to spend more time to construct some things".

TE2 similarly complains about the pressure appointment and promotion criteria create on herself. She thinks that the criteria push academics to be more productive, and

contrary to expectations, this results in less time to learn, discover and do interdisciplinary work indeed:

> Of course, it's against the nature of science to do so many things; trying to categorize this with plus and minus points. Because a person discovers many things when they sit and think calmly. So, when your every moment is full and you have no spare time, no moment to think, you can't discover anything. Scientists must have some time to digest, internalize and combine some things with other things, read other things. So, for example the theories in my field make sense with different programs; such as physics. I need to be able to read something about physics, discuss it with those people so that I can discover something new. These criteria don't allow this to happen.

The criteria railroad the participants to do research and publish; however, the same criteria cause them to do that in a rush and under the pressure of fulfilling the expectations within time limits. In addition to that, TE2 would like to be relieved to a little extent from the burdens of all roles she takes on as a result of feeling overwhelmed. She says: "We could reduce the meeting hours, administrative meetings. I would reduce them most. One thing I'd like to increase more is reaching more people. That science reach people more might be better; I think".

In line with TE2's wish for outreach work, TE3 also states that she would like to devote some time to an organization called *İlkyar* within the framework of community service although conceding that she has no time left for working people beyond campus. She also considers other academic works she is heavily busy with but cannot get any points in return, and concludes that: "I mean in general, not only for our university, I think there shouldn't be such appointment and promotion criteria that are only publication-oriented and ignore other works". In the same vein, TE5 highlights that not only publishing in academic journals but also writing for a wider community should bring points to academics to get appointed and promoted.

> There are many published things that nobody can read, that don't contribute to anybody, just because they're in publication criteria. Well, I think I would give points to publications for lay audience so that everyone can produce them … especially in social sciences.

Both TE3 and TE5 agree that it is publications that is valued in appointment and promotion criteria and other academic works such as teaching and especially service do not get enough attention and are not promoted as valuable academic activities.

5.2.3.3. Summary of Findings

This section presents the analysis of the appointment and promotion criteria as well as the relationship among professional roles. Having analyzed the appointment and promotion criteria in general, index and language of publication and international mobility for doctoral degree or post-doctorate are also analyzed as sub-categories.

Firstly, all participants think that XU's appointment and promotion criteria are different and more challenging compared to the criteria of other universities in Turkey. The reason behind this is thought to be XU's aim for attaining a top place in the national and international academic market. In line with this aim, the university management has renewed its criteria set with an increasing demand for academic productivity. Some of them find these expectations to be restrictive impositions on their professional practices. Another point that the participants all agree is that XU's criteria to be promoted to associate professor is not in line with that of CoHE. While some of them think that this difference is necessary because of XU's distinct place among Turkish universities, they all accept that trying to comply with both sets of criteria is challenging. Furthermore, frequent changes in XU's appointment and promotion criteria are told to cause a negative effect on their professional plans for future and make them feel like they are in a race. In addition to not approving of being judged on certain criteria, they also believe that the criteria do not necessarily serve the intended purpose considering an abundance of publications read only by few people. Another point is the fact that there is discrepancy between XU and IB criteria set with regard to publications in national indexes. Therefore, the participants believe that XU's criteria make academics turn towards international journals that may bring more points and opportunities to be noticed in a wider academic environment.

All participants in the study have positive views about publishing in Turkish. They think that academics should address local problems with Turkish, generate and use Turkish equivalents of terms used in their disciplines, or cater to readers who are either non-academic or members of different academic fields. However, they prefer to write and publish in English for several reasons. One reason is writing in English is second nature to them both because of their discipline and English medium instruction in XU. The other is related to the impact of the criteria on academics as publications in

English bring more citations and visibility in academia. And lastly, English is the only language that paves the way for being a part of scientific world.

The participants also talk about holding a doctoral degree or a minimum of nine-month-post-doctorate abroad as the first appointment requirement of XU. There is a widespread acceptance among the participants that an academic experience in a different institution brings "a new perspective" or "vision" to the person. Yet, their practices vary. For instance, while TE1 did not go for a post-doctorate abroad as a result of an agentic decision, TE5 decided to go for it in order not to lose out anymore on the rights and privileges of being a faculty member. On the other hand, they widely discuss that full-time lecturers have to undergo a great difficulty to go abroad for post-doctorate as they have to face administrative, financial and time-wise problems, and how these problems might cause distress.

Next, the interrelationship of roles and the impact of appointment and promotion criteria on the roles are analyzed. Teaching loads of the participants are determined by law and they do not have agency on their teaching loads creates a twofold problem. First, they highlight that they teach more courses in the faculty of education compared to the departments of engineering and basic sciences. Also, teaching in TEFL in addition to ELT program adds on to their course schedule. In addition to the number, teaching a course for the first time or teaching a graduate course may be other sources of burden on them. Secondly, full-time lecturers believe that they have diminished agency on the course types and numbers they teach compared to tenure-track or tenured faculty. As a result, they think that their position is vulnerable to institutional requirements and demands more than tenure-track positions.

The participants also accept that both teacher and researcher roles have different competing requirements, and this may result in the prioritization of one role over the other. Especially full-time lecturers state that some academics put teaching on the back burner as they are not promoted based on their excellence in teaching, and therefore they put more emphasis on research as it brings promotion, money and prestige. Additionally, the participants state that the criteria value publications and disregard teaching and service activities. Regardless of XU's or IB's criteria sets, they all state that appointment and promotion criteria in general put pressure on academics and

force them to be more productive. TE1 underlines that her teacher role is more dominant as she deliberately gives more importance to it, and she is happy with the current balance of her roles. For TE5, it is the teacher role which is more dominant. Although she has commitment to teaching and the mission of teacher education, she is not happy with the balance of her roles. She would like to devote more time to research activities to be able to address a wider audience, to provide a more qualified teaching, and for a possible promotion in future. TE4 states that she devotes slightly more time to teaching as a requirement of her lecturer position but also pushes her limits in order not to leave neither research nor service out. TE3 thinks that she does her best to spare time equally on all three roles. On the other hand, TE2 admits that she devotes more time to combination of service and research practices. Namely, supervising her advisees on their theses, helping them become independent researchers, organizing seminars and reading groups and carrying out research with them. They demand a decrease in their weekly course hours not only to be able to allocate more time to research activities but also to improve their teaching performance. Moreover, they also look for opportunities to spend less time for administrative meetings and more time for outreach work.

Regardless of their dominant roles, they put an enormous effort to juggle with competing demands of their professional roles, and the struggle they are engaged in is evident in their accounts. They make it clear that commitment to professional roles consumes them both physiologically and psychologically. Also, demands of their professional lives sometimes blur the lines of work and personal life. In other words, a flexible work schedule of academics may work to the detriment of personal life. They highlight that the load of professional roles leaves neither time nor energy to spent time with family, to do extensive reading, to read professional or academic articles or even to read or watch the daily news. Contrary to others, TE1 does not repine much about the loads of roles as she has strategies to relieve herself such as working from home and reflecting on people who work even under more challenging conditions.

To conclude, the participants tend to conceptualize their professional identity through a discourse of struggle based on heavy workloads, competing roles and publication-oriented appointment and promotion criteria. Although they try to meet the

requirements of their professional roles, the amount of time they have to or can spend on certain work types and the amount of time they actually would like to spend do not necessarily match in practice. This mismatch arising from factors such as time limitations, personal interests, requirements of position (e.g., full time lecturer or tenure-track/tenured faculty), and the messages sent by the university administration and CoHE through appointment and promotion criteria, therefore, leads them to customize their professional identities.

5.2.4. Contextual Factors in English Language Teacher Educators' Professional Identity

This section specifically aims to answer the following research question through the analysis of interviews:

2.4. How do English language teacher educators conceptualize the impact of institutional and national contexts on their professional identities?

In the previous sections, the pathways that the English language teacher educators in the study took to enter the profession and how they fulfill their professional roles in academia are presented as important factors having an impact on their professional identity construction. In this section, the contextual factors, consisting of institutional and wider higher education contexts, the English language teacher educators are affected by will be presented.

5.2.4.1. Institutional Context of Higher Education

In addition to personal and individual factors, English language teacher educator identity might be affected by other factors peculiar or relating to the institutional context they work in. Thus, the institutional context in this study refers to the participants' immediate academic environment, which is XU. There are several aspects of academic environment in XU, which can be considered as influential elements on the participants' professional identities. These aspects can be listed as collegial relationships, student evaluations of teaching, and governance and academic freedom in XU.

5.2.4.1.1. Workplace Relationships

English language teacher educators do not work in isolation, rather they act in a particular community of practice. In an ideal community of practice, they are expected to share a common workplace culture as well as opportunities for professional development and learning. The same situation applies to the English language teacher educators in this study as they work in an institutional context surrounded by the presence of other colleagues. The extent and patterns of interaction among colleagues has an impact on their professional selves. As for this particular community, the collegial discourse seems underwhelming.

As stated before, XU has an official induction program for newly appointed academic staff, and the program offers guidance to newcomers regarding teaching, research and campus culture. On the other hand, the department does not have an official induction or mentoring program that can provide professional support and mentoring for newcomers. TE5 underlines the lack of such a professional and social support offered by colleagues:

> There is no inclusion provided by the professors. They don't say "She/He's just started, let's orient them and include them". Everyone is alone or a member of some cliques. You're not seen if you're independent, if you're not a member of cliques.

As the excerpt reveals, the cultural norm of the department puts newcomers in a situation where they have to navigate through the process of accommodating to the professional discourse of department themselves. Moreover, not only newcomers but any member of the department is implicitly urged towards peer groups to gain professional and social legitimacy in the department. Similarly, TE4 complains about the non-inclusive attitude of the administration of the department:

> Projects carried out in the department are called as individual projects. The administrators' point of view is extremely important here. It's called as personal but we submitted this project on behalf of the department. Even if it's not made explicit, making me feel implicitly that a linguistics project is more important and may have more reflections… These are the things that made me upset.

TE4 refers to a dialogue that she had with the administration where she asked for an arrangement that can facilitate her management of the project. She states that she had difficulty in finding the support she looked for. Moreover, she touches upon the division of disciplines (i.e., linguistics, literature, ELT) in the department stating that a linguistics project may have a potential to be appreciated more compared to the ones in ELT. Apart from the administration, TE4 also talks about her colleagues' impact on her research and publication practices: "There is always something both explicit and implicit in the department. They open their mouth to talk about international publication. Everyone influences each other on purpose or not about international publishing in English". It is apparent that not only appointment and promotion criteria but also peer pressure sending out messages about the importance of international publications might be involved in their research and publication preferences.

Sharing among colleagues is also believed to be important and necessary. It is a common practice in the department that both lecturers and faculty attend academic conferences to present their scientific works. TE1 thinks that there is lack of an academic culture in the department where attendees share their works with their colleagues. In other words, the attendees do not inform their own colleagues about their works although they address a variety of audience in the conferences. She gives an example for this:

> We discussed an article with students from a friend's class on *Whatsapp*. In groups of four, they discussed with each other. We were also members of that group, but our only purpose is to pose a question when they're blocked, or to express our opinion whatever. We presented this at a conference ... My co-presenter was from the school of foreign languages [in XU], and there were other lecturers from that school. A lecturer came out and said "We're in the same department, you did such a thing but I'm not aware of that". She means "Oh, I wish I'd known it before. I'd have applied it in my class too". I go to conferences. I do something about here, or maybe others also do. I don't think any of us know about each other.

As in the example she gives from her own experience, as colleagues working in the same department, they do not know about each other's research. Moreover, this also causes the fact that they are uninformed about innovative pedagogical implementations going on in the same unit as in the case exemplified above. She suggests an increase in collegial sharing by means of creating an institutional culture where everyone presents their work within the institution as well. TE4 also speaks of

collegial sharing and collaboration from a different perspective. She talks about the importance of sharing materials and syllabi with colleagues when designing a course.

> In fact, ideally, the ones who teach different sections of a course should prepare a material pool together, or arrange a syllabus together. However, unfortunately, we can't achieve this for every course in the department because individual differences and preferences comes into play.

As TE4 tells, English language teacher educators in the department usually prefer to design their course syllabi and choose course materials based on their own preferences rather than collaborating with peers. Yet, TE4 adds that she personally prefers asking for help from an experienced colleague if she is assigned with a course she has not taught before. While TE4 gives insights about the impact of colleague collaboration on her teaching practice, TE5 talks about seminars she arranges for pre-service teachers in the department. She underlines that she puts a great deal of effort to organize all the details of the seminars, with the single aim of creating an academic environment that adds to professional and personal development of students. However, she thinks that her colleagues neither contribute to nor appreciate her efforts: "They neither work on nor come to the seminars. Doing it alone, with the efforts of one or two people, isn't possible. As it exhausted me much, I whittled down the number of seminars to one in a semester". She also stresses that the appreciation she received was from either students or colleagues from other departments. Obviously, lack of support from colleagues results in lack of motivation for sustaining service for students' and even colleagues' professional development.

Last but not least, TE1 discusses the nature of their profession while she explains the necessity of colleague support:

> I think colleague support or collaboration and cooperation is very important in a few professions; our profession is one of them. Even though we're alone in the classroom, talking about teaching and sharing that you're doing something about teaching are the things that make people, teachers, those who truly feel like a teacher happy; and things that increase institutional belonging. In that sense, this doesn't increase my institutional belonging.

TE1 draws attention to the fact that English language teacher educators ideally need to get their ideas on teaching across and exchange good practices of teaching with each other. However, she thinks that an atmosphere of professional support in that

sense does not fully exist among colleagues in this particular community of teacher educators, and this situation hurts her sense of belonging to the community and the department.

5.2.3.1.2. Student Evaluations of Teaching: Quantifying or Qualifying?

Student evaluations of teaching (SET) are carried out in XU through the end of academic semesters in all departments and programs. Mid-semester evaluations, on the other hand, are carried out upon the academics' request. The university administration aims to evaluate the quality of courses offered by academics by means of student feedback. Additionally, academics are informed about their overall average scores for each course they teach; they can see their ranking in the department and the faculty, and also can read additional comments, if written any. While the university administration aims to evaluate the overall effectiveness of teaching in XU, the academics also have a chance to see how their teaching practices work from the students' point of view. This official and common practice of the university applies to the courses English language teacher educators offer as well. Apparently, SETs, for which research and service roles are of no relevance, act as a tool for students through which they can evaluate courses as well as English language teacher educators' teaching performances.

The participants in the study tell that academic staff of the department hold different views with regard to SETs. While some believe that SETs are necessary and should continue, some others think that the reliability of the surveys are low and they do not fully serve the purpose. Similar to the split in opinion in the wider context of the department, the participants also focus on both uses and drawbacks of the surveys. For instance, TE4 and TE1 underscores the fact that SETs particularly act as a means to revisit and adjust their course load. TE4 says: "If it's written very high course load, I try to take the course load to a different dimension in the next semester". TE1 echoes TE4, and gives an example for that. When the central administration decided to use SETs as a formative rather than a summative evaluation tool, they announced that instructors may volunteer to implement them in the mid-semester. As TE was willing to see the mid-term evaluation impact of SETs, the evaluations were carried her classroom:

> I had assigned them [students] a story-telling task and everyone wrote "Hocam, we haven't started the task but we're afraid". That was great for me. I turned that task into a task with options. Either do that or do this. And for the first time in the end-of-term evaluation, workload was manageable. So, kids were satisfied with adjustment. I told them that I wouldn't cancel it but could give them an option at the same level. That option made them happy.

In other words, TE4 and TE1 think that they can settle conflicts between their expectations from the students and what the students think they can actually do. In that respect, SETs seem to have a regulatory role on the participants' teaching practices. Similarly, TE5 says that her students usually grade her down on workload. However, she does not necessarily make downward adjustments in the workload:

> In *Translation* [course], they do translation for Evrim Ağacı [an online science platform]. Their translations will be published; it's a very nice thing but they complain saying "Why don't we reduce it; why don't we go out earlier?" They say they become tired as they think on translation for three hours. And I said that "If a university student gets very tired when they think on something for three hours, the situation of that country is really pathetic", and they stopped dead in their tracks ... They don't want to spend extra effort for anything ... I said "I don't bargain; you have to do these things. You're a university student, that's jour job … You'll become teachers with some intellectual knowledge or just reading two articles in Turkish?"

As the excerpt above shows, TE5 does not really diverge from her initial course objectives as she thinks the workload she has determined is actually for the professional benefit of her students. She tries to push her students' intellectual limits and therefore, she does not offer a compromise adjustment despite receiving low grades on workload item. She also mentions the disparity in her own point of view and that of students saying that her score gets lower although she believes that her teaching has become more efficient recently.

As TE5 questions the reliability of SETs, TE4 complains about other problems. She thinks that they cannot make use SETs to the fullest for two reasons. One is they get the results very late, and cannot properly remember every detail; and the other reason is that evaluations are numeric, which does not make much sense, in actual fact. She says: "It says you got 4.7 out of 5, for example; this is the department and this is the faculty average. I mean these numerical comparisons are actually a small dimension of the issue, rather student comments are important". However, she is not really

satisfied with the comments as they are usually either "too good or too bad comments", away from being objective and informative. In the same vein, TE2 talks about the types of student comments: "You don't pay much attention to a student who cuts you up mercilessly or you don't take those who call you something like "our extremely amazing teacher" serious. Because both are equally biased." This shows that the participants care and make use of criticisms that are justified and that bring meaningful suggestions.

Relating to the drawbacks, both TE3 and TE5 draw attention to the impact of grades the students get from completing a course on the scores academic staff get from the surveys. TE3 says: "[Surveys are carried out] in the period before the finals, two weeks before. By then, the majority of the grades are already announced. So, as far as I see, comments are very related to grades". TE5 talks about the same problem and underlines that her criterion to give a high grade is to make sure that her students are able to practice what they learn in theory, and if they cannot meet this criterion, they cannot get the grade they want. Referring to those students, she says: "They get offended by not getting AA from me, and give me low grades [in the survey]". As a result, the backwash of student grades is in effect for instructor evaluation.

Apart from professional impact of SETs, the participants also speak of emotional load of student comments. They believe that student feedbacks have a power affecting not only their teaching practices but also their state of emotions. TE1, for instance says: "We become very happy with positive comments, just like a kid becomes happy when you give a sweet to them. But sometimes negative things are written, do I get sad? I get very sad". TE3 and TE4 believe that not only students but also instructors have their own subjective feelings regarding teaching practices in a particular course, and the match or mismatch between these two parties results in emotional reactions. In this respect, TE4 says:

> When we receive a bad evaluation, first of all we, of course, get upset. This is an emotional reaction but we first review it and reflect on it. That's what I do, more precisely. But sometimes it can happen like this, that is, your perspective may not coincide with the student's perspective. For instance, it becomes a very efficient course but the workload is high from the student perspective, for instance. There are also such subjective evaluations. It's no wonder that I don't agree on some comments.

As TE4 says that she may not agree on some comments, TE3 also state that she holds a subjective attitude towards student comments: “I view this process subjectively. After all, the comments are about me no matter how objectively I try to look”. She admits that the feedback she receives help her improve herself at some points but does not take each and every feedback into consideration because of their subjective nature. Namely, the difference between the two parties’ views may decrease or erode the impact of feedback on the participants. TE5 shares similar concerns with other participants:

> The comments distress me. I haven’t read for the last few times, even not opened because I saw that I was seriously impressed. But I should read, of course I’ll but when I feel better. Generally good things are written but a few of them are riled because they get low grades. I usually get criticisms like “It’s such a political course, the instructor always talks about politics”, that’s partially why I don’t read them, I guess.

Despite the uncomfortable emotions they may experience, it seems that the participants may not converge from their teaching practices if they think that the comments are subjective or in conflict with their course objectives.

Another point related to SETs is that the overall score an academic gets over a certain period has an impact on their appointment and promotion. According to XU’s previous appointment and promotion criteria (still relevant for some participants), the average of last six semesters must be higher than four points for a faculty member to be promoted to associate or full professorship. The participants, in general think that the impact of SETs is not a matter of considerable importance in the sense that those who cannot meet this criterion may compensate it with an additional publication. TE5 says:

> If you’re low and can’t get higher, then it tells you to write one more article. Then, it doesn’t count the low student evaluation. So, I can’t say this is a very important factor in appointment and promotion but is it pressure? Yes, it is. Is it a control mechanism? Yes, it is. Because I know and also saw that many instructors, just to have good evaluations, smiled at the students, gave them good grades, got on well with students, and secretly hated the student.

TE5 clearly discusses the impact of SETs on some faculty members’ social and academic relationship with the students. Similarly, TE1 talks about XU’s institutional

practice, which is an average lower than 4 points can be tolerated by an additional publication, and adds that it is a misguided implementation. She suggests: "I think the instructor can wait until the students are satisfied but… we also know those who give AAs and make the students very satisfied, so that's another thing". Similar to TE5, TE1 thinks the teacher educators' efforts to score high in SETs may lead to inflated student grades. This shows that some of their colleagues aim to build a win-win relationship, which is a mutually beneficial link between the instructor and the students. She also underlines the importance of surveys saying:

> It's the only thing students have a say in an academic's appointment and promotion … If the students really respect the instructors' professional competence, they give them their due. But I think this is also a method to say "Get a grip on yourself!" to people who view being an academic much more important than being a teacher. That's why they should be carried out.

TE1 believes that backwash effects of SETs may result in improved teaching quality particularly for academics who view teaching as of secondary importance. Moreover, she openly backs the surveys' being carried out as they function as control mechanisms in academics' promotion process. On the other hand, TE2 argues she would rather not have a relationship with students under the impact of SETs having a place in appointment and promotion criteria. She says: "So, the student shouldn't feel like they're using these evaluations as a weapon in their hands. Somehow, one has to have a more organic relationship with the students". Despite the fact that SETs may have a potential to be used as a "weapon" and "control mechanism" by the students and the university administration, the participants try to build up a genuine connection with the students, which is beyond SETs.

5.2.4.1.3. Shared Governance and Academic Freedom

As any other university in Turkey, XU's governance is based on a departmental system where the authority of decision-making is shared among standing bodies such as senates and boards (e.g., university, faculty, departmental boards). To what extent and how English language teacher educators are involved in decision-making processes is a considerable issue in the sense that their contribution might have an impact on their professional roles, practices, identities. Moreover, equally important is that the

individual academics need to enjoy academic freedom to be able to give their opinions on professional changes and decisions when contributing to decision-making processes and when practicing their professional roles. Based on this, the participants express their opinions about the university governance practices in XU, and the way and extent of their contribution.

To begin with, the participants usually speak of their experiences in XU in comparison to other Turkish universities, and thus they sound cautiously optimistic about the general atmosphere in XU. For instance, TE2 talks about XU's bottom-up recruitment policy where they, as individual academics, vote for or against the recruitment of a candidate who has already met the prerequisites of the academic position and gives a seminar in front of them:

> Unlike other universities, in XU, for example, the president can't say "No" to something the department chair, the department, the academic board say "Yes"; or the dean has no many things to say against it. Let's say that a faculty member will be hired for this university. The president can't bring someone and say "Take on this person"; so, such a thing can't happen anywhere in XU. But this is always the case in Anatolian universities. The good side of XU is that it's bottom-up. The department decides and says "We want this person".

Obviously, TE2 draws attention to the fact that decisions taken by departmental or faculty boards have a considerable power to assert supremacy over deans' or presidents' decisions. TE2's excerpt also reveals that the academic competence of a candidate and how they fit to the departmental needs are determined by an academic committee formed by academics in the department rather than top-down recommendations or appointment by the presidency. She also underlines that this an uncommon practice for many other universities in Turkey. Considering this, she concludes that: "There is still a democratic culture [in XU] that is being eroded more and more each year". TE5 similarly speaks of the democratic culture in XU by comparing it to other universities. She refers to the election of department chairs in XU:

> XU is a little more democratic in that respect. Such a democratic understanding is still widespread, so there's such a tradition. Only are faculty and full-time lecturers eligible to vote for the election of department chairs. Research assistants and students aren't eligible. Yes, it's not fully democratic but it's democratic compared to many other universities. In many places, the dean chooses the head of departments … We decide while hiring an academic staff,

> we decide while the program changes … I can't say that everything happens without us knowing, that there's no transparency. We're aware of many things, yes, but we don't know what we aren't aware of.

TE5 thinks that individual academics might usually have a say to some extent in certain issues such as elections of department chairs, hiring a new academic staff and curriculum change. She sounds optimistic about their involvement in institutional governance; however, she also remains skeptical in the sense that some other decisions above their paygrade might be taken behind closed doors as well.

The participants also mention how they convey their ideas about academic or administrative issues going on both in the department and the faculty as well. For instance, TE4 mentions departmental meeting as a means of self-expression. She thinks that these meetings pave the way for expressing needs, demands, and opinions; however, as she also states: "Some of our opinions are not taken into consideration. But since we are a department, of course, it is necessary to take into account that it's difficult to establish a consensus". TE3 also mentions a variety of channels such as quality commission, faculty executive board, department board and commissions where individual academics or their representatives can express opinions. At this point, similar to TE4, she says: "Sometimes, there can be problems in this information flow but these dynamics generally work well in XU". TE1 also mentions the meetings and boards as important opportunities to convey their ideas and suggestions. Apart from the dean, they may also find a chance to talk to the president as the president's visiting faculty board meetings is an established culture in XU. She gives an example of a meeting where she took the floor to address the president:

> The president came at a meeting and I really was listened seriously, so I feel that I got that respect. One of the three things I said was changed immediately. They said the other two would be taken care of soon, but no change has happened yet …For example, something is printed on t-shirts [one particular type of t-shirt featuring the XU logo and sold at the gift store in XU] and the symbol of our department is very similar to the British flag. I said the symbol of our department can't be the flag of another country. I think all of the t-shirts had to be withdrawn. They said they wouldn't produce after the stock run out but a new stock has arrived.

Although TE1 feels content with conveying her suggestions to an attentive administration in the meeting, she, similar to TE4 and TE3, is also aware of the fact that there might be delays or the administration might fall into a state of neglect.

They also talk about the meetings arranged by the presidency to discuss the new appointment and promotion criteria set as an opportunity to exchange ideas. TE3 states that the presidency took a sharp and an unfavorable reaction from academics because of the initial top-down process of criteria change as well as very high and challenging academic expectations; and arranged a meeting to reconcile: "Our president gathered both assistant professors and then associate professors. I don't know if it was done with professors, but he listened to and heard every idea there. So, the administration heard that reaction". TE3 also adds that these types of meetings where they are informed about a particular issue and their opinions are asked by the administration is a culture of XU. As a result, she says that the criteria have been arranged after many drafts. TE2 speaks of the same issue admitting that their opinions were asked; however, she makes assumptions about the underlying motive of the administration:

> Our opinion is asked and we give our opinion. Generally, that opinion is tried to be integrated as much as possible, but there's also something in their minds, that is, a minimum. For example, let's think about the latest appointment and promotion criteria. I think they determined a minimum in their minds. Then, they imposed on us its top level, its maximum. We said "No, that's not possible. We'll suggest something else". But they had made such a high demand that we said our proposal should be at least a mediator, something that can cause mediation. That's what usually happens. Generally something top is expected from you, you convey your opinion. In fact, you suggest what they have in mind. There's such a thing as psychological manipulation. Manipulative techniques, I mean.

TE2 says that they are involved in decision-making processes. On the other hand, she assumes that the administration creates an anchoring effect to influence their decision-making and level of acceptance through subtle techniques. Therefore, this leads her to think about the real effectiveness of their opinion expression. The participants also discuss how academic freedom can establish opportunities for individual academics to express themselves. TE3 talks about the culture of discussion without the hindrance of hierarchical structures. Such a culture is prevalent not only in departmental meetings but also through the active and open line of communication between the administrations and academics: "If need be, when there's a problem, the president can

call you when you make a request … I think it's very comforting that an academic's voice can be heard or the hierarchical environment isn't very sharp". They underline a sense of freedom of expression keeps communication channel open in all directions and also provides a comfort zone where it is possible to challenge others' views.

In the same vein, TE5 talks about how academics in XU can freely disagree with the implementations of the administration. She gives an example of a proposal by the office of the dean regarding the allocation of conference grants to academics; and how she reacted to it:

> Once again, the budget was limited, it wasn't enough for everyone, then they tried to bring some criteria: having an A-type publication. They started to introduce such criteria like you can't even apply for travel grant if you don't have an A-type publication. So, they're trying to say let the one who has the advantage, who has published, who is a full-professor be more advantaged .... I got crazy when I saw this, and prepared a very long report ... In the end, it didn't come out. It was first discussed in the department; it was objected by the department. The department's objection was sent to them. So, somehow my objection was carried.

As TE5 does not hold with the proposal, she shows an objection as an individual academic relying on academic freedom. This also shows that TE5, together with other members of the department, practices professional agency by resisting against emerging rules that threaten their professional roles. TE2 also mentions a variety of means to communicate their problems or opinions to the presidency such as writing an e-mail to the president or a petition to the department to be submitted to presidency, asking a question to the president directly in academic board meetings he attends, and signing a declaration issued by unions or professional group. She gives an example of her signing a petition about the arrest of students in pride parade lately in XU, and then participating into the protest in front of the presidency.

Apart from administrative or political issues, the participants also mention the importance of academic freedom when practicing teaching and research in XU. The common idea is that XU offers a comparatively enabling environment to not only academics but also students. In other words, both academics and students may enjoy academic freedom and autonomy in particular areas. For instance, TE4 talks about the fact that graduate students in XU have a freedom to decide on the topic they would

like to study: “But when you go to another university, there’s no such freedom. You have to work on the topic given by the professor. We don’t have to get approval from anybody about whatever material we use in the lesson”. Despite the academic freedom in graduate studies, she also adds that students are not necessarily and completely free in their social activities on campus on the grounds of restriction of various activities organized by students by the presidency and that the two parties do not really get along well. TE2 also talks about academics’ freedom and says: “No matter what department you’re in XU, your academic freedom is different from those in other universities”. She also states that she has experienced an intrusive interference neither in the type and content of courses she teaches nor the conferences she attends. As a result, doing research on the topic and attending conferences that concerns her as well as offering courses of her own specialization, she is in her element in XU. Similarly, TE5 mentions the academic freedom she enjoys in her teacher role and underlines that working in XU is the enabling factor for that:

> Despite everything in Turkey, there’s an exceptionally free atmosphere here. Despite everything, I can speak whatever I want in class. Despite some censorship. But I can’t do these anywhere else. If I had stayed in [name of the city she previously worked in], I wouldn’t have been able to do many of the things I talk about in classes or I make [my students] do. I don’t want to leave here for this reason ... For example, I have my students do research on LGBT. Exclusion of LGBTs in materials, for example; and I discuss this in class. I’m not sure if I could argue this [name of the university she previously worked in], I don’t know because it’s a conservative city, a conservative university.

They all show that the participants have autonomy with regard to their professional roles on account of non-threatening academic environment in XU. Enjoying such freedom and autonomy is of major importance for the participants, and therefore all of them stress that they have no intention to change their workplaces.

5.2.4.2. National Context of Higher Education

The English language teacher educators in the study work in a particular academic institution, XU. On the other hand, it also should be noted that their immediate academic environment is not in isolation, but rather bond to a wider context which is the national context of higher education in Turkey. Thus, the participants’ professional practices and professional identities are sensitive to the national context of higher

education which is (in)directly affected by social, political and economic changes in the country. The participants' conceptualization of the national context of higher education shaping their roles and identities is presented under three sub-titles: economic distress, academic freedom and autonomy, and lastly the shape and spirit of higher education in Turkey.

5.2.4.2.1. Economic Distress

Regardless of their commitment to their profession or institution, the participants in the study work as English language teachers for a living as well. The financial (dis)satisfaction of the participants is important considering the strong ties it has with professional satisfaction and the way they enact their professional roles. The impact of economic factors is necessary to take into consideration when it comes to professional roles and identities. The economic distress experienced by the participants is presented in two sub-categories: academic salaries and academic incentive system.

5.2.4.2.1.1. Academic Salaries: "Our Cortisol at the Top"

XU is a state university, and therefore, the English language teacher educators in this study work as civil servants whose salaries are paid by the state. This also means that they take a basic monthly salary which is closed to individual negotiation and exactly the same for all academics working in state universities. The factors that affect the amount they receive are the title they bear and their seniority. Namely, an associate professor earns a higher salary than an assistant professor. Or, an associate professor with an experience of one year earns lower than an associate professor with an experience of five years. Other than these two, they may earn a side income through other academic work including teaching extra classes if classes are in session and supervising advisees who are MA or PhD students.

In general, the participants think that the extent their salaries can cover their expenses is far from satisfactory. TE2 draws attention to the amount of salary they earn today by making a comparison with their income in the past:

> Who is today in a state that can afford to go to the conferences paying in euro? While an academic, five years ago, used to receive a salary of $1000, they get $500 today, for example. There's so much difference if you look at the impoverishment we undergo in terms of dollars.

Country-level economic conditions resulting from high inflation rates and depreciation of home currency have led to an unfavorable economic status at the individual level. The impact of economic deprivation is apparent in their professional practices such as getting difficulty in paying their expenses for attending scientific events. TE4 complains about limited financial support by the administration for their academic work. For that reason, she sometimes has to self-finance some of her expenses when going abroad for a conference: "When we go abroad, we have a terrible deficit in our own budget". Believing that their salaries are already limited, such extra costs which are normally expected to be covered fully by the university can turn out to be a burden to their own budgets.

TE5, on the other hand, talks about how she feels compelled to teach an extra class in TEFL program: "I may not teach five classes. I may teach four classes but then I can't make money. If I don't teach the fifth class, I can't get additional course fee". Normally, she receives a monthly salary for teaching a minimum of 12 hours; however, she needs to teach one more class to earn extra money as she feels that her basic salary is not satisfactory. As students in TEFL program pay tuition fee in dollar, the academics who teach them earn a considerable additional income. Therefore, teaching in TEFL program is a desired practice for the English language teacher educators particularly for monetary gain. This results in increasing teaching load not only for TE5 but also for any teacher educator teaching in TEFL program. TE5 also mentions that the situation may not be such dramatic for the academics in hard science, saying that they work for the profit of the market, and therefore they are financially advantaged: "Those who work in hard sciences mostly work with the market and corporates; research and development things, working as a consultant there. It is said that the salaries of professors there are very high because they're giving counselling". As she states working for the market provides additional income for some academics in different fields. TE1 also talks about the distress experienced due to economic instability of the country:

> We don't earn this amount of money because we work in XU. We receive it because we live in Turkey … I also look at the economic situation in my country. It's not a developed country; a developed country in some things but it's not an economically stable country. If it's not a stable country, you can't leave some things to the fate of the country. You have to think about it. People have a lot of anxiety in Turkey. What if the dollar goes up, or if this or that happens, or if I can't pay my home loan, my car loan? Of course, they don't have such concerns in other countries, but as I said, there was an economic crisis years ago in Turkey, but people didn't pour out onto the streets … I think it happened in Argentina at the same time … It was said [in the newspaper article] in Turkey, every family still has a village-town connection, and still has food to come from there. I think those family ties of us are successful at this point.

In the excerpt below, she puts stress on the fact that it is the individuals' self-responsibility to consider and arrange their own financial lives against economic insecurity resulting from country-level instable economic conditions. Additionally, she highlights that strong family links might positively impact the way academics can cope with their financial distress and economic insecurity. In the same vein, TE2 touches upon the family support as a factor partially relieving their financial worries and concerns, and then how economic insecurity and deprivation academics are exposed to cause a moral corruption in their professional practices. She says:

> First and foremost, you live under constant stress; so if you don't have any support from your family, from here or there, you're poor. Of course, I'm not comparing myself to people who earn minimum wage. If I feel poor, I can't think about how those people live. It shouldn't be like this. First of all, it simply increases the stress level. We all live with our cortisol at the top level in this country. There's a system that morally corrupts us … And gradually, of course, these people are losing their motivations and vital energy. We don't live in a country suitable for doing scientific research. In no sense. Not only scientific but also to do anything. To be a doctor, to be a teacher.

TE2 disappointedly argues that current economic conditions of the country discourage not only academics but also all professionals. She believes that they cannot get appropriate recompense for the amount of effort required to fulfill their professional roles properly. This situation results in moral corruption. In other words, feeling overstressed and disappointed cause some academics to unduly perform their duties. Similar to TE2's remarks, TE5 says: "In short, it's difficult to be a researcher and an academic in Turkey, but it's hard to be anything and everything in Turkey". In the same vein, TE3 says that: "I cannot say that academics' salaries are adequate but this

is already the case for many employees in Turkey". Moreover, TE2 states that economic distress that negatively affects academics applies to graduate students in the department as well. The graduate students usually have to work as a teacher due to financial constraints while they pursue a master's or PhD degree, and therefore they cannot fully apply their minds to graduate studies. In order to support her advisees financially, she carries out projects in which they work as paid researchers. She tells that: "If you're doing a PhD abroad, you don't need to go somewhere and teach extra. Our students, for example, are on the go teaching everywhere. It's necessary to follow and write projects to find grants for these students". As a result, economic distress turns out to be a contextual factor that affects both academics and their students negatively.

5.2.3.2.1.2. Academic Incentive System: "A Faulty System"

Academic incentive system, which was introduced by CoHE in 2016, functions as a performance evaluation system in academia. The main objective of the system is twofold. One is both increasing and evaluating the individual academics' academic performance, and the other is enhancing institutional, and thereby national academic productivity. In this system, academics are judged on certain criteria published on a yearly basis, and those who meet necessary criteria and collect points above the threshold level become eligible for receiving academic incentive allowance. Applying for allowance is not compulsory, though. Yet, it is a common practice for the participants in the study to apply to the system in order to earn a side income added on their base salaries. Therefore, they discuss the meaning they attribute to the incentive and how it affects their professional practices.

All participants except TE3 believe, at bottom, that academic incentive system does not serve the purpose of encouraging academics to produce quality academic work. On the other hand, TE3 says: "[the incentive allowance] made me happy and incentivized me. It was originally a good idea in terms of motivating people". Still, she underlines that the system has been built on individualizing the academics and therefore it would be more meaningful if the system supported and paid for collective research projects. TE4, draws attention to the fact that the academic incentive issue splits the academics in the department and speaks of her own opinion: "Above all, I

think that academic incentive does not really incentivize. It's not an incentive, people see it as money". In the same vein, TE1 tells that she applies for the allowance despite believing that the system is meaningless:

> I don't understand why we give an award to those who do their job for doing their job. Administrations think that the salaries paid to academics are low … They think "What should we do to improve this money?", then they say, "But let's not give everyone the same amount of money. Let's give more to those who work hard".

Similar to the TE1, TE5 also finds the system problematic although she feels obliged to apply for it due to unsatisfactory academic salary: "I'm not against getting paid but not based on our performance. Our salaries are already low. They should increase them. We calculate that many points but it doesn't give much [money] at all". TE5 objects to performance-based payment and suggests a satisfactory increase in salary. Similar to TE5, TE2 says that the they should be getting a satisfactory salary rather than counting points for additional income:

> It's nonsense, academics aren't encouraged like that. It's like calculating your points one by one; three liras for this, five liras for that. Under normal circumstances, academics should be making a humane salary for the things they do. That salary shouldn't be conditional. I never filled out an academic incentive [form] until last year. I didn't fill it out because I refused. I didn't fill it out because I'm against it. But then I saw that everybody does it, everybody gets money. I also need money. Now I feel so poor that I try to get everything.

It is obvious that although she met the criteria in the previous years, she did not apply to the system on purpose. However, she could not resist anymore the urge to make more money in order to compensate her low salary. She, unwillingly, goes against her principles, and makes a compromise between her principles and financial needs.

TE3 and TE4 also talk about the problematic parts of the system from a similar point of view. They both complain about the fact that CoHE makes a long overdue announcement of the incentive criteria as well as the fact that they are under constant change. TE3 tells that: "We, now see that reviewing doesn't bring points. These aren't disclosed in advance and you can't direct your work accordingly. If you score under 30 points, it's not evaluated anyway". TE4 stresses that the criteria are "inconsistent" due to the constant revision they undergo each year. She also tells that: "This year's criteria were announced in February. Therefore, this is quite a distress for people. I'm

of the opinion that this doesn't have an incentive effect on academics". As for other problems, TE2 believes that the system does not serve the purpose. Rather, it deteriorates the academics' understanding of academic labor. She refers to some academics saying that:

> It's not a system that makes people productive. It's a system that actually makes people lazy, that mechanizes people. You seem to have done more work but what is the content? Nobody asks the content of what you did. It doesn't matter how much time you spend on it; how much impact it has made.

TE2 discusses the negative transformative effect of the system on their labor pattern in addition to the fact that this may lead to a radical change in the understanding of science. Moreover, she underlines that a system such as academic incentive is not enough to increase the quality and quantity of academic works as there are various other factors which are embedded in the country's scientific, cultural, economic atmosphere, and they as a whole have an impact on their professional practices. TE4 similarly refers to the same type academics and she tells how an urge to make more money might cause low-grade publications: "Whatever is non-standard, not really high-quality, [they are] trying to get it published somewhere and make money out of it. There are too many [academics] like this in universities in the provinces, unfortunately". TE5 thinks similarly and calls academic incentive as a "faulty system". She clearly argues that the incentive system implicitly impels academics to unethical professional practices: "[The system] forces you to perform and causes many worthless publications. People are trying to go to the conferences like crazy, presenting three papers at one conference. You cite me and I cite you just to get citations, points". She also tells how difficult it is to adhere to ethical values as the system functions as an underlying triggering mechanism for ethical corruption. In that respect, she gives an example showing how she was hovering on the brink of accepting one of her advisee's offer. She talks about her experience of co-supervision of a master's thesis in another university. The advisee who plans to present her research study in a conference abroad offers TE5 to add her name as co-presenter. Despite the student's insistence, TE5 tells that she refused as she thinks that it is unethical considering that ownership of presentations and publications out of theses belongs to the students themselves. She reflects on her decision and says:

> But let me admit, in such a case, I thought about getting my name added as it may bring points and I use those points for academic incentive or [promotion to] associate professorship whatever. Because she offered it very sincerely. On the one hand, I thought that I worked so hard, I actually sat down and read it for long hours. Because the system expects you to produce more; it looks at the quantity, not the quality. That's why you question it like that, and you see everyone is doing this ... Even something I'm so annoyed with can be attractive; and I think it's very dangerous. But I don't know if this is too much Don Quixotism in such a system.

The example she experienced shows how she feels some level of ambivalence over this particular choice. It is obvious although she applies for the incentive allowance, she does not change or direct her professional work practices to be in line with academic incentive criteria to make more money.

5.2.4.2.2. Academic Freedom and Autonomy

5.2.4.2.2.1. Academic Freedom: Playing Safe

Apart from internal academic and administrative policies inherent in XU, the organization of higher education system at national level has a considerable impact on the way and extent of academic freedom that the participants can exercise. It should also be noted that political factors that affect country-level higher education policies have a direct impact on the institutional context which is the participants' immediate environment in which they practice their professions. As a result, it can be said that country-level policies affect not only universities as institutions but also individual academics. Thus, the participants in the study discuss the extent of sociopolitical developments and changes in Turkey as factors having an impact on their professional practices and identities.

To begin with, TE3 states that both political issues and social taboos are big hindrances in front of their freedom of self-expression which is an integral part of academic freedom: "I think that these economic, political and social conditions prevent free discussion of ideas. Of course, there's a pressure, sometimes there's a feeling of being stuck but it's not just about the governments, there's also pressure from the society". On the other hand, she underlines that the academic context of XU keeps them out of those hindrances to a large extent compared to other universities in the country.

Regarding societal taboos, TE1 shares an example of a classroom activity through which they analyzed a published article with the students. The article was about the fact that some people in Turkey slaughter their own animals themselves and get injured in the Eid-al-Adha. When her focus was on the author's attitude and tone of voice, she felt uneasy with the reaction of a student of hers and was afraid of the fact that the student might have complained about her. She tells:

> I told that the author didn't criticize anything, didn't say that was nonsense, there was no adjective but the fact that that news came out, that was the promotion of Turkey. And I said that there is no irony, no sarcasm, but obviously the author has a problem. One of the students said that this didn't only happen in Turkey, but also abroad. I said where? He said that it could happen in England and Germany, Muslims could slaughter there. I asked "Can you see the slaughtering of an animal on a viaduct in a European Union country? Can you see the blood of the animals spilling into a river?". Now obviously we think differently. Then I went home and said, "Ah, he's going to make a complaint about me now". Can he really make a complaint about me? Yes, he can say that the instructor is making fun of my religious feelings.

This shows that the students' religious sensitivity may turn out to be a source limitation. TE4 also speaks of the fact that the students function as control mechanisms against their academic freedom in the classroom. TE4 says: "The students act as a control mechanism here. When something goes wrong, the student goes, for example, to report it directly. For example, they can inform the administrative unit". It is highlighted that the administrative units at the institutional level and CIMER (Presidential Communication Center) at the national level work as two platforms where students can lodge a complaint about the instructors. Although academic freedom that enables academics to freely express their opinions, they may refrain due to fear of retribution. These worries may keep them from free-expression of opinions. They may either completely abstain from issues that may cause conflict or touch upon them with fear.

Moreover, the accounts of the participants usually refer to the lingering impact of the failed coup attempt of 2016 in Turkey on academia. In other words, the government declared a state of siege during the political turmoil after the coup attempt, and this process resulted in both a post-coup purge and crackdown having a detrimental effect on academics, as well as other public servants. TE1 mentions how an important number of academics were sacked suddenly: "While they were commuting to work

every day in their daily lives, all of a sudden, those people stopped coming [to work] in Turkey. This is very tragic and traumatic for those who work in such places". On the other hand, she thinks that they did not experience such a trauma to a large extent due to the fact that the environment in XU was safer and the number of academics affected by the process of purge was comparatively very limited. TE5 similarly talks about the post-coup purge and the widespread practice of informing on and making complaints officially. She tells the distress caused by the fear of dismissal and the students may convey complaints about her to the appropriate authorities have been serious threats to her academic freedom that affect her professional practices. She tells:

> We translated an article from *the New York Times* criticizing Turkey and Erdoğan. I told [the students] that many of the views there were debatable, and I didn't agree on many of them, but we were translating it to see what they said. But this alone can be the subject of being reported if they want to report. An investigation can be launched directly ... A state of emergency was declared and people were kicked out without even an investigation, with no chance to claim your rights. Of course, this has created a serious pressure. So, you live in the fear of being fired and [lived] by looking at the decrees if your name was on the list [of mass firings]. I had a chapter in a book that came out in America, we censored many things even in it ... I don't need to tell you that I'm afraid on *Facebook* and *Twitter* or whatever. Am I completely silent though? No. I'm not completely speechless, but I can't express what I want to say at 100%. I speak in the lessons despite everything but I'm afraid too. You don't have a chance to be a fully independent intellectual; after all, you work in an institution within the system.

She underlines that the government's oppressive policies have caused a serious fear and stress on herself, and also exemplifies how these policies may hold down academics. As she reveals, even teaching and publication activities can be violated and blocked due to lack of freedom of speech, which is an integral component of academic freedom. Therefore, self-censorship practices are common in order not to face a severe intervention from the authorities. At this point, TE3 shares TE5's concern about impossibility of being fully independent, and views the state itself as a limiting factor against freedom of expression. TE3 tells: "A student studies or gets a job with state funding, or you are working somewhere with state funding, how can one question the authority there?". TE5 adds on the issue of questioning authority by giving examples. She mentions that the LGBT film festival arranged by the students in XU was denied by the police as a result of the decision of the governorship of the city. She also mentions how the placard-waving students in the graduation ceremony

were arrested by the police on charges of insulting the President Erdoğan in the past years. Thus, she concludes that the authority of the state can be a threat against not only academics but also students who work and study in a system produced and maintained by the state policies.

Moreover, TE1 discusses how academic freedom of the presidents of the Turkish universities has suffered in recent years due to the changing political conditions of the country. She talks about the fact that the presidents as a whole, as representatives of the universities they managed, used to officially take a stand for or against a development in Turkey's political agenda. She associates the fact that this common practice of the presidents does not continue today with the changing political atmosphere of the country. She refers to the current political atmosphere of the country and says: "Expressing your opinion has a structure that brings so much caution that you cannot say anything in a situation where it would be natural to express an opinion". Yet, she thinks that the academic environment in XU is comparatively at a better condition despite the impact of occasional political chaos at the country-level. In the same vein, TE2 thinks that XU is less prone to the detrimental effects of political turmoils or the policies of governmental authorities. She thinks that this basically results from two factors: solidarity culture in XU, and both academic and market value of the university. She says:

> A lot of people got fired from universities for signing that peace declaration … No one, no professor in XU was fired because of such a thing. Because there is resistance here; because there are students and professors here who try to preserve that culture ... But this isn't something that will only happen with that tradition. So, the state also has something to lose because XU is active in many projects today. Military, renewable energy, neuroscience, space exploration, crypto thing, security … So, there is also another side of it. However, a lot is being done. A road was built inside XU. A lot of things happened with the elections of deans and presidents but, for example, they couldn't bring a top-down president as they did in [name of the university].

The excerpt shows that XU is not completely divorced from the impositions of the government. Yet, solidarity culture inherent in XU as well as the academic and market value of XU serve as a shield against oppressive governmental policies. Consequently, the accounts of the participants reveal that even if their institutiton provides them with a comparatively safer and freer athmosphere, they are inescapably exposed to

restraining political and societal influences. Therefore, they seek to shelter themselves from such outside influences by playing safe.

5.2.4.2.2.2. The Council of Higher Education: "Control Freak Situation"

After the Turkish army seized power with the coup staged in 1980, Higher Education Law that came into force in 1981 issued the establishment of the Council of Higher Education (CoHE). As an institution actively functioning since then, CoHE works to coordinate universities and plan higher education system. As the only institution responsible from the higher education policies, universities have direct links to CoHE. As the autonomy that universities have trickles down to individual academics, increased institutional autonomy is expected to provide an increased freedom for the academics as well. In that respect, the participants in the study view the impact of CoHE both on universities and on themselves as restrictive.

Several criticisms are leveled at the centralized system of CoHE by the participants. For example, TE3 says: "It seems overly centralized. There is already a control mechanism, there is authority over universities, naturally. For example, preparation of syllabi by CoHE". The institution's centralized structure is a ground for TE4's criticisms as well. Similar to TE3, TE4 also refers to the changes made in undergraduate curriculum by CoHE. They talk about the process before a shift towards institutional localism was introduced by CoHE in the mid-2020. CoHE decided to grant autonomy to faculties of education to develop and update the curriculum for undergraduate teaching programs providing that the programs will be built within the general framework of course categories and weights predetermined by CoHE. TE4 speaks of the frequent curriculum changes made by CoHE before the delegation of authority decision and the burden it created on academics referring to the latest one where course hours were diminished to two hours from three hours: "It had a serious negative reflection on me. It was very difficult to fit three-hour-course content to two-hour-course content. I started to teach six courses instead of four. This caused me to put extra effort and undertake a huge burden". Obviously, the negative impact of top-down curriculum changes implemented by CoHE in faculties of education led to distress and additional course load for academic staff in the sense that they both had to redesign their course content, teach extra courses and a bigger number of students

in total. In order to exemplify these top-down policies, TE4 refers to a meeting hosted by CoHE and tells that CoHE does not have an inclusive attitude although it invites academics to express their opinions:

> We had a discussion there about offering some courses in different semesters. None of the ideas we declared as reasons there were taken serious. Unfortunately, only in very few of the decisions regarding education, does CoHE follow an inclusive policy for all academic staff. In other words, the opinion that it acts according to the decisions of a certain group, in a very narrow scope, has grown stronger.

It seems that CoHE does not stand at an equal distance to all universities and there might be universities and groups dominant in the decision-making processes. This situation leads TE4 to believe that their ideas are not considered important.

TE1, on the other hand, believes that a centralized control by CoHE up to a certain extent may be necessary to maintain a similar educational quality among universities; however, she adds that the control system in the Turkish higher education system is excessive:

> There is also an opinion that universities should remain autonomous. I am not that much of a supporter, so I think that universities should be controlled somehow. I mean a standard must be met ... But we have a lot of control. So, for example, you want to hire staff, but you can't. If you want to do something, but you can't; you have to meet this and this in CoHE, it should depend on the number of that and that. There's a control freak situation.

Participants mention another policy implemented by CoHE as giving damage to both the universities' autonomy and their individual academic freedom: appointment of presidents of universities by the president of the country and the appointment of deans by CoHE. They all say that the fact that elections were done away with is an implementation showing the lack of institutional autonomy of the universities. TE2 and TE3 state that faculty members cannot fully participate in the governance of university any more due to appointment criterion. Despite being democratic, TE5 mentions that the election model had its own flaws as well. She says: "We weren't able to participate in the presidential elections. Lecturers and research assistants weren't eligible. So it wasn't fully democratic, but at least faculty members could choose. [Presidents] become students' governor too; everyone should participate".

TE2 adds on TE5's accounts saying that a presidential candidate to university who received the highest number of votes did not necessarily use to be appointed by the president of the country. TE1 talks about the lack of representation of lecturers as a problem: "I think there should be representatives of lecturers. There is the representative of associate professors and the representative of assistant professors in the faculty. If the lecturer was there, of course they would give a perspective". However, she believes that the current organizational system of the universities does not enable the representation of the lecturers, and it seems that this is a problematic issue with regard to their legitimacy.

The participants also raise a point about the student quotas. In the current system, CoHE determines the student quotas for all programs in universities, which seems problematic to the participants. TE1 says: "Every year 100-110 students come to our department. We make request of a certain number of students, they [CoHE] exceed it. I think the range of 25-30 is good in methodology classes but there are sections going up to 35-40-45". TE4 talks about the same issue stating that they have no control over the student quotas. She adds that crowded classrooms decrease the quality of teaching and learning: "In *Reading* course, which is *Academic Reading* that should be built on discussion, there were 43 people in the class. I mean, this really reduce the quality of my education. So, the issues that stress me out". TE5 believes that faculties of education are, as a whole, not truly appreciated compared to other departments. Therefore, all the programs in faculties of education are thronged with students:

> CoHE imposes 120 students on us. Why don't we have a say? We suggest it drop to 70-80. It [CoHE] doesn't leave you much space. Faculties of education are very crowded. The number of students per instructor in faculties of education is very high. So, it's also about the importance given to this profession.

They strongly believe that the autonomy to determine the student quotas for each program should be granted to the academic staff working in that particular program. As a result, academics' lack of control over issues that are directly related to their professional practices together with restrictive policies turn out to be an unfavorable condition that diminishes quality of teaching and learning, and increases the feeling that teacher education is a discipline which is not placed high importance on by the authorities.

5.2.4.2.3. The Shape and Spirit of Higher Education in Turkey

It is obvious that higher education system in Turkey is under the impact of global higher education policies. However, there is no denying that it bears its own characteristics resulting from unique social, economic and political factors. One common opinion that the participants in the study bring up regarding the higher education system in Turkey is the fact that the number of universities has been growing in inverse proportion to academic quality. Namely, they bring criticisms to the university boom as maintaining academic quality of these universities has turned out to be a tall order. TE3 speaks of the university boom: "New universities are being established because access is an important issue while developing higher education policies … But of course, quality needs to be increased". TE4 questions the policy of establishing universities, saying that: "The number of both private and public universities in Turkey has reached an incredible level. You see a university everywhere you look". TE4 airs her concern about the fact that the state encourages the expansion of universities across the country with an increase in not only state-owned universities but also private entrepreneurial universities established by foundations. Similarly, TE2 argues that establishing universities has turned out to be a business for entrepreneurial foundations, and this is the triggering factor for the boom. She says: "In the first place, there shouldn't be that many universities anyway. So, it has become a business now … the standards of those universities should not be at the applied school level". She underlines that quality is a core aspect of universities that should not go unheeded, and thus their academic quality needs to be enhanced. In the same vein, TE1 discusses the low academic quality of the majority of universities in Turkey. She likens those universities to "higher high-schools":

> We call it higher education, but most institutions seem like higher high-school, not like universities. Going to university should really have a distinctive feature, it should have a distinctive value. I think that this value has been eroded by opening unnecessary universities or unnecessary private universities … I don't think they [private universities], except 4 or 5, provide a contribution. They could have contributed as such. There is a serious shortage of intermediate staff in Turkey, they could have been vocational schools. And we don't have a policy, so how many English teachers I need, how many linguists I need is not considered. In this sense, I think that higher education has serious problems.

TE1 argues that lack of a successful higher education policy has led to many problems in academia and these problems have eventually extended to society. It seems that the quality of education has not increased in parallel with the number of both public and private universities. Additionally, lack of needs analysis in higher education planning contributes to not only the redundancy of graduates of certain bachelor's degree programs but also craft worker shortage. TE5 echoes the simile that TE1 uses for some universities, "higher high-schools", to discuss the quality problems of universities in Turkey. She believes that new universities are not established for the purpose of developing intellectual minds but to serve the market. She says:

> Higher education has now become something like high school ... New universities are constantly being opened to make money, to develop a place or to reduce unemployment regardless of to what extent something of high quality is done there. Such a huge university boom is unqualified and very problematic. Or even if there is quality in higher education, it is a technical quality, not an intellectual one.

Discussing the higher education system particularly touching upon the problems of university boom, academic quality decline, and lack of successfully planned and implemented policies, the participants also mention how the current education system cause them to feel heavy-hearted when it comes to their profession and professional practices. In this sense, they argue that there is a mutual relationship between the higher education and in K-12 schools especially given that graduates of ELT programs are largely recruited by K-12 schools. This is why problems in one system directly affect the other. TE1 depicts the current atmosphere of education system:

> Is it worth all that effort? Then I say that the work we do affects maybe two people out of a hundred people, two people out of a thousand people; but at least it affects someone. But there is a point where we are more pessimistic. No one is as romantic as they were at the beginning of the profession. Honestly, I wouldn't have wanted to graduate right now. It's harder to start teaching right now. It is also difficult in terms of the power of the teacher. There is no parent who cares about the teacher and there is no student group that cares about the teacher.

TE1 views that the status of teaching as a profession have eroded over the years. Deprofessionalization of teaching at K-12 level has an impact on the way teacher educators view their own profession. The fact that the education system is not developing but

regressing at times and teachers' deprofessionalization in line with these regressive developments make TE1 gloomy, and therefore, she questions the value of their efforts. In the same vein, TE3 considers English language education system in general and concludes that there has been no improvement in teaching techniques, teacher and student profiles despite the frequent policy changes in K-12 level. She says: "Unfortunately, I think neither English language teaching nor the student profile has changed much. It has been many years since I quit teaching, and it is a big problem that English is still taught in a similar way". She believes that this is a serious problem of not only K-12 system but also ELT programs in universities. TE4 also mentions the policy changes frequently implemented in both higher education and in K-12 schools. Keeping up with these changes, trying to understand and adapt to them as an academic, and heavily or slightly retouching teaching and research agendas to chime in with these changes and expectations turns out to be a strain on her. Concerning these factors, she remarks:

> We're faced with frequent changes both in higher education and national education. These external expectations, increasing burdens on academics and the burden of adapting to changes make me feel more disadvantaged. Therefore, I sometimes think we can't train teacher candidates sufficiently. Especially in applied courses.

TE1 similarly speaks of the frequent changes and calls the Turkish education system as "system of dead innovations". She says: "There is a constant innovation, but no one follows that innovation up. We want to see the result instantly, which I think is a social thing. Because we're a very impatient society". The participants stress that reforms on a systemic level do not often serve the purpose, and equally important is the strain of failed reform attempts that both teachers and teacher educators have to take and overcome.

TE2 believes that serious problems of higher education resulting from the current state of the country have direct impact on academics' professional lives. She believes that academics are rewarded for their hard work neither monetarily nor emotionally, and some end up with lack of commitment for their work. Additionally, spirit of the system in academia pushes people to individualism rather than working for the society collectively: "There should be an environment where everyone does everything they can to advance this society, that is, puts the welfare of the society above all else. There is no such environment. Everyone strives for themselves". TE5 similarly talks about individualism prevalent in academia. She believes that academics work in their

individualized areas in order to meet the requirements of being "academics as technicians" rather than becoming intellectuals who think and work for the good of society. In her opinion, "We live in a time when anti-intellectualism is very common. Everyone is doing their research in their own small area; publishing, getting their points, and getting promoted. Does this do any good to humanity?". To conclude, the participants are in general feel gloomy about the current situation of higher education system in Turkey, and moreover, about how the existing system positions themselves and their work. From their perspective, while the shape of Turkish higher education is much like mushrooming apartment buildings across the country, its spirit is no beyond that of higher high-schools.

5.2.4.4. Summary of Findings

The impact of institutional and national higher education contexts on the participants' professional roles and identities is presented in this section. The institutional context of higher education is analyzed in three sub-categories: collegial factors, student evaluations of teaching, and institutional governance and academic freedom in XU.

To begin with, although the participants seem to belong to a particular professional community in XU, the degree of feeling a part of that community changes as a result of their lived experiences with colleagues. The common view is that the general atmosphere in the department is not encouraging for professional sharing and collaboration. Firstly, the department does not have an official induction or mentoring program for newcomers. Therefore, newcomers are expected to find their own ways during the process of adaptation. It appears that the colleagues in the same department are neither aware of each other's research studies nor exchange good practices of teaching. Thus, relationships with colleagues does not seem to make a considerable positive contribution to their professional identity.

As for student evaluation surveys, the participant accounts show that they create both professional and emotional impact on the participants. The common practice of the participants about this issue is to have a look at their scores, their ranks in the department and the faculty, and read comments about themselves when they receive the results. As for professional impact, while the common view is that the surveys help them reflect on their own practices such as workload or assessment, this does not

necessarily mean that they change their practices believing that some comments may be biased, too subjective, or under the influence of low student grades; and they question the reliability of the survey. They believe that use of survey scores as a criterion in appointment and promotion criteria may lead academics to give high grades to students in return for receiving high scores from the surveys. In that respect, it is also believed that the surveys can function as a tool controlling the academics' teaching practices despite the very limited impact it has on their promotion. Additionally, XU administration conveys confusing messages relating to the importance of certain professional roles by offering a chance to compensate low average scores with extra publishing. As for emotional impact, the participants feel not only emotional distress with negative comments but also recognition and appreciation with positive comments. They all have their own coping strategies with negative comments such as disregarding, complete rejection or self-adjustment. Compared to negative comments, suggestive feedbacks have a higher potential to affect the participants' teaching practices.

Lastly, the extent of the participants' contribution to institutional governance and how they use academic freedom during contribution to decision-making processes is important for their professional selves. All participants prefer referring to other universities in Turkey to depict the situation in XU. It can be said that the participants think that they can contribute to decision-making processes in XU through attending faculty or departmental board meetings where they can convey their problems, questions or suggestions as well as electing representatives to speak for their rights or common decisions. They believe that XU has an inherent democratic culture despite some problems. It also seems that the participants feel that they are consulted by the administration and that their voice is more authoritative on certain issues such as elections of department chairs, hiring a new academic staff and curriculum change. Moreover, they can exercise academic freedom to object to oppressive policies or proposals by the office of dean or presidency as an individual academic or as the department, as a result of which both faculty and central administrations may need to concur with the academics' shared opinion. On the other hand, there is also a doubt about the fact that the administration might be covertly using manipulative techniques as a means of governing the academics. The participants also feel that they have freedom when practicing their research and teaching roles compared to other

universities in Turkey. Additionally, it seems that academic freedom in research applies to students in XU as well although they sometimes suffer from restrictive institutional policies regulating their social activities and freedom of expression. The general view of the participants is that they feel they work in an academic institution where they enjoy shared governance and academic freedom to a greater extent than their colleagues do in other universities in Turkey. XU makes them feel it is like a safe area for them. The fact that they are not oppressed or restricted when performing their professional roles is a source of satisfaction which results in high level of institutional belonging.

National context of higher education is presented through three sub-categories: economic distress, academic freedom and autonomy, and the shape and spirit of higher education in Turkey. As for economic distress, the participants speak of academic salaries and academic incentive system. They express widespread concerns about their salaries. The current state of economy in Turkey is associated with instability that leads to high inflation rates and depreciation of home currency. As a result, the participants complain about inadequate pay and reveal how this turns out to be a stress factor for themselves. They underline that they cannot finance themselves for academic meetings abroad by means of their salaries not only because it is limited but also because depreciation of home currency. They also may have to teach more to get additional course fee in order to compensate for inadequate salaries. From their perspective, additionally, academics in hard sciences may work in collaboration with the industry where they are paid high amounts of money compared to the academics in social sciences. They also highlight that unsatisfactory salaries are typical of Turkey regardless of the profession. Therefore, it is believed that the national context of the country motivates neither academics nor other professionals to work and perform their duties with commitment. As a result, they have to struggle to meet their financial needs and maintain their standards of living due to the country's increasing economic instability.

Academic incentive system introduced by CoHE functions as a pay for performance system in the Turkish academia. In general, the participants believe that this merit pay does not serve the purpose of encouraging academics to produce quality academic work. Instead, they tell that it encourages unethical academic behaviors to receive

more payment. They state that it does not have any meaning beyond additional income, a sort of compensation for low academic salaries. As a result, even if they do not approve of the system, they apply for the merit pay upon meeting the criteria. On the other hand, some of the participants have a tendency to steer their works towards the requirements of the criteria set as they complain about frequent criteria change and late announcement of the criteria. Lastly, they also discuss that the system leads to low-grade publications, negatively transforms academic labor pattern, and this may eventually lead to a radical change in the understanding of science by academics.

Furthermore, sociopolitical changes in the country have an impact on the participants' professional selves. They underline that social taboos as well as political issues has a potential to prevent them from freely expressing their opinions. This situation may make them feel stuck or uneasy. In this regard, it becomes obvious that students may act as control mechanisms against their freedom of expression in the classroom. The participants also refer to the aftermath of the failed coup attempt of 2016 as a factor creating an oppressive atmosphere for academics. In this sense, mass firing of academics during that period was threatening and worrisome for them. They discuss how the government's oppressive policies have hold down both presidents of universities and individual academics as they may have to censor themselves in research or be very cautious about in-class practices and discussions. Some participants discuss the possibility and extent of academic freedom to question the state authority as they are already recruited and paid by the state. This situation applies to the students considering the oppressive policies imposed on them. Lastly, they give XU credit for providing a more protected academic environment against governmental policies. In addition to its academic success and strong bonds with industry, there is an established solidarity culture maintained by both academics and students in XU. Despite losing blood, these factors make XU an institution comparatively less susceptible to outer attacks on academic freedom.

Additionally, CoHE is thought to have a restrictive impact on institutional and individual autonomy. The participants criticize its overly centralized structure as an authority on higher education institutions. However, TE1 partially support the existence of CoHE since it can check whether the universities meet certain standards. Moreover, they talk about CoHE's restrictive top-down curriculum policy that used to

be implemented in faculties of education before the delegation of authority decision. In addition, it is underlined that CoHE does not hold an inclusive attitude as it works more closely with certain groups and institutions. All participants believe that the fact that the government did away with elections for presidents and deans is a sign of the lack of institutional autonomy of the universities. As presidents of universities are appointed, they underline that faculty members cannot fully participate in the governance of university any more. The flaws of the election system are discussed as well. The fact that lecturers, research assistants and students were not eligible for voting and that receiving the highest number of votes did not necessarily guarantee a candidate to be appointed are two important criticisms levelled at the previous system. Also, the current organizational system of the universities does not facilitate the representation of the lecturers. Lastly, it appears that universities have no autonomy over student quotas since they are determined by CoHE. To conclude, the participants' complete or partial lack of control over issues that are directly related to their professional practices turns out to be an unfavorable condition that diminishes quality of teaching and increases a feeling of damaged autonomy and freedom.

Finally, all participants think that one of the most noticeable issues relating to higher education in Turkey is the university boom. They all think that although both private and public universities grow in number, the academic quality of these institutions are low. For them, establishing universities has turned out to be a business, and the universities move away from the aim of developing intellectualism towards serving for the market. It is also stressed that lack of needs analysis in higher education planning is a reason for the redundancy of graduates of certain bachelor's degree programs as well as craft worker shortage, which are two important problems reflected directly in society.

Additionally, the participants discuss how the current state of higher education has made them feel gloomy regarding their professional practices. English language teachers' deprofessionalization in line with problems embedded in both higher, secondary and primary education systems make them gloomy. They talk about frequent policy changes and implementations in all levels of education. While these changes do not lead to an improvement in ELT, the burden of adapting to these changes is another problem. Other problems are related to the fact that academic system in Turkey pushes people to

individualism, that academics are experiencing a process in which they turn into technicians rather than intellectuals, and that the system rewards academics neither materially nor emotionally, and therefore some end up with lack of commitment for their work. Figure 2 gives a visual representation of professional identity conceptualization for English language teacher educators.

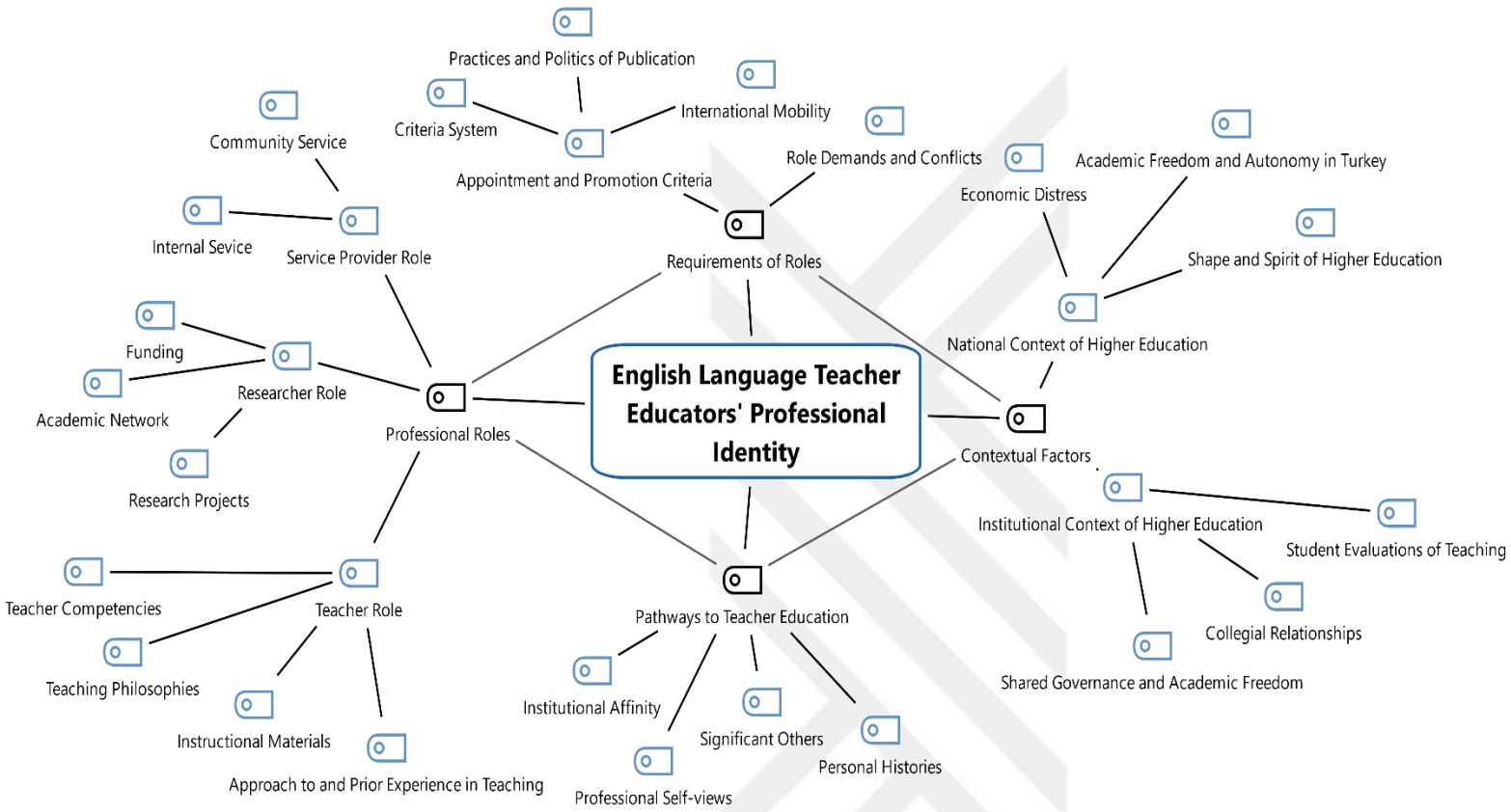


Figure 2. English Language Teacher Educators'Professional Identity Conceptualization

5.3. English Language Teacher Educators' Political Roles as Intellectuals

The previous two parts in the results section gave an analysis of official documents generated by XU and IB as well as interview and observation results aiming to reveal the professional identity construction of the participants. This last part of findings is based on the analysis of a triad of semi-structured interviews conducted with the participants, course observations carried out in the participants' classrooms, and analysis of their course outlines and publications in order to reveal the essence of their teaching and research practices guided by their political roles as intellectuals. Thus, the findings reported in this section will provide answers to the following research question:

R.Q.: 3. In what ways do English language teacher educators' political roles as intellectuals influence their teaching and research practices?

In order to answer the third research question, document analysis, classroom observations and interviews were used together to be able to identify discrepancies and consistencies between the participants' classroom practices and their accounts in interviews and reveal other important points if they were not mentioned in interviews. As a result, for the purpose of data collection to answer the research question above, five courses were observed in total. Namely, I observed each participant teaching one particular undergraduate course. The length of all the courses I observed were three hours weekly except *Practice Teaching* course, which was a two-hour-course. The observations of these courses lasted for four weeks each.

During the observations, I wrote down both the general atmosphere in the classrooms and details about the way the participant English language teacher educators acted during teaching. Therefore, the field notes I took grew into a considerable amount of raw data at the end of the observations. For the analysis process, I did the first reading to get a general understanding of data at hand. Next time, I did a closer reading. I aimed to reduce the volume of notes, and thus sought out the significant information and patterns across lessons of each particular course. Lastly, I wrote the course descriptions and identified related instances from the field notes. I also asked a semi-structured interview question to the participants about the politics of (English) language learning and teaching, and also the place of such issues in their professional

practices. As a result, I brought together interview analysis, observation analysis and document analysis to arrive at a comprehensive answer to the research question.

5.3.1. TE1's Political Role as an Intellectual

To begin with, TE1 distinguished between inner circle countries (see Kachru, 1985) such as the States and the UK who commercialize their official and national languages and countries such as Turkey which English is sold to. Based on this, TE1 believes that ELT is definitely a political issue for both types of countries. She underlines that both parties are affected by the politics embedded in ELT. She illustrates her view with a topical issue that remained on the agenda for some time in Turkey. She discusses how a piece of news about the recruitment of 40,000 foreign English teachers in K-12 schools in Turkey aroused excitement and interest in public back years ago, and concludes saying that: "I think an English teacher should know this situation and learn to read between the lines of political things and writings accordingly" (Interview, TE1). Also, she refers to the courses offered in the department as a means to teach pre-service teachers the politics of ELT. When she is asked about how the courses she offers contribute to pre-service teachers' learning the politics of ELT, she gives an example from *English Language Testing and Evaluation* course she frequently teaches:

> It [discussing politics of ELT] happens when appropriate. For example, English is a global language, but exams on English, like TOEFL, are a global business, that is, an industry. For example, we are talking about this while we are dwelling on this issue. Now they [inner circle countries] not only teach English, but also start to multiply their money. I think they [pre-service teachers] should be aware of these things. (Interview, TE1)

In order to uncover how her views about politics of ELT are reflected in her teaching practices, I observed TE1 in *English Language Testing and Evaluation* for four weeks. First of all, it was a must course that fell into the category of methodology courses and designed for senior students. It was a face-to-face and three-hour-per-week course. The aim of the course was stated as "presenting senior student teachers an understanding of how to test and evaluate English language learners in different ages and proficiency levels" in the course outline. In order to achieve this aim, TE1 introduced test types and test design techniques that measure language skills, grammar

and vocabulary to the students during the term. Through the end of the term, the pre-service teachers were also expected to practice how to prepare and evaluate exam questions. The students were assessed on three components: Pre, while and post class tasks composed of application, reflection and research; a midterm; and an applied final project where students were asked to design a test with specifications. The course was highly loaded from the instructor's perspective as she had to cover a wide variety of topics. It was also loaded for the students since they encountered various terms and concepts regarding testing and assessment for the first time. Additionally, they were expected to participate in in-class discussions; and to design, implement and evaluate different types of tests and exams. Therefore, TE1 was trying to make the most of teaching time to fully cover the weekly topics. Yet, this was not a teacher centered classroom as class hours were equally divided between lectures given by TE1 as well as discussions and hands-on activities carried out by students.

TE1 was genial and approachable all the time. The students could ask questions without hesitation. Before she started the class, she always had small talks with the students asking about their academic conducts. For instance, she started a talk about the practicum schools they attended and how they felt about practicum experience before she began with the topic of the week. Or she talked about the Halloween party that was organized by some undergraduate students in the department building and asked if anyone had attended the party. Additionally, she started the class every week either by revisiting her slides she had used in the previous week or asking the students what they remembered from the last lesson they did. The course content was comprised of highly technical terms and concepts that the students had not been introduced before in any other previous courses. Still, TE1 had an excellent command of this particular subject matter and successfully engaged the students in the lesson through the materials and techniques she used in the classroom. She never took attendance in the classroom. However, almost everyone attended all the classes observed because they mostly seemed enjoying the classes. Apart from that, the fact that the students were given a score out of several in-class tasks that were conducted before any prior warning was an implementation of her to make the students attend the classes.

As for TE1's political role in teaching, my observations were presented in the following paragraphs. In a lesson where she touched upon the topic of 'backwash effect in testing', she talked about the impact of high-stakes tests in Turkey on teachers, parents and students. She told the students that these high-stakes tests cause a competition among not only students but also schools. She also told an anecdote about how these tests changed parents' expectations about education in schools:

> Students in the 8th grade and in the 12th grade study nothing but they study for the exam. Three years ago, I was taking my students to [name of the school] for school practicum. A parent entered the vice-principal's room and said: "My son is taking art as an elective course and the teacher makes them do painting. Isn't it better that the teacher makes them practice tests?" (Observation Week 2, TE1)

Based on this anecdote, she underlined the content, design and implementation of the high-stakes tests that 8th and 12th graders take, and how this resulted in a type of backwash effect even on parents. In this way, she shortly expressed her thoughts about a particular aspect of the politics of testing in Turkey.

When she was talking about the test development process in another lesson I observed, she focused on each step one by one. In one of the steps called as 'trial', she told the students that test writers give test items to native speaker teachers so that they could read through them to get rid of any grammar mistake. At this point, she touched upon educated and uneducated native speaker teacher problem in schools. She warned the students about their prospective colleagues and suggested them question their education level and quality rather than directly relying on their language proficiency as native speakers: "Because all around the world, we have uneducated native speaker teachers who teach English just because they were born in the United States or in the United Kingdom (Observation Week 3, TE1)." In this way, she briefly touched upon the undue privileges of being a native speaker of English with no pedagogical background, and hence aimed to spread awareness among the students.

In another lesson, while the students were giving opinions about a discussion question, she touched upon the issue of native speaker teachers of English. She asked students how common hiring native speaker English teachers is in Turkey. Then she added:

> Prestigious institutions hire at least one or two native speakers. [Name of a private university], they try to hire about forty percent of their teachers as native speakers. Forty percent! It means that they are giving more money to native speakers. Definitely, they are going to make more money than you are making because they are working in a different market. (Observation Week 3, TE1).

She also mentioned that Turkey can be appealing for them only if they are supplied with accommodation and also earn an amount of money which is above the income level of an English teacher with Turkish origin. Though it was not in-depth, it was evident that her talk about the ELT market, income inequality between native and non-native speaker teachers of English, the perception of the fact that native speaker teachers of English bring prestige to the institutions they work in triggered some astonishment among the students in the classroom. At this point, she again underlined that the students should be aware of uneducated native speakers of English who are hired to teach English in Turkey. She also added that in the school of foreign languages of the same private university she mentioned, they pose an interview question to the candidates in order to reveal their opinions about working with native speaker teachers of English. TE1 stated that working with native speaker teachers of English is a great experience would not be a proper answer. She suggested her students bring the best out of them by saying that native speaker teachers of English do not know how to learn English, which puts non-native speaker teachers of English at a distinct advantage.

In another lesson, after the students completed group discussion, TE1 started a whole class discussion. The topic of the discussion was about test specifications in high-stakes tests. She compared two test types, IELTS and TOEFL, in terms of the accents and dialects used in the listening section. She told the students that IELTS and TOEFL give information about the accent and dialect that the test-takers are going to hear; adding that the accents used in the test are usually British and American accents, respectively. However, she brings a criticism to the issue: “They don’t have Indian English, Singaporean English. From this perspective, I find them very unrealistic because English is used not only to communicate with native speakers but also to communicate with non-native speakers of it (Observation Week 3, TE1)”. She exemplified the situation saying that it was highly possible to speak to an officer with an Indian English rather than British English when they called some places even in the UK. Apparently, she brought a criticism to the failure of these two famous tests to

include a variety of accents in their listening sections. On the other hand, her criticisms regarding these tests were limited to this issue, and she did not mention politics of global testing of English. For instance, she could have discussed how TOEFL and IELTS have turned out to be an English testing cartel (Templer, 2004); how global testing industry controls the language learners and set the standards for proficiency in English (Shohamy, 2001).

Then, when TE1 was introducing the CEFR to the students, she first showed them a video prepared by Cambridge University Press. Having watched the video, she made some comments regarding the objectives and content of the CEFR only within the framework of the video. For instance, she talked about the framework's aims as overcoming language barriers in Europe, facilitating communication, promoting interaction, developing national policies (Observation Week 3, TE1). She also elaborated on how the framework can be used for assessment purposes. The limited criticism she brought to the CEFR was related to its technical structure. As a result, despite being enriched with a variety of instructional materials and teaching techniques, the lecture was conducted with a technicist and functionalist perspective. On the other hand, as she allocated a full lesson to the CEFR, she could have discussed other points related to the politics of CEFR. For instance, she could have mentioned how and why the framework started to dominate the language teaching and learning contexts around the world; implicit privileged positioning of the native speakers in the level descriptions (Leung, 2013; McNamara, 2014); the lack of explicit reference to English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) (McNamara, 2014); the fact that the CEFR fails to take into consideration the migrants' language profiles (Krumm, 2007); and it is largely designed on the basis of native-speaker and non-native speaker interaction despite the ELF reality (Hynninen, 2014).

In another lesson where she was teaching 'testing writing skill', she used A1 Starters, A1 Movers and A2 Flyers tests that were prepared by the assessment unit of Cambridge University for young learners of English. She, together with students, had a technical analysis of test contents. At this point, she repeated that English language teachers should calibrate themselves to global scales as she already did in another lesson. She underlined that: "You can understand your students' level by looking at scales but you are not limited to them. If your students achieve better, let them

achieve" (Observation Week 4, TE1). Although she suggested her students use the scales as reference points, she underlined that their teaching practices cannot necessarily be restricted by level definitions of these scales. Although she did not question the ideology, fees, or administration of these tests, she implicitly told they, as future teachers of English, can teach beyond external testing standards and scales and act according to their own contexts.

To conclude, it is obvious from both the course outline and the course observations that TE1 did not purposefully allocate a lesson or a section of a lesson to discuss the politics of assessment and testing in English. As she already stated in the interview, she touched upon some issues "when appropriate". These were usually in the form of self-expression since she did not invite the students for a discussion. As a result, sociopolitical dimensions of English language testing and assessment from both a global and local perspective have a limited coverage in TE1's lessons as compared to technical and functional dimensions. Though limited, pre-service teachers found an opportunity to develop some awareness of English language testing and assessment within the scope of this course.

Apart from teaching, I analyzed her publications to reveal her political role as a researcher. Her area of interest and study is mainly on pre-service teacher education, curriculum design, testing and assessment. Although she has a wide array of articles and book chapters, only two of her publications are largely informed by a political lens. In one of them, she focuses on intercultural communicative competence with a motive to increase pre-service teacher educators' awareness of local and global cultures and challenge accepted norms of dominant or inner circle countries' culture. In the other, she suggests a Global Englishes perspective into pre-service teacher education. Consequently, it seems that her political role does not usually inform her practices as a researcher.

5.3.2. TE2's Political Role as an Intellectual

TE2 tells that no theory has to be accepted readily, without questioning regardless of the course content. She adopts a critical stance towards science: "I think everything has a political side. There are dominant theories; you don't have to believe them

because they are dominant. We need to have a more empirical approach" (Interview, TE2). As stated before, she usually gives courses on language acquisition. She tells how she informs her students about sociopolitics of first or second language acquisition in these courses:

> In the language acquisition process, I underline that a child from a poor family, an immigrant family, from a somewhat disadvantaged group and a child from the middle-class white population differ a lot, that this difference persists throughout life, and I repeatedly underline that inequality is observed in the whole society, even at the cognitive level. If there is a language that seems inferior, I say that the dominant language's point of view towards it in the language acquisition process of people is felt even in children. For example, the child does not want to learn that language. (Interview, TE2)

Moreover, she also teaches practicum courses to senior students. Practicum courses are deeply linked to both ELT and education, and therefore may easily lend themselves to social and political discussions. Regarding these courses, she tells that she often underlines in the classroom the fact that both teaching itself is a political profession, and in turn teachers have political identities.

In order to observe how TE2 fulfills her political role in her teacher role, I observed her in *Practice Teaching* course, which is named as ELT Practicum II in the current undergraduate program. It was offered to senior ELT students in the eighth semester as a must course. The students and the instructor met once a week; however, *Practice Teaching* course was two hours long contrary to all other courses having three-hour classes. Due to official regulations about class size in practicum courses, there were 13 students in the classroom, which was again an extraordinary situation compared to other courses that usually hosted between 30-40 students. The aim of the course is both "to give the students an opportunity to observe authentic teaching and to provide them with the chance to gain experience at primary/secondary (state or private) schools under staff supervision" as stated in the course outline. In line with the course objective, the students who took the course were required to visit schools they were assigned to for six hours per week for a period of 10-12 weeks. Therefore, the students' duty was not only observing but also teaching to a limited extent. The instructor reminded the students several times during my observations that they should seriously and fully do their classroom observations as she considered the requirements of this course as the most important opportunity that prepared them for being a teacher. She

also told the students that they can take practicum in the school site as an opportunity to really know themselves; to judge whether they really want to be teachers of English; and to understand whether they really enjoy teaching.

The assessment of student performance was mainly based on three steps. First, the students were given two assignments where they were expected to express their views, come up with solutions, or give answers to the cases they were presented with. These were expected to be short pieces of writings, around two pages, which would be supported with references. Every student was also required to do a presentation on a topic of their own choice or the instructor suggested. The topic the students presented were usually about techniques of language teaching such as teaching language skills, teacher talking time, use of technology in ELT, classroom management. The students had a chance to work with a peer to prepare the presentation. The last and the most important component of the assessment was teaching tasks. The students were required to prepare lesson plans, and also teach two lessons in the presence of the mentor teacher. At the end of the term, they did their final teaching in the presence of both the supervisor and the mentor teacher.

TE2 had a positive approach towards the students during my observations. She always started the lessons asking the students how they were doing. As practicum in schools took a considerable amount of their time and they viewed it highly important, any small talk was eventually linked to their sharing about their practicum experience, which provided a smooth transition to the course content. She took attendance in the classroom, though not regularly. However, almost all the students attended the sessions regularly. To conclude, in addition to presenting professional and technical information about teaching, the course was functioning as a site where the students could reflect on their teaching, mentor teachers and students in practice schools, usually within the framework of that particular week's presentation topic.

As for incidents related to politics of ELT, one of the students mentioned that the mentor teacher she observed in the practice school was always in a rush, trying to stay caught up with the curriculum in one of the lessons. At this point, TE2 remarked on the issue underlining the discrepancy between the load of curriculum and the limited teaching time:

> Limited teaching time leads the teachers to spoon-feed students. Since you don't have much time, you just give the information to them without waiting for them to realize or discover it. You just give them definitions and let them learn everything later on. (Observation Week 2, TE2)

She told the students that highly loaded curricula limit not only teaching but also learning since the curriculum in K-12 schools are top-down and the teachers are expected to cover the content till the end of the term. She said that this situation causes "superficial learning", and adds: "I don't know, this is either on purpose or the curriculum makers are really not aware of it". After TE2's comment, the students continued with their presentation of the topic of the week. Neither TE2 asked for the students' opinions nor any of the students volunteered to talk. On the other hand, she could have elaborated more on who prepares K-12 curriculum and if there is a particular ideology under loaded curricula.

In another week's lesson, one of the students in the classroom mentioned an inclusive student in her practice school she visited in the previous semester. She told her classmates and TE2 that she visited a public secondary school classroom where there was a student who was working as a waste paper picker and was also considered as an inclusive student. She also added he usually did not show much interest in English lesson; his classmates did not interact much with him; and the teacher did not care about him very much. TE2 gave a comment at this point saying that: "Poor kid! But I think the teacher is not really informed about how to approach the kid. The fact that he does not communicate is a big problem for him" (Observation Week 3, TE2). TE2 asked whether the kid was disabled or did not prefer to speak on purpose, and the pre-service teacher and her partner in practice school both replied that they had not even heard a single word from him, and they were not sure about it. TE2 added that teachers teaching in inclusive classrooms should be supported better and the current policy implementation did not really serve the purpose. The student who brought up this issue added that her mentor teacher brought worksheets that were less demanding cognitively. TE2 wanted to learn about the details of those worksheets. I think that this particular issue required much more attention, reflection and discussion. The role of an English language teacher in an inclusive classroom and what can be done to improve the situation deserve to be addressed in a detailed way. Additionally, there was not a detailed discussion of sociopolitical factors underlying inclusive classrooms

and whether or to what extent pre-service teachers were taught about them in the ELT program.

Last but not least, through the end of the eighth semester, some senior students start to attend teacher job interviews in a variety of private school. As they need professional help to get prepared for these interviews, they usually demand a session about how to write a curriculum vitae (CV) and how to get prepared to answer interview questions be run in *Practice Teaching* courses. As a result, most of the instructors who teach *Practice Teaching* course offered in spring term, prefer to devote a lesson to CV writing and even carry out mock interviews with pre-service teachers. In such a session, TE2 showed the students successful CV and cover letter samples. They went over them together in order to see how the students could write or tailor their own CVs or cover letters for job interviews. During this review process, one student asked if she could add the fact that she had attended Zumba classes and whether it could be an asset in teaching. TE2 replied her: "Of course, why not if you can relate it to teaching. There's such a serious competition out there, you can mention, you can list all the qualities you have. You can't know what will impress the people" (Observation Week 4, TE2). The session was not only on the techniques of writing a CV but also included exchanges about what teacher qualities are needed to have an advantage over other candidates. Although she slightly touched upon the current competitive environment of private schools for teachers, there was not a lengthy discussion regarding how teachers have become entrepreneurs (Gupta, 2019) in the educational market conditions. Additionally, considering that all the pre-service teachers in the class were assigned to a private K-12 school to do classroom observations and practice teaching, there could have been a focus on privatization of education and its impact on teachers (Locatelli, 2018). As a result, I observed that the short discussions demonstrated above were initiated by TE2 on-the-spot; they were not pre-planned. The course content was largely built on the students' presentations and their experiences in the practice school; and deep discussions about political dimensions of school practicum and ELT were usually neglected during the courses. As a result, pre-service teachers develop very limited awareness of politics of ELT within the scope of this course.

I also analyzed her publications to reveal how she enacts a political role as a researcher. TE2 has a vast number of publications on language acquisition and language processing of monolingual and bilingual children. Her focus in her studies is basically cognitive processes of language acquisition and processing. On the other hand, she has one study on refugee children, and it gives insights about the impact of social and political factors on the way they experience cognitive and linguistic development. As a result, it seems that her political role rarely informs her practices as a researcher.

5.3.3. TE3's Political Role as an Intellectual

TE3 believes that ELT has a political side and she bases her view on the literature of cultural politics in English language education and the critical perspective that Pennycook brings to TESOL. In order to elaborate on the issue, she refers to her doctoral education abroad. She gives an example out of her own observations illustrating how varieties of English can be viewed problematic in multicultural countries:

> I saw in my observations and studies at schools, immigrant or refugee children come from abroad to multicultural societies such as England and America. Most of them do not speak English when they first arrive. Parents don't know either, and they need to learn English. English, because of medium of instruction ... Identity and belonging are also involved, rather than the method by which English will be taught. Because we cannot separate language and culture … ELT teachers really need to have a high awareness of language, identity and belonging. My students always question this. (Interview, TE3)

She believes that English language teachers need to develop an awareness of such issues, ans she tries to contribute to their awareness by talking about them both in graduate and undergraduate courses. In order to reveal how her views about politics of ELT are reflected in her teaching practices, I observed TE3 in *Oral Expression and Public Speaking* for four weeks. This course fell into the group of language courses. It was a must course and addressed to sophomores. It was a face-to-face and three-hour-per-week course. As stated in the course outline, the aim of the course was to "develop students' productive skills beyond their receptive skills and increase public speaking skills by providing students with a variety of public speaking opportunities".

Therefore, the lessons were largely composed of pair, group and whole class discussions. TE3 used a variety of reading texts, audio and video recordings as prompt materials for communication. Additionally, she sometimes asked the students to write pieces of short texts as part of communicative tasks. As a result, although it was mainly designed to improve speaking skills, the course catered to reading, writing and listening skills as well. The course was not loaded with technical terms and concepts; rather it placed emphasis on in-class practice of speaking skills through communicative activities and tasks. Additionally, I observed that TE3 had the students play board games in the classroom. In this way, the students practiced how to express themselves, ask and answer questions, and define objects and concepts in English. As a result, TE3's lecture time was highly limited. She usually guided the discussions by posing questions and gave instructions for the activities. On the other hand, student interaction was high. As for assessment of student performance, the students were expected to take quizzes based on listening activities, a midterm exam where they would individually deliver a 5-minute speech; and prepare and give a presentation as the final work.

TE3 was positive and approachable during my observations. The students could ask questions about course conduct, content, and activities at any time. As she had an encouraging attitude, the students usually participated in discussion activities. In addition, there were three Erasmus exchange students in the classroom, from Morocco and Bosnia and Herzegovina. She sometimes referred to them to learn about their experiences in Turkey and their cultural practices based on the topics they covered in the lessons. This led to a cross-cultural sharing at times, and all the students seemed to enjoy this exchange. There were slightly more than 20 students enrolled in the course. She preferred to take weekly attendance.

To illustrate how she adopted a political role in teaching, related instances I observed are presented below. In a lesson I observed, TE3 began the lesson saying that they were going to listen to a talk on culture (Observation Week 2, TE3). She opened a *TED* talk on the computer, and projected it on the board as well. She asked the students to take down some notes so that they can use them to answer comprehension questions they were going to get at the end of the talk. The presenter, who was a native speaker of English, talked about his intercultural experiences in an American accent. TE3, on

the other hand, did not refer to his accent. Alternatively, she did not give information why she chose a talk given particularly in an American accent.

Later in the same course, TE3 gave the students a handout where there were sets of true and false information about cultural issues. She asked them to discuss which statements sounded true/false and which statements they found the most interesting. One of the students rejected a statement about the fact that Colombian children learn there were five continents as south and north America were counted as a single continent and also Asia and Europe were counted as a single continent named Eurasia. At this point, they talked about the criteria of defining a continent and also dividing land into continents. One of the students said that dividing continents into seven is "snobbish" based on cultural differences. When TE3 asked why he thought that way, he added that Europe did not want to be associated with Asia, and therefore we also could not separate Middle East and Asia. TE3 said that she was completely agree with the student and added: "This has been widely criticized". Another student suggested these "ridiculous criteria" of defining continent be eliminated, especially when they were based on cultural issues, and also Asia and Europe not be separated. At the end of the discussion, TE3 told the students: "So you don't think cultural differences would make one country or culture better. That's good" (Observation Week 2, TE3).

In another lesson, TE3 told the students that they were going to have a listening activity. She said that the recording was in British English. Again, she did not give any additional information about why she particularly chose a recording in British accent, or a native speaker accent. She did not show the questions related to the recording; rather told them to pay attention to specific vocabulary items and take notes. Having listened to the recording, she told the students that she aimed to make the activity more challenging and also to make the students become familiar with a part of listening section of TOEFL exam by showing the questions only after they listened to the recording. "You haven't sat any TOEFL exam but in TOEFL exam, you can't see the questions. We're gonna do practices like that. But of course, it's mostly in American accent" (Observation Week 3, TE3). Having said this, she finished the activity and continued with the next one. When she was informing the students about TOEFL exams, she only told that the audio recordings used in TOEFL exams were

"mostly" in American accent. She did not mention whether such exams are successful in recognizing the variety of English accents in their content.

In another lesson, she was giving information about the details of the quiz she was planning to give the following week. The quiz would be based on listening to an audio recording and answering comprehension question related to it. TE3 told the students: "This time, the quiz can be in British accent. It used to be American English" (Observation Week 4, TE3). She did not provide an explanation about her choice of accent in the recordings. The students did not question it, either.

To conclude, I observed only one instance where there was a very brief discussion on the politics of continental division of the land, though it was not on ELT, in particular. Apart from that, accents used in in-class materials or in international high-stakes tests were not a matter of debate in this course according to my observations. Although she did not explicitly prioritize one accent or variety over the other, both the audio and video recordings she used in the classroom during my observations belonged to native speakers of English, either American or British. Neither TE3 nor the students reflected on their own accents in English and discussed the sociopolitics of both native speaker and non-native speaker accents and varieties of English. During my observations, I felt that native speaker English, and thus a standard English ideology (De Costa, 2010) was dominant in the lesson. In that sense, it seemed to me that a sociolinguistic aspect highlighting the fact that language variety is the norm (Tollefson, 2007) was absent in this course. Considering all, pre-service teachers developed either no or very limited awareness of politics of ELT within the scope of this course.

In addition to her teacher role, I also analyzed TE3's publications to reveal to what extent she adopts a political role as a researcher. Her research areas mainly focus on pre-service teacher education and classroom interaction. She does not have publications where she specifically addresses to and discuss politics of ELT. Yet, though there is not a political discussion, one of her publications about intercultural awareness and identities of pre-service English language teachers is worth mentioning as it adopts an intercultural framework rather than a framework based on the cultures of inner circle countries.

5.3.4. TE4's Political Role as an Intellectual

TE4 strongly believes that education in general as well as ELT in particular have political aspects. For her, such political aspects range from linguistics imperialism of English to inequality of access to educational opportunities. She teaches a wide array of courses. She thinks that she has an opportunity to integrate political aspects of education or ELT in her teaching; and both undergraduate and graduate level courses are appropriate sites serving for such a purpose:

> Of course, in the internship and in *Teaching Language Skills* course and we even have these discussions at the master's level in *Approaches, Methods and Technique* course. We examine absolutely all of these under the name of the critical pedagogy concept. We even give advice and share opinions on how they can reflect these in their lesson plans and how they can deal with this issue. (Interview, TE4)

In order to observe how TE4 fulfills her political role as an English language teacher educator, I observed her in *Language and Culture* course for a period of four weeks. Firstly, it should be noted that it was an elective course where mostly junior students were registered. Additionally, it was an online and three-hour-per-week course. In both senses, it was different from the other courses I observed since the others had must course status and were conducted face-to-face. The aim of the course was stated as "to help student-teachers become aware of the relation between culture and language, and the role of culture(s) in language teaching" in the course outline. The course content offered a variety of topics ranging from language, gender, social class to intercultural competence and its implications for ELT. Considering the aim and content of the course, the students were usually required to read and reflect on weekly readings and participate in the classroom discussions.

This course was different from the other courses I observed in another aspect. TE4 had become a partner to an international online project whose content and aims were related to the course. As a result, she integrated the project in the course, and thus she included the students taking the course in the project. In this way, the students had a chance to experience interactions with members of different cultural groups. Thus, the assessment of student performance in this course was conducted within the framework of these practice-oriented project, which was based on their performing tasks such as

acting as an e-tutor to foreign students, creating *Instagram* videos, doing interviews related to different aspects of culture, creating content for an international magazine, and writing weekly reflections. The students were also expected to write a final reflection paper about the contribution of the course in their intercultural interaction process. In other words, there were not any midterm or final exams.

It was not a teacher-centered class, obviously. TE4 almost never lectured during my observations. As the lessons were built on discussions, she was guiding the student through the discussion questions and encouraging them to share their ideas. She was very welcoming and warm towards the students throughout my observations. In every class, she repeated that the students could reach her out anytime through e-mail or *WhatsApp* groups to ask for help or clarifications regarding the course and the project. In line with what she said, she really never skipped out on any student who posed questions or requested additional support to complete the tasks they were charged with. She did not take attendance in the lessons. There were usually 10-15 students attending the classes. She had small talks with the students before she started the class. She always asked them how their academic life was going and if there were any updates about their lives. Additionally, she reminded the students of various issues related to the course conduct and answered their questions at the beginning of the lessons.

As for TE4's political role in teaching, several instances were presented in the following paragraphs. To begin with, she talked about an unpleasant event she experienced when she visited the States for a teacher training course. She said that she felt the local people's prejudice who thought she was too religious upon hearing her surname and also felt ethnic profiling based on her outlook. She also added that sometimes that might cause a trauma: "Suppose that you are an immigrant. So, the intensity of trauma may be much greater than we experience, a kind of visitor to that country" (Observation Week 1, TE4). Having said this, she stopped talking about this particular issue. She could have touched upon anti-immigrant dynamics and the role of language (Wei et al., 2019) as well for a more detailed discussion. Although there was an article about this issue in the course readings, she did not refer to it.

In the same lesson, TE4 asked the students how it was possible to model a culture. One of the students responded to her question saying that promoting "democratic way of thinking, accepting differences" is a better solution rather than modelling cultures. TE2 agreed on his opinion, and mentioned both ethno-centrism and idiosyncratic people. In order to elaborate on the student's comment, she also used two other terms, which were "diversity" and "inclusiveness". She mentioned World Englishes and ELF as important concepts through which people could be exposed to diverse viewpoints. She added:

> English is not only a school subject but it's a way of life. When we incorporate such awareness-raising activities at K-12 level, I think that situation is likely to change. Whenever you become teachers, you can make a bit of difference. The other thing is that we need to discuss inclusivity in education at pre-service level in our sessions. (Observation Week 1, TE4).

Although she mentioned World Englishes and ELF perspectives, she did not give a detailed discussion about the politics of approaches to English. Likewise, inclusive education did not receive enough attention although she underlined that knowledge of inclusive education is necessary for undergraduate students. She did not discuss the necessity or the relation of inclusive education with issues of language and culture; however, she invited the students to a webinar she was planning to attend about inclusive education.

In another lesson, TE4 was trying to remind her students of the aim of the project about giving feedback for K-12 students' writings, and she said: "Our aim is to promote their liking for writing, for using English as a foreign language or as a lingua franca" (Observation Week 2, TE4). However, she did not clarify the difference between these two approaches to English language; or did not make explicit which one they base their work on. She also continued: "While writing we just have this sandwich model. We just start out with general feedback encouraging, of course". As the students who participated in the online feedback project were receiving training by TE4 on how to give feedback, they were taught and encouraged to use sandwich model of feedback. However, TE4 neither gave an explanation about why this particular model was adopted in the project nor started a discussion about how constructing feedback on such a model might create confusion in communication

between people of high- and low-context cultures (Meyer, 2014) as the model is a highly American-oriented practice.

Next time (Observation Week 3, TE4), she started the lesson telling the students that two scientists in Germany had developed a vaccine against coronavirus. On the other hand, she added that the way these two scientists were represented in the media got attention as much as the vaccine itself. To demonstrate the problematic gender representation, she firstly showed screenshots of two different national news agencies announcing this piece of news about the vaccine. She requested the students to reflect on the representations based on cultural terms. She asked whether the scientist, who were also couples, were represented as having equal status. By looking at the first visual, the students told that the male scientist's name was written first, and the fact that the female scientist was his wife was also added. In the second visual, the female scientist's name was not even mentioned. TE4 told that this was a gender bias. They also checked if there was any difference in foreign media coverage of the issue. They had a look at the website of a newspaper published in England, and found gender bias in the language used. Other English and German origin newspapers did not even mention the female scientist's name at all. Only a newspaper published in Scotland published their pictures and mentioned both names by putting the female scientist's name to the front. One of the students said that this may have resulted from the fact that the female scientist appeared on the left in the picture, and therefore the newspaper mentioned her name first due to her position in the picture. Additionally, TE4 drew attention to the fact that all sources mentioned their ethnic origins and being immigrants. She asked the students whether the representation of the scientists reflected media bias and/or cultural bias. They concluded that the writer/reporter of the piece of news and the ideology of the press were important factors when considering gender bias. This discussion, which took almost 20 minutes, about gender bias in media was pre-planned by TE4 as she searched and brought related pages of national news agencies announcing this piece of news. Additionally, she, at the beginning of the lesson, said that they would have a critical lens towards some issues throughout the lesson. Finally, yet importantly, compared to other instances where she touched upon politics of English language teaching and learning, TE4 encouraged students much more to share their opinions.

In another lesson (Observation Week 4, TE4), she asked the students to examine the categorization of culture in a particular model from a critical perspective. She put the students into groups for a short discussion and then asked their opinions. One of the students volunteered to speak on behalf of her group friends and told that they found the model very "orientalist" and "subjective", implicitly associating negative concepts with the Eastern culture and the fact that strict categorizations of cultural items does not work today since the blurring of boundaries between the categories. One of her group members also underlined the westerner point of view. On the other hand, TE4 did not make any additional comments on the students' answers apart from agreeing on them. She especially agreed on the fact that Turkish society cannot be considered as collectivist any more as they shifted towards a more individualistic side of the dichotomy. When she asked the students to reflect on Turkish culture according to the model, another student told that as the Turkish society turned out to be more individualistic due to some sociopolitical reasons, individuals started to take more risks and claim their own responsibility. Another student reflected on the power distance concept saying that Turkey may not necessarily be classified within the hierarchy partly due to changing workplace norms which started to be introduced by the startups. In the end, TE4 gave a comprehensive summary of the whole class discussion, and the critical reflection on and discussion of the model took a whole lesson.

Lastly, in another lesson where TE4 together with the students evaluated another theoretical model of culture, they made references to some cultural issues in Turkey. TE4 told the students: "As educators, we tend to think we do not encounter students from different cultures in Turkey. We just have generalizations. Each student has a different cultural background; students whose cultures are different from the mainstream culture" (Observation Week 4, TE4). Saying this, she aimed to increase a critical awareness of the students as future teachers. She also added that creating an atmosphere of empathy in the classroom is important and this can be achieved through empathy building exercises. She did not invite comments from the students; however, she quickly sent a message to the students about recognizing and appreciating other cultures out of "mainstream culture" in the classroom.

To conclude, the instances I described above were comprised of both short and long discussions. Some of the discussions on the politics of culture, education, English language or languages in general were initiated by TE4 on-the-spot. Some others were obviously pre-planned since some of the discussion questions she posed and also some instructional materials she used had been prepared before the class started. It seems that such issues were not left out of coverage in TE4's course; and thus pre-service teachers found an opportunity to develop some awareness of politics of language and culture within the scope of this course.

In addition to teaching, I also analyzed TE4's publications to uncover to what extent she adopts a political role as a researcher. Her research areas mainly focus on pre-service teacher education and use of technology in ELT. Therefore, she has a wide range of publications consisting of book chapters and journal articles on technology-driven teaching and learning practices; pre-service ELT teachers' professional identities, professional developments and teaching practices. However, she was engaged with sociopolitical concerns only in two of her publications. She has a book chapter on pre-service English language teachers' ELF awareness and how they conceptualize native English speaking teacher ideology and conceptualizing their own professional identities. The other is an article where she investigated how pre-service teachers' international teaching experiences led to a shift from native-speaker norms and facilitated adopting an ELF, World Englishes perspectives, and intercultural awareness. Comparing these two studies to the wide array of her publications, it can be concluded that she adopts a political role only to a very limited extent as a researcher.

5.3.5. TE5's Political Role as an Intellectual

TE5 strictly believes that both ELT specifically and education in general are deeply connected with politics. She illustrates her view by specifying the topics she brings up in the lessons: village institutions, changing role of teachers and ELT in Turkey, institutions with English medium instruction. Based on this, it can be concluded that she draws on a broad spectrum of topics in her lessons. Additionally, she complains about a viewpoint of education as a technical work. For her, this view is a major hindrance towards the integration of politics of education and ELT in lessons. She

underlines that not only some teacher educators but also some widely used instructional materials reinforce such a technicist viewpoint of education:

> Some say that education is not a political issue because they think that education and politics are completely different. They see education as just a technical job. They think it's a job like how to teach English and what methods are used. However, where, when and how many hours of English is taught is all about politics. Curricula of faculties of education, of course, this is a political thing; and we will talk about it. Not the daily politics but such very basic issues. Child abuse, for example, is a very political issue and a very educational issue. Open the cover of the *Young Learners* book. It's full of technique. How to teach children English? First, protect the child from abuse before teaching English. Sexual, physical, emotional. As educators, we may not be aware of the existence of such an issue. Is it something that we only hear about in the news, read in the newspapers, and has nothing to do with our reality. They may think that: "I am an ELT instructor in the ELT department. I work on ELT; I work on how to teach speaking. Child abuse is the job of psychologists". I think we are together with academics who are alienated from their profession and life, who cannot establish a connection between what they read in the newspaper.

She also underlines that there are neither implicit nor explicit expectations from English language teacher educators to take on such a political role and increase the students' awareness. From her point of view, therefore, informing the students and having them discuss about the sociopolitics of any educational issue require self-political awareness and self-commitment of the English language teacher educators, which is actually not a common practice for them.

In order to uncover how her views about politics of ELT are reflected in her teaching practices, I observed TE5 in *Approaches to English Language Teaching* for four weeks. It was a must course for sophomore students and fell into the category of methodology courses. Moreover, it was a three-hour-per-week course and delivered face-to-face. The classroom size was slightly over 30. The aim of the course was defined as introducing "the history of ELT" and promoting "critical understanding of the approaches, methods and techniques used in ELT" according to the course outline. Therefore, the topics covered in the lessons consisted of background information regarding some theoretical concepts and also analysis of particular approaches, methods and techniques used in teaching English. The students were expected to attend the classes having read the assigned readings and watched video recordings of

teaching methods. As for assessment, the students were responsible from taking quizzes, writing reflection papers, doing classroom observations, writing a report of the observations and do practice teaching in the classroom they observed and doing a final project. In terms of content, the course was highly loaded as TE5 had to cover a variety of topics in the lessons. Furthermore, this was the first time that the students took a methodology course in their undergraduate education; and the course consisted of completely new terminology and techniques for the students. Despite the loaded theoretical part of the content, it was also based on practice. She both showed the students some activities and tasks that served the purposes of the method or approach she covered, and then carried out them with the students as if they were students in a language class. Although TE5 lectured to some extent, the students actively participated in the lessons through hands-on activities, group and whole-class discussions, and group presentations.

TE5 seemed friendly towards the students and enthusiastic about teaching. The students could bring up any social or academic issues during the lessons without hesitation. She always preferred to have small talks with the students before she started the class. For instance, she always asked the students about their weekends and what type of activities they were engaged with. She asked them about whether they were able to find a school they could do observations and practice teaching as a requirement of the course. She tried to help the students with the logistics of school observation. Also, she always made a quick revision of the previous week's topics with the students' contribution, and then introduced a new topic. She preferred to take attendance every week.

As for incidents related to politics of ELT, while she was making a quick revision of Direct Method at the beginning of a lesson, she told the students that use of first language is not allowed in this method and asked their opinions on this issue. The students were split in two. While some of the students supported "only the target language" idea, the others suggested using first language as well. She listened to several students who told anecdotes encouraging and discouraging the use of first language in foreign language classrooms. She also gave her own opinion and told the students about the advantages of both using only the target language and switching between the first and the target languages. She concluded the discussion saying that:

> It's up to you. It's up to your student profile. If you only want to stick to English one hundred percent, you can. Or sometimes use Turkish as a shortcut. You decide. I think you should be aware that you have the autonomy to decide. And there is nothing wrong with using Turkish if it is necessary. (Observation Week 1, TE5)

During this short discussion, she did not make explicit references to the literature regarding the politics of first and second language use in foreign language classrooms. However, she clearly transmitted her message to the students, saying that they do not necessarily have to refrain from switching back to first language, and contextual factors, rather than the methods they adopt, may be influential on this decision.

While they were discussing about Communicative Language Teaching, one of the students said that there is no use of L1 (first language) in that approach. TE5 echoed and then replied him: "Are you sure?" The student said that he read that information in the book. She asked him why he thought there was no use of mother tongue in the approach and then asked the students to look at the related chapter in the course book so that they could read the role of L1 in this approach. It was written that L1 could be tolerated to a limited extent in the course book. Having read the related part from the book, she continued: "Whenever there is need, if you feel that your students are going to learn better, you may at times use L1. But limited use. You don't have to stick to the philosophy of the methods we learn here (Observation Week 2, TE5)". Similar to the previous instance where she discussed the use of L1 in English classes, she underlined that methods should be descriptive rather than prescriptive, and that they as future teachers should take contextual factors into consideration in their teaching practices. Still, there was not a discussion with regard to political underpinnings of language choice in English classes.

In another lesson, she introduced content based language learning method to the students. She asked them where this method is used and one of the students answered her saying that content based language learning is used in XU. She asked the students whether it was a good way of improving language skills. Most of the students agreed on the fact that it was a good method. One of the students told that he did not find this method effective by looking at the issue from the perspective of students with low proficiency level of English and underlined the difficulties they may undergo in courses offered in their departments. Another student disagreed on his comment, and

said that one needs to learn English for a high-quality education. TE5, on the other hand, tried to elicit other perspectives by asking questions. She asked the students: "Without English, you can't have a high-quality education?" Some students replied back saying "no" or "so so". She continued with another question. She asked the students what would they feel if they learned the content in Turkish rather than English. She wanted the students to reflect on the way they would think, imagine and express themselves in their mother tongue instead of English. While some students preferred being taught in English, some others did not agree. She illustrated her point with an example:

> Imagine you're a psychologist. What do you do? When you become a psychologist, you have to express yourself in Turkish but you can't because all the vocabulary you learned about your profession is in English. You can't communicate with your colleagues, your counselees. Do you think it's a problem or not? (Observation Week 3, TE5)

One of the students said that it would not be a problem since they would also learn the Turkish equivalents as well. This time, TE5 raised a question about the students' own situation: She asked them to talk about Communicative Language Teaching and Desuggestopedia in Turkish. The students all replied back saying "no". TE5 gave a more detailed sociopolitical information about the background of content based language learning:

> Content based language learning was especially used in colonized countries. It was a type of methodology used by the colonizers. Although it is used by colonizers, it is used in Turkey very frequently too. So, does that mean that we're also colonized, somehow? You know because almost all private universities use English medium instruction, don't they? Is this on purpose? Are they trying to kill our creativity or thinking skills in our mother tongue? (Observation Week 3, TE5)

During her short speech, she stopped after every sentence to see the students' reactions. Some students, though attentive, remained silent and a few of them were muttering to themselves. It was obvious that this was a completely new perspective to them. She waited for a few more minutes, and then said:

> Maybe we should have 50% English and 50% Turkish. In some of my classes when we have the discussion in Turkish, we have more fruitful discussion

> actually. I don't mean to say that we should have all instructions in Turkish but why not at times? (Observation Week 3, TE5)

Another student reminded her of student evaluation surveys where there is a question about the extent of instructors' use of English in lessons. She said that the instructors are being controlled through the forms so that they speak English all the time.

She continued the discussion by asking about Anatolian high schools. She talked about the fact that Anatolian high schools used to give English medium instruction. She also mentioned some private K-12 schools that use English medium instruction. She asked the students if they had studied or did observations as pre-service teachers in such schools. However, the students did not have an experience of studying in such English medium schools. Therefore, they did not express an opinion. Upon this point, TE5 stopped the discussion and continued with another activity.

Despite the prior instances where she conducted discussions in the narrow framework, the last discussion was more in-depth. She brought a critical lens to some political issues such as the ideology underlying content based language learning method, the private sector of English language teaching and English-only approach. She guided the students by asking a variety of questions, waiting for them to think and comment, and thus having them question their own assumptions regarding English medium instruction. Additionally, all the discussions related to politics of ELT were initiated by TE5. On the other hand, she always encouraged the students to express their own opinions. Therefore, silent though some students stayed, I can say that most of the students had an active participation in the discussions. Last but not least, I observed that the use of first language and English medium instruction were foci of discussions. However, when she was first teaching the concepts of method, approach and techniques and then covering a variety of method, approach and techniques used in the history of ELT, I did not observe that she problematized the concept of method (Pennycook, 1989). According to the course outline, on the other hand, she devoted one week to teach post-method era through the readings by Kumaravadivelu (1994, 2001) who brought a critical perspective to the dominance and use of methods in ELT. Although I did not have an opportunity to observe this particular week, both the topic and assigned readings implies a critical discussion of sociopolitics of ELT methods.

Considering all, pre-service teachers found an opportunity to develop some awareness of politics of ELT within the scope of this course.

Apart from teaching, she is highly and deeply committed to fulfilling a political role as a researcher. Her area of interest and study is mainly on in- and pre-service English language teacher education. She holds a collection of publications where she critically approached a variety of sociopolitical issues in ELT. For instance, she has publications on non-native speaking teachers of English. In one of the publications, she discussed native and non-native English-speaking teachers; and what they represent for private school market and for parents in Turkey. In another article, she demonstrated how oppressive the native-speaker ideology is for non-native English-speaking teachers. She also published both articles and book chapters on English language teacher education models, how they are adopted in ELT programs, which models are fostered, the impact of social, economic and political conditions on teacher education in the Turkish context. As a result, her publications are almost completely centered around a critical lens towards sociopolitics of language teaching and teacher education.

5.3.6. Shared Themes Across Interviews & Observations

The interview results reveal that all participants in this study believe not only education in general but also ELT in particular are closely connected to politics. They argue that pre-service teachers should be aware of politics of ELT including recruitment policies, language, bilingualism, learner and teacher identities, belonging, technicist practices and views of ELT so that they can critically evaluate educational policies, their own practices and also guide parents accordingly. They also claim that they include such issues in both undergraduate and graduate levels.

In all the five courses I observed, almost none of the instructional materials such as course books, book chapters, articles, audios and videos that were covered and referred to during the lessons addressed to politics of ELT. The exceptions were the fact that TE4 brought images of newspapers to discuss gender bias in media and TE5 used two articles about post-method era. Therefore, it can be concluded that the instructional materials did not lend themselves to discussions about such issues. On the other hand, the participants were not necessarily dependent on the instructional materials to bring

such issues to the attention of their students. Namely, they were able to touch upon such issues to some or limited extent regardless of the orientation of instructional materials. For instance, some of the participants brought up certain political issues of ELT in their lessons although they were not covered in the course readings and slides. These very short discussions were usually initiated by the instructor on-the-spot. This is why they usually did not elaborate on these issues themselves, nor did they encourage the students for opinion sharing. It was only in TE4 and TE5's classes where the instructors brought a critical lens several times towards the politics of culture and use of English in instruction and content based language learning; and also encouraged the students to express their points of view. These intances had comparatively an in-depth and pre-planned nature. Consequently, politics of ELT has either no or limited coverage in the courses I observed. The participants usually taught without further political interpretations of the course content. The course contents were largely dominated by technical and functional dimensions of ELT; and there was not a systematic study of politics of ELT. Given all, it can be concluded that the participants' contribution to pre-service teachers' critical political socialization to the norms of their future profession is limited, and more importantly, on an ad hoc basis.

In addition, the participants were similar regarding their political roles as researchers, except TE5. In general, the participants' foci are on pre- and in-service teacher education; methodological and technical aspects of ELT; psychological and cognitive processes of language acquisition. Therefore, their points do not necessarily problematize practices, perspectives and pedagogies directed by neo-colonial relations and expansion of ELT in the Turkish context. TE5, on the other hand, brings a critical perspective to sociopolitical dynamics of language teaching and teacher education in almost all her publications. To sum up, it can be concluded that the participants, except TE5, detach themselves from the politics of language learning and teaching to a great extent and focus on technical and functional dimensions of language learning and teaching as researchers.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

The present chapter is comprised of two main sections. First, the findings reported in the previous section will be discussed in relation to the related literature and within the framework of related theories. The discussion will be presented in the same order of the research questions. Secondly, a closing remark including implications of the present study as well as limitations and suggestions for further study will be presented to sum up and conclude the study.

6.1. Discussion on the Projection of Professional Roles in Official Policy Documents

Both strategic plan and annual reports generated by XU acknowledge that the university's activities are categorized in three areas: i) education and teaching, ii) research and development, and iii) community service. In that sense, it can be concluded that the university's activity domains are in line with the professional roles teacher educators are expected to fulfill. Similarly, the mission statement also underlines that the university aims to achieve excellence in all three areas. However, despite the rhetoric, the university does not seem to attach equal importance to all domains in practice. The analysis of both types of documents reveals that XU is a highly active institution particularly in research related activities and comparatively leaving community service work behind, a situation admitted by the university administration. Also, the data showing the increasing trend of research projects and publications produced in the university and the strategies that the university has developed to foster this increase are indicators of its research-laden focus. Moreover, not only the faculties but also the departments are compared with one another in numerous tables to show the growth in scientific productivity.

On the other hand, appointment and promotion criteria set of XU stands as a matter of considerable importance sending a very clear message regarding the professional role expectations and value placed on professional roles. To begin with the prerequisites, while internationally recognized universities where candidates are expected to gain a doctorate degree or do a post-doctorate study were not made clear in the prior appointment and promotion criteria set, they have made it clear with the new set through adherence to certain university ranking systems. As an employer, XU administration does not favor recruiting holders of domestic doctoral degrees, including inbreds. Similar to other institutions with fast-growing scientific research systems (Shin & Kehm, 2013), this shows that XU relies on academic staff with degrees received from prestigious international institutions, a strategy becoming widespread globally (Burris, 2004). Therefore, as an institution located in the semi-periphery, it can be concluded that XU holds a strategy through which it "depend[s] on the centres for research, the communication of knowledge, and advanced training" (Altbach, 2004, p. 8).

It is obvious that XU also prioritizes the advantages that an experience of education and research in world-class universities can bring. These include an opportunity for accumulation of capitals (e.g., social, cultural and symbolic) (Shin et al., 2014) that could be accrued via activities that one participates in through international professional networks in the host university. Access to international networks with colleagues and supervisors in the host country or institution as well as bringing back these networks to and sustaining them (Jonkers & Tijssen, 2008) becomes a gain for XU in the academic marketplace. Faculty embedded with international academic community in the center have a higher potential to bring success in the international rankings. To conclude, XU clearly draws on a strategy that productivity and prestige that individual academics develop through international academic networks may grow into institutional productivity and benefits (Goel & Grimpe, 2013).

Moreover, proficiency in English is another prerequisite for candidates. While proficiency in English is apparently necessary for teaching classes in XU as a university where medium of instruction is English, it can implicity be required for a better socialization into international research community and international publication practices. In this way, XU makes sure that faculty members can eliminate

practical and discursive constraints on publication in center-based journals (Canagarajah, 2002). It should also be noted that education and research experience in world-class universities contributes to not only improving English proficiency level but also familiarity with academic literacy practices and academic publication culture. Given all, it is clear that prerequisite criteria are based on a market strategy and complement each other.

In the end, XU's prerequisite for a foreign doctorate degree or post-doctorate originates from an expectation that degree holders from world-class foreign universities may lead to higher scientific productivity and competitiveness (Long &, Fox 1995; Shin et al., 2014), and this contributes to neoliberal formation of the university. Therefore, the recruitment of and expectations from academic staff in XU support Adkins (2008) who argues that neoliberalism attributes more value to a worker and their work if it has a potential and is promising for future. In this case, potential is evidenced by English language competence, publications and international mobility in world-class universities (Nikunen & Lempiäinen, 2020; Pietilä, 2014). As Hermanowicz (2012) has already showed individual productivity may boost collective productivity; and this might be another reason behind the fact that XU favors recruiting academics who are either highly productive or have potential to become so that this can improve the numbers of publications in total. As a result, it can be concluded that XU hires academics based on their research and partially teaching skills, and does not draw on a criterion that expects them to be academic citizens committed to civic responsibilities.

XU's appointment and promotion criteria have been built upon a system of accumulating requisite points. The same system applies to IB's criteria for promotion to associate professorship. It has also become apparent that both institutions have adopted a separative approach to professional roles and work which is typical of managerialism in higher education systems (Santiago & Carvalho, 2004). Similar to other international institutions, they also prioritize research and publication over other type of work for a growth in productivity (Shin, 2011). This, in turn, may result in teacher educators' allocating more time and energy to this particular type of work as it brings promotion and status (Uzuner-Smith & Englander, 2015). In other words, managerialism both at the institutional and national levels regulates everyday practices

of teacher educators. In addition, the point system used by both institutions may affect not only the content and number of work but also teacher educators' approach to and understanding of their work. Considering that research and publication activities are not only the most important work for promotion and tenure but also help for survival in both institutional and national academic marketplace (Brew & Lucas, 2009), teacher educators may intentionally or even involuntarily go with "what works" (Ball, 2001, p. 266) in the system.

Unsurprisingly, however, all research activities and publications are not equally valuable for both XU and IB systems. For instance, authorship of international books and book chapters and articles in journals either based on quartile rankings or covered by certain international indexes bring more points in both criteria sets. This has two consequences for teacher educators' academic writing practices: ignoring national indexes and Anglonormativity (Ingvarsdóttir & Arnbjörnsdóttir, 2018; Brock-Utne, 2001). This is particularly the case in XU. Publication in journals covered by national indexes is not a must rather an optional activity, whereas it is a required activity in the criteria set by IB. Thus it can be concluded that IB cares more about dissemination of knowledge through peripheral or domestic journals. However, XU implies that peripheral or domestic journals that do not fit with the institutional expectations cannot be the target publication media. This in turn paves the way for publication drain (Salager-Meyer, 2015) in the Turkish context. Even though it brings less points compared to international publication in certain indexes, publication in national indexes is an important requirement in order to address national applied or academic audience as well as contributing to the development of national indexes. Considering all, these two institutions seem to have different expectations at some point, and send contradictory messages regarding the value of knowledge production for the national applied and academic community. Thus, it is not surprising that teacher educators in XU feel split between XU and IB criteria sets due to their different judgments of value of domestic publishing.

Also, such a criterion urges teacher educators in XU to write and publish in English considering that a great majority of both international publishing houses and journals with high impact factors or quartile rankings publish in English (Curry & Lillis, 2022; Yeung, 2001). Namely, production addressing international academic community in

English medium is encouraged via higher points allocated to this type of activity. As a result, international publication practices driven by a desire for incentives and promotion have been promoted by policies implemented at both institutional and national levels. By looking at the number of publications and the type of indexes or quartile rankings required for promotion, one can easily realize that such practices have become norm in XU. This is in line with international academic publishing practices becoming widespread in Turkey (Binici, 2012; Uysal, 2014). Despite the indirect encouragement to publish in English coming from both institutions, IB's requirement of publishing in journals covered by national indexes is important for the use of Turkish. Namely, this requirement provides an opportunity to use Turkish as the medium of dissemination of knowledge considering that a great majority of domestic journals accept manuscripts in both Turkish and English. Obviously, it should be kept in mind that this does not ensure writing and publishing in Turkish because publishing in English even in domestic journals may signal better quality (Lillis & Curry, 2010), and this understanding may continue to hinder the use and development of Turkish as a language of science.

Another point is about the attention teaching and service work received in these two criteria sets. They place only limited emphasis on internal service and teaching activities. The criterion about teaching activities in XU is related to designing and teaching an original course as well as teaching for at least eight semesters. Although the criterion related to supervising graduate theses, a must for associate and full professors, is an activity of internal service, it can be extended to teacher and researcher roles of teacher educators. Internal service activities that may bring benefit to teacher educators are being a member of academic event organizing committee, serving in institutional committees or boards, and being an editor of a peer-reviewed journal. Though limited and optional, this means that service to the institution and discipline are represented in the criteria list of XU. Yet, it can also be concluded that lack of service work by teacher educators can be tolerated by XU as long as they publish and supervise graduate theses. The fact that thesis supervision contributes to knowledge production and publication might be the reason of value it has been attached to. In addition, other service work, which provided gains to teacher educators in the previous criteria set, including consultancy and publishing an expert report for an organization could not find a place for themselves in XU's new criteria set. This

means that recognition of service work has even diminished. Service and teaching work is even more limited in the criteria set of IB.

Similar to many other universities globally, XU does not explicitly guide or encourage teacher educators for service work (Pfeifer, 2016). Though the university administration puts across messages regarding the importance of community service in the Strategic Plan, it seems that performing community service is a matter for neither recruitment nor promotion in XU. An understanding of academic work overlooking community service in XU runs the risk of lack of teacher educators' commitment to community service (Star, 2007). As a result, while such criteria sets contribute to the formation of *researcher, grant-writer* and *article/book chapter-writer* identities for teacher educators, they fail to recognize and promote their *academic citizen* identities. This is why, it is unsurprising that teacher educators usually lock themselves in their own communities of research (Schwartz, 2014) rather than extending themselves to society beyond the campus.

Moreover, teacher educators' work is separated into discrete units by means of the criteria sets and accompanying point systems. Thus, teacher educators turn out to be knowledge workers who accumulate points on piecework (Uzuner-Smith & Englander, 2015). Both XU and IB also convey a message that "successful academics" are those who can accumulate points by counting the number of publications and the points they bring, carrying out projects by means of external prestigious funding, presenting in conferences and making their work as visible as possible as academic entrepreneurs (Brown, 2015) who are similar to "well-oiled machines" (Roberts, 2007, p. 360) that perform efficiently. As a result, "self-worth" or value of teacher educators' work is not intrinsic to self-evaluation (Bullough, 2014), rather measured by XU and IB through compliance to discrete criteria. In conclusion, neoliberal reformation of academia paves the way for professional reformation of teacher educators.

Lastly, the value of academic work has been quantified in both criteria sets. In other words, the number of publications and the points they bring are counted to attribute value to research activities. Similarly, in teaching, the number of courses taught or designed is important in the criteria sets. Therefore, it can be concluded that both

criteria sets fade the qualitative aspect of academic work out by making it "invisible, trivial, or distorted" (Uzuner-Smith & Englander, 2015, p. 72). To exemplify, teaching is a highly labor-intensive work including scoring exam papers, designing instructional materials, reading assignments among others. Teacher educators need to put considerable effort into process of teaching. However, the criteria systems value or reward teaching based only on the number of courses taught. Such a reductionist view is valid for researcher role as well. Designing and carrying out research, writing it up and meeting the journal reviewers' inexhaustible expectations to get it published is a long process requiring high levels of commitment. However, the system does not consider the efforts, and values only end products.

Another issue particular to conferences requires attention in the new criteria list of XU. The first problem is similar to the dichotomy between international and domestic journal publication discussed above. In previous criteria set, XU used to allocate points to presentations in national conferences even if presenting in international conferences used to bring more points. With the recent change, however, XU has started to accept oral paper presentations if they are given in only international peer-reviewed conferences. This means that attending and presenting in national conferences has no value for promotion. Again, XU underscores the importance of international characteristics in academic work. This criterion has a potential to diminish teacher educators' participation in national conferences as it brings no benefit for promotion, and thus their scientific contribution on the national platform may be affected negatively.

The second problem is about restrictions on the variety of conferences that may bring benefit for promotion. The rule that only the prestigious conferences determined by academic boards in each department can be used for promotions delimits teacher educators' academic freedom. For instance, a teacher educator who prefers to attend and present in niche conferences or comparatively less prestigious' conferences whose names have not been submitted to the university management by the academic board cannot use their presentations for promotion. What is more, it causes a binary classification of conferences: the 'prestigious' conferences and the rest. International conference presentation is not an absolute must for appointment or promotion; and therefore, in practice, such a rule may not be highly influential on promotion as it can

be replaced by (inter)national book or book chapter or may not be required at all if compensated with other journal publications. Yet, it may affect both conference participation habits of teacher educators and the importance attributed to conferences that are recognized and unrecognized by the university administration. Last but not least, conferences may function as potential sites to form international academic networks (Goel & Grimpe, 2013). As it has been already discussed above, international academic networks that academics get involved in may potentially bring prestige and higher positions to XU in the ranking systems since individual academics may perform and publish more through networks. Then, it can be concluded that the most prestigious conferences have a potential to serve as sites facilitating the prestigious academic networks, and thus knowledge production (Gee, 2004) and professional achievement (Arthur et al., 1999). Therefore, the administration's demand for attending ceratin 'prestigious conferences' might be again traced back to its strategy on capital accumulation.

Given all above, it can be concluded that existing understanding of academic work as well as the value attributed to the activities outlined above pave the way for not only standardization (Uzuner-Smith & Englander, 2015) but also control over academic work. Prioritization of certain types of work having economic value in higher education institutions who are driven by the knowledge economy system (Mackinnon & Brooks, 2001) have become valid for IB and XU through the use of appointment and promotion criteria. Therefore, teacher educators can now be promoted only if they publish certain number of articles in certain indexes or quartiles. The same applies to conferences. They are of value as long as they are among the ones recognized by the university administration. Obviously, there is standardization of medium through which knowledge can be disseminated. While standardization serves audit culture and may be highly beneficial to increase efficiency, it may be a threat to not only autonomy but also the exercise of choice by faculty. In addition, as the criteria sets clearly show, each item of production has been not only designed but also controlled by the institutions. Therefore, teacher educators become professionals with shrinking opportunities to exercise control on their work in XU, a situation similar to that of Biesta et al. (2015). This is how managerialism runs in higher education institutions. Such a system works to make teacher educators become "managed professionals" (Blackmore, 2003, p. 5), with highly limited room for individual autonomy and control

over work (Leicht & Fennell, 2001), and more detrimentally it may lead to deprofessionalization (Bosio, 2004, as cited in Tomo, 2019, pp. 119-120).

The current role casted for teacher educators can be traced to the network of institutional, national and international power relations. XU's academic competition both in national and international arena may provide an account for the prioritization of research activities. To begin with the national arena, XU has been recognized as a research university since 2017 as a result of CoHE's mission differentiation policies. Even if the university documents analyzed do not directly refer to the consequences of this mission differentiation, it is obvious that national government policies have shaped institutional policies in XU. The separation between teaching and research in universities with the aim of promoting efficiency and productivity is a clear sign of new managerial systems (Santiago & Carvalho, 2004) aimed to be established by CoHE. As one of the first universities recognized as a research-oriented university, XU has become accountable to performance monitoring index established by CoHE, namely a type of national league table. Thus, the university has become subject to an annual evaluation of research capacity, quality and collaboration based on a variety of indicators ranging from number of citations and (inter)national projects to amount of funds received. Not surprisingly, almost all of the 32 indicators are related to research activities, outputs, and publications, excluding teaching and service responsibilities of universities. The overall scores that the research universities obtained are ranked and then awarded with budgets based on their performances. Considering this, performance-related pay, which has become a widespread policy for individual academics (Franzoni et al., 2011) has been introduced even to public universities regarding their budget allocation. In addition to an annual national ranking, XU is also subject to evaluations of international university ranking systems. Although such an evaluation system is based on a variety of criteria, the fact that the category related to publications and citations has the largest share in the total score directs XU to focus more on this particular area. This can be named as backwash effect of international university ranking systems; in other words, the impact of league tables on the way which type of professional roles are prioritized. The systems focus more on research and related activities; accordingly, XU, as a university in an international "reputation race" (Peters, 2019) puts more emphasis on the very same activities.

Historically, XU has also been tasked with and encouraged for international success and reputation in knowledge production by the governments. As the former president of CoHE acknowledges, the state holds high expectations from research-oriented universities that are centers of knowledge-based economy, and therefore CoHE keeps monitoring of these universities' academic performance (CoHE, 2021). In this sense, the state also runs in a competition of "global social order" (Uzuner-Smith & Englander, 2015) and "reputation race" (Peters, 2019) through research universities including XU. Hence, this shows the network of relations that shapes institutional practices and policies. Moreover, it is obvious that audit culture is embedded in this network of relations in a hierarchical manner. Teacher educators in XU report their academic performance to the university administration and CoHE in a similar way XU reports its academic performance to CoHE's and international ranking institutions' monitoring systems. Namely, while teacher educators are accountable to both XU and CoHE, XU is accountable to a higher authority, CoHE and international ranking institutions. Teacher educators receive incentives (e.g., monetary rewards, promotion, awards) from XU in return for high academic performance; and XU receives incentives (e.g., additional budget allocation, prestige) from CoHE and ranking institutions thanks to high research performance.

To conclude, despite annual reports and strategic plan underline that research, teaching and service are all important and highly valued in the university, appointment and promotion criteria sets demonstrate the fact that research and publication are prioritized and valued more. Therefore, in line with Boyer's (1990) argument, the current view of scholarship has become based on a restrictive and hierarchical organization where research has the utmost importance. Even if teacher educators are expected to teach, carry out research, and serve their community, they are indirectly driven more towards research and publication by means of appointment and promotion criteria. They perform their roles in an "existence of calculation" (Ball, 2003) due to point accumulation systems. Therefore, teacher educators have become "little capitals" (Brown, 2015, p. 36) working hard to increase their own, institution's and nation's value and rank in the global academic marketplace by relying on such a criteria and point system. While the current higher education system in general and XU in particular can be viewed as "neoliberalizing space[s]" as a result of production-oriented, performance-driven, and auditing policies, the roles and requirements

expected from teacher educators seem to aim to turn them into "both products and carriers of the neoliberal agenda" (Gupta, 2019, p. 423).

6.2. Discussion on the Pathways to Become English Language Teacher Educators

As Davey (2013) argues teacher educators' professional identity stems from a combination of a variety of influences including their professional and personal biographies. In this respect, the participants' educational and professional trajectories inform their current professional selves. To begin with, becoming and working as a teacher educator depend on contextual factors. Some national contexts prioritize research-based teacher education, whereas others are more practice-oriented (Smith & Flores, 2019; White, 2019). In the Turkish context, one is required to receive a graduate degree to work as a university-based teacher educator. Therefore, it is unsurprising that all of the participants followed an academic pathway to become second-order teachers, which is the case for many countries across the world (Davey, 2013). On the other hand, all participants, though not a requirement, worked as first-order teachers of English before, during and even after their doctoral studies, and gained practitioner experience (Murray & Male, 2005; Zeichner, 2005). In that sense, it can be said that academic studies and practitioner experiences coalesce to grow them into teacher educators.

As opposed to some teacher educators who base their professional identities solely on their previous first-order teacher identity in Murray and Male's (2005) argument, the participants in this study were willing to change their first-order teacher identity to be second-order professionals. This is why they made a transition from schools to academia and aspired to become academics. Moreover, contrary to majority of academics (Kaasila et al., 2021), they arrived in academia with a pedagogical training. However, neither the pedagogy nor the subject matter of first-order and second-order teaching is the same. Therefore, all of the participants drew on formal graduate studies to learn about second-order teaching pedagogies as in the case study by Dinkelman et al. (2006). Still, formal graduate studies were not adequate to provide them with all necessary knowledge of second-order teaching pedagogy, and thus they also relied on experiential professional learning (Berry, 2008; Griffiths et al., 2014; Montenegro Maggio, 2016). Yet, in both cases, they were not able to "learn to teach teachers in

structured and scholarly apprenticeships; instead, they [were] thrown into the practice of teacher education" (Wilson, 2006, p. 315). Regarding teaching, they improved their professional knowledge and skills without second-phase induction. In other words, neither an established official induction program was offered by the university administration nor professional mentoring program was established in the department to contribute to their teacher identities. This resonates with other studies claiming that teacher educators often lack opportunities of mentoring and induction (Guilfoyle et al., 1995, Korthagen et al., 2005; Mayer et al., 2011; Ritter, 2007). As a result, when crossing boundaries and venturing into the territories of second-order teachers (Trent, 2013; Yuan & Yang, 2020), the participants as novice teacher educators socialized into their new identities by drawing on prior formal graduate education and on-the-job learning.

It is important to note that the academic development program that has been run in XU for almost a decade can be considered as an official induction program for new faculty. However, it has recently become a well-established program and gained a corporate characteristic as stated in the interviews. In addition, pedagogic knowledge of faculty working in the faculty of education is already taken for granted. In that sense, this program was not of high benefit to the participants' pedagogies. On the other hand, teacher educators are not only teachers but also researchers. Considering this, orientation to research culture and practices in XU introduced within the scope of this program was comparatively of considerable benefit for some of them (see the discussion of the next research question for more detail).

The participants also have a variety of motives that led them to cross the boundaries. For the participants, becoming a teacher educator depended on pre-planned decisions as well as serendipity as it was already demonstrated by prior research (Acker, 1997; Barrow & Xu, 2022; Edmond & Hayler, 2013; Hayler & Williams, 2020; Mayer et al., 2011; Montenegro Maggio, 2016). In their case, it was often an opportunity that arouse to guide them to work as teacher educators. Lack of professional development opportunities in first-order teaching environments and displeasure with student groups and colleagues (Reynolds et al., 1994) were the factors that pushed the participants to become teacher educators. That becoming a teacher educator provides chances for social contribution (Richter et al., 2021), influencing next generations, stimulating

intellectual and professional development (Reynolds et al., 1994), satisfying a desire for an advance in career (Holme et al., 2016) and lastly "seduction of academe" (Mayer et al., 2011, p. 257) can be listed as pull factors for the participants in this study.

Moreover, the impact of significant others on the participants' professional identities was evident in their accounts. They all mentioned certain academics who have influenced them and contributed to their own professional journeys as role-models or advice-givers (Holme et al., 2016). Considering that the participants in this study all recalled influential teachers and researchers from their undergraduate or doctoral education, they are similar to the participants of Yuan (2016) who modelled university teachers' teaching skills. This finding, however, does not resonate with Timmerman (2009) whose participants largely impressed by their secondary school teachers. This may indicate that the participants also differentiate between first-order and second-order pedagogy, and identify themselves more with influential figures in academia as they also work as academics. On the other hand, that the participants modelled not only personal but also professional characteristics of their professors supports Timmerman's (2009) findings.

In addition, the participants view their role-models as a whole interconnected entity, rather than solely focusing on disciplinary competence or personal characteristics. In conclusion, the participants viewed impressive professional and personal characteristics of their significant others as points of reference so that they could find their own styles in both research and teaching by imitating or adapting them. It can be said that impressive professional and personal characteristics of significant others has functioned for a successful socialization into teacher education, including developing their own professional styles, crossing boundaries and securing central participation in a new community (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

The participants in the study revealed and negotiated their professional selves particularly drawing on their dominant professional roles. First, it is important to note that all participants hold positive views of teaching, and describe teaching or teacher education work as valuable, rewarding and fulfilling (Griffiths et al., 2014). It can also be argued that dominant teacher identities can be associated with two separate

underlying reasons. One is the fact that professional identity can develop "in a reciprocal relationship to others' identities" (Hallman, 2015, p. 3). In this particular case, others' identities are associated with degree of commitment to teaching. Therefore, the dialogical self turns out to be a monological self that is dominated by a single I-position (Hermans, 2014): I as a committed teacher. The other reason is related to the intensity of certain work practices. This supports Wenger's (1998) claim about the strong connection between practice and identity. In this sense, external factors (e.g., job description and requirements) are the reasons shaping professional identity. Working in a full-time lecturer position requiring to devote a considerable amount of time to teaching leads to invest in teacher identity more. Considering these, domination of teacher identity results from both commitment and external impositions, as Davey (2013) suggests.

On the other hand, one of the participants clearly points out that her core identity is a researcher, and this is why she defines herself as a "language scientist". Her long-lasting past experience a research fellow may have promoted her researcher identity (Ping et al., 2018). Considering her strong ties with the discipline and research practice, her teacher identity is not as prominent as her researcher identity (Kaasila et al., 2021). From this standpoint, TE2 differs from other participants. This difference might be due to her discipline, which is basically language learning rather than language teaching and teacher education. Yet, the fact that she has a first-order teaching experience, enjoys teaching in general and teaches practicum courses might have contributed to her educator or teacher identity.

Lastly, the participants who claim to have balanced researcher-teacher identities can be concluded to show "loyalties to both the university and the school (Mayer et al., 2011, p. 256). In that sense, they are similar to the teacher educators who "serve two masters" in Yuan and Yang's (2020) study and embody a more holistic view of professional identity (Åkerlind, 2011; Kaasila et al., 2021). Furthermore, similar to previous research (e.g., Hökkä et al., 2008; Hökkä et al., 2012, Hökkä & Eteläpelto, 2014; Griffiths et al., 2014; Murray, 2014; Murray, 2008; Swennen et al., 2010; Yuan, 2016), it is obvious that teacher identity prevails strongly for the participants and particularly for TE1 because they describe teacher education work as "a heavy

responsibility", "a critical work", "an extraordinary work", and "a mission" even if their identification with research varies.

Overall, it is clear that supervising pre-service teachers in schools has brought all participants into closer or stronger alignment with teacher identities (Dinkelman et al., 2006). In conclusion, it is important to underline that all participants have embodied several identities during their educational and professional histories. Bearing the traces of prior identities, building on them or constructing new ones, their current professional self is "a society of I-positions" (Hermans, 2014). Due to the fact that I-positions are bound to external, internal, temporal and spatial factors (Hermans, 2014), the participants are not completely identical regarding dominant identities.

Last but not least, XU can be considered as an important factor that has a highly positive impact on their professional identities. From Gee's (2000) perspective, it can be said that the participants feel connected to XU at three levels. One is institutional identity; in other words, this is the identity of the professional position they take up (e.g., associate professor or teacher educator). The participants are given academic positions and titles by the university administration, and it seems that all participants consider their I-identities calling and fulfilling. Another perspective to identity is affinity identity. The participants are a member of an affinity group who share some common characteristics such as having a certain educational background to be recruited or a certain level of scientific productivity to get promoted; they engage in common practices including teaching a group of students who are high achievers; or they work or may even live on the same campus. All these characteristics and practices create a particular *work life style* as well as a unique identity for the participants, and in turn they become *proud members of XU*. This is what they call "a feeling that we are all addicted to". When the participants' A-identity in combination with I-identity gets recognized by others, they can recruit discourse identities enabling a positive professional self. Taking the I- and A-identities of the participants as a point of reference, other people attribute positive traits to the participants such as a 'successful academic'. As a result, this triadic relationship contributes to one another, reinforcing a positive professional identity.

Using a Bourdieuian (1986) lens, institutional habitus in XU seems to provide the participants with opportunities to accumulate social and cultural capitals through educational qualifications or necessary tools and resources for becoming a competent professional in research and teaching. This is evident when the participants discussed that they have continued to accumulate capitals through the professional environment in XU or the importance of transmitting their own capitals accumulated through XU to their students. Moreover, XU is also a place through which the participants own symbolic capital by fulfilling professional requirements. In their case, symbolic capital is made up of honor, prestige, recognition and reputation stemming from being a member of a prestigious university, and they "enjoy it so much". In line with it, the participants negotiate their professional identities by "socializ[ing] through membership and affiliation" (Oprisko, 2012, p. 44) in XU, and thus through affiliated honor they feel.

Considering all, the participants expressed a lack of willingness to change their workplace and a high level of commitment to continue with their work in XU. This contradicts with the comparative results of two CAP (Changing Academic Profession) surveys (1992-2007) indicating that academics in a variety of countries distanced themselves from their departmental as well as institutional affiliations over time despite sustaining commitment to their disciplines (Cummings et al., 2011). In this regard, to be able to exercise agency and autonomy by "practis[ing] their own orientations towards the profession" (Vähäsantanen et al., 2008, p. 146) can be considered as an important factor that both led some of the participants to work in XU, and increased their commitment to the institution. In this sense, XU has facilitated a positive and strong professional identity for them. This is in line with the results of other studies showing the relationship between institutional commitment and professional identity (e.g., Day et al., 2005; Little & Bartlett, 2002; Vähäsantanen et al., 2008). Considering all, XU can be viewed as a prestigious academic brand, which is "both as trademarked image-objects and as sets of relations and contexts for life, [and] become[s] the ground and comprise[s] the tools for the creation of self" (Hearn, 2008, p. 196) in academic profession.

In conclusion, the participants enjoy their academic work regardless of their pathways being pre-planned, accidental or serendipitous. Their role-models, previous

experiences, current practices, commitment to their disciplines and work as well as the identification with XU have contributed to their professional identity construction and reconstruction. In this way, they could extend their first-order teacher or emerging researcher identities to teacher educator identities.

6.3. Discussion on the Fulfillment of Professional Roles

Based on the findings, it can be concluded that all of the participants embrace their past experiences as first-order teachers in schools. They viewed it as an aspect strengthening their teacher education pedagogy (Boyd & Harris, 2010). They are successful at infusing prior school experience into teacher education practice. In this sense, it can be said that they built on their roots instead of refusing prior links to schools and teaching English (Clifford & Guthrie, 1988; Williams, 2014). No matter their current dominant identities are teacher, researcher or both; it is obvious that they maintained particular elements of the previous first-order teacher identity as Dinkelman et al. (2006) also showed. This is why they did not start from scratch when they entered academia.

Despite the differences of teaching in schools and in higher education, the participants could carry over certain elements to teacher education context. Firstly, the participants in general worked in preparatory classes of various universities. Therefore, they were able to bring their familiarity with young adults to teacher education context. Moreover, they are also able to give students "authentic advice" (Williams, 2014, p. 320) and discuss their own authentic experience drawing on their experiential knowledge of being a first-order teacher as the findings of course observations show. The participants' reflection on teaching experiences within the boundaries of schools (Akkerman & Bakker, 2011) and the fact that they negotiate these with the pre-service teachers to demonstrate what expects them in near future in schools served for their personal teacher education pedagogy (Yuan & Yang, 2020). Their credibility as teacher educators increased as a result of their direct connection to students and schools (Boyd & Harris, 2010; Yuan & Yang, 2020). Teaching experience in schools also contributed to designing tasks and assignments for pre-service teachers, "develop many practical solutions" as well as contributing to close "theory and practice divide".

They all demonstrate, as pointed out by Ritter (2007), that current knowledge base of teacher education is influenced by negotiations about and reflections on the practices and knowledge of first-order teaching.

Last but not least, teaching in schools provided the participants with an opportunity of long-term and first-hand experience as well as a considerable amount of familiarity with school and education systems. This became a valuable source for research as far as it became for teaching. In other words, such an experience may serve for a teacher educator to come up with research topics and questions as they may have deeper insights about teaching and learning in schools compared to limited knowledge gained through snatches of observations of pre-service teachers in practice schools. Considering all, it can be concluded that they were able to carry over "a wealth of knowledge about teaching, students and education" to higher education (Beynon et al., 2004); and thus, their second-order teacher identities are inclusive of some elements of first-order identities.

The dual relationship between teaching philosophies and teaching practices (Beijaard, 1995) is an important element revealing the professional identities of the participants. In the present study, teaching philosophies often informed the participants' classroom practices. Although not explicitly discussed in the interviews, except for that of TE1, the classroom observations made it clear that the participants apply eclectic teaching strategies to cater to the pre-service teachers' learning (Law et al., 2007). Use of authentic materials, a variety of grouping formats, games, discussions, student presentations can be considered some of techniques that has a widespread use in the participants' classrooms.

Another important aspect of their pedagogy is relating to experiential learning (Dewey, 1938). Although the participants did not explicitly refer to such a conceptualization of learning in the interviews, they were highly committed to it in their teaching (Law et al., 2007). Teacher education program in XU already offers multiple opportunities to teach in practice schools, and thus the participants supervise the pre-service teachers during this process. This is one aspect of their teaching practices that takes experiential learning for granted. However, the pre-service teachers can engage with practice teaching only when they become senior students.

The pedagogies of the participants usually worked to compensate this, and facilitated experiential learning in other courses as well. The participants often allocated in-class time to the pre-service teachers so that they can learn by doing.

In addition, the participants also spoke of certain educational theories (e.g. social constructivism and critical pedagogy) to show how they conceive of their pedagogies. Namely, they all had one particular core theory-oriented approach even if particular eclectic techniques benefited their teaching. This also reveals that the participants are highly knowledgeable about and reflective on theoretical underpinnings of their teaching practices. The participants' relying on certain educational theories also implied their attitudes towards their own and the pre-service teachers' roles. In line with the previous research (e.g., Åkerlind, 2003; González, 2011; Kember, 1997; Samuelowicz & Bain, 2001), the participants' negotiations of their teaching philosophies and course observations implied a distinction between teacher-oriented and student-oriented approaches to teaching.

All of the participants were in accordance with their theoretical orientations of pedagogy. The participants who underscored the importance of "co-construction of knowledge" viewed the pre-service teachers as active agents of learning and promoted their active engagement in the learning process with the activities they implemented (Beatty et al., 2009). Especially TE2' pedagogical orientation "as if we discover it together" supports Carnell's (2007) conceptualization of effective teaching. Similarly, the participants who focused on questioning and reflective skills as well as critical pedagogy also put the pre-service teachers at the center of learning process. In particular, that the pre-service teachers were expected to critically reflect on techniques and methods might have led to increased awareness of pedagogy of school teaching (Beatty et al., 2009).

On the other hand, there were times, though limited, that the participants lectured. Hence, their teaching became more teacher-oriented and learners became less active at times. According to González's (2011) classification, this happens when they aim to transfer to the pre-service-teachers "what anyone involved in that discipline needs to know" (p.72). Considering the participants' commitment to experiential learning and constructivism, it can be concluded that their conceptions of teaching are parallel

to *developing students' understanding* rather than simply transmitting knowledge (González, 2011). TE5 added on this aim and also implemented strategies for *changing students' understanding* (González, 2011), a more complex conception of teaching compared to the previous one, by mediating them "to problematize the issues on the agenda".

The expected competencies of pre-service teachers signify the participants' professional beliefs, values as well as goals. All of the participants explicitly or implicitly mentioned the importance of personal and professional developments of pre-service teachers. This finding supports Law et al. (2007) and Shagrir (2015) who found strong commitment by teacher educators for the pre-service teachers' professional growth. Mirroring Tezgiden-Cakcak's (2017) study, some participants explicitly stated that they rely on competencies and classifications generated by CoHE and MoNE such as competency in subject matter knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, world knowledge, professional skills, and that they try to shape their course content and practices accordingly. This is unsurprising regarding the impact of both institutions, particularly CoHE on the undergraduate teacher education curriculum. In addition to these, they also mentioned other professional skills that pre-service teachers need to develop. Considering all, a majority of qualifications mentioned by the participants imply that they have a *subject-matter orientation* (Hökkä & Eteläpelto, 2014; Vähäsantanen et al., 2008). However, such an orientation is not exclusive, rather in relation with accompanying values. Underlining the importance of moral values believing that teachers should serve for their professions and society as well as showing respect to their professions; commitment to critical pedagogy in order to increase the pre-service teachers' awareness of and sensitivity towards their immediate or wider environments can also be considered as an *educational orientation* (Vähäsantanen et al., 2008). In that sense, these considerations can be related to preparing pre-service teachers for active citizenship (Annette, 2005) as well as "intellectual and moral growth" (Boostrom, 1999, p. 60; Hansen, 2001).

Moreover, the findings showed that the participants act as models for pre-service teachers regarding both professional values, pedagogical decisions and practices. This resonates with previous research on teacher educators as role models (e.g., Ataş et al., 2021; Boyd & Harris, 2010; Hansen, 2001; Loughran & Berry, 2005; Lunenberg et

al., 2007; Smith, 2011; Swennen, Lunenberg & Korthagen, 2008; Yuan, 2016). This happens through both implicit modelling and explicit modelling as suggested by Lunenberg et al. (2007). Based on the approaches suggested by Swennen, Lunenberg and Korthagen (2008), it can be concluded that the participants were engaged with congruent teaching. When they explicitly modelled pre-service teachers, they usually explained the pedagogy or the techniques they used to students at the beginning (i.e., thinking aloud); provided meta-commentary during the activity (i.e., think aloud and stepping out) and asked them to reflect on what they observed or experienced (i.e., reflection breaks). Moreover, the participants usually modelled as teacher educators at the level of pre-service teachers, which is in line with Swennen Lunenberg and Korthagen's (2008) finding. It was also found that the teacher educators modelled digital pedagogy by integrating digital tools and applications in their lessons (Bai & Ertmer, 2008; Garcia & Rose, 2007) through implicit modelling despite the fact that students might have failed to recognize and adopt such practices (Wubbels et al., 1997).

Instructional materials constitute an important component of the participants' pedagogy. By sustaining currency through the selection and use of certain materials, they both seek self-professional development and promote pre-service teacher learning (Hacker, 2008, as cited in Barkhuizen, 2021, p. 40). Some of the participants relied on certain coursebooks or book chapters and they formed the backbone of the course outlines whereas the rest did not follow any. However, even if they used such materials they did not "follow the text in the page-by-page manner" (Stodolsky, 1989, p. 176). Use of audiovisual materials was highly widespread in all classes observed. The participants benefited from these materials to increase "the quality or the effectiveness" of teaching, and this also supports previous findings in the literature (e.g., Jääskelä et al., 2017; Magadán-Díaz & Rivas-García, 2021). Similarly, use of digital pedagogical applications was widely observed. Therefore, it can be concluded that the participants' teaching was based on a collection of materials with a view refusing one-size-fits-all (Edge & Garton, 2009), which is in line with their eclectic teaching repertoires; and the type of materials they used provided them with opportunities to adopt and implement digital pedagogy as well (Agreda Montoro et al., 2015).

It should also be noted both research articles and coursebooks/book chapters they used were often Western-centered. The course outlines had minimum representation of articles about local issues and no representation of coursebooks situated in the local context. This might be due to the lack of coursebooks that are socially and culturally situated. The fact that some of them underlined the importance of selecting materials compatible with the local context of teaching English and bring up locally problematic issues show that they try to work for a locally appropriate language teacher education by harmonizing materials that address the pre-service teachers' future local needs and that foster global knowledge of teaching (Augusto-Navarro, 2015; Barkhuizen, 2021). Yet, this cannot be achieved necessarily through instructional materials. It seems that in-class discussions or questions posed to pre-service teachers for reflection assignments is a strategy that is used by the participants to either bring up or elaborate on local issues when they are overlooked in the materials they use. It was also evident that the participants did not use teacher-prepared materials in general. This might result from the fact that their time is usually divided up among a variety of work-related responsibilities; and therefore, they are unable to afford to design a material from scratch. This is why they prefer to use either ready-made materials that already serve for course objectives or simply make some adaptations.

All in all, the findings revealed that the participants' teacher identity is one core component of their professional identities. Their teacher identity has been strongly influenced by their associations with their past educational and professional histories (e.g., first-order teaching experience and significant others) (Yuan, 2016) as well as current professional beliefs, values and practices of teaching (e.g., personal pedagogy of teacher education) (Kane et al., 2002; Tillema & Kremer-Hayon, 2002; Maaranen et al., 2019).

As for researcher roles, the negotiations of the roles by the participants revealed that they are highly committed to carrying out research regardless of their positions. This finding is in conflict with the finding of some previous research (e.g., Murray & Male, 2005; Tack & Vanderlinde, 2014) that showed that majority of teacher educators refuse to define themselves as active researcher-teacher educators. The participants all either carried out or have been carrying out national and international level research projects believing that doing research is an integral part of the

responsibilities that a teacher educator shoulders (Byman et al., 2021; Cochran-Smith; 2005; Smith, 2011). Similar to Cochran-Smith (2003) and Loughran's (2014) suggestions, they, apart from personal value attached to research activities, feel necessary to contribute to the disciplinary knowledge and become part of the research community in the university. In other words, they have been not only consuming but also producing research (Smith, 2011) as a result of personal motives as well as contextual factors. These contextual factors include implicit and unofficial expectations of the administration from non-tenure-track (Vähäsantanen et al., 2020) as well as explicit and official expectations from tenure-track or tenured faculty.

Despite their commitment to researcher roles, the participants often expressed negative experiences of carrying out research and challenges of constructing a researcher identity. This was highly related to the managerial system in XU which led to an increase in bureaucracy in research work (Coccia, 2009; Gornitzka et al., 1998) and thus, to the fact that XU, as a state university, "overcomply" with rules and regulations (Bozeman & Youtie, 2019, p. 159). Therefore, the participants had to struggle desperately along the XU's bureaucratic structures, which is in line with Guilfoyle et al.'s (1995) argument and Uysal's (2014) findings. Similar to Menzies and Newson's (2007) findings, the new managerial higher education policies in XU also led the participants to "self-serve administration" (p. 93). Namely, they felt compelled to seek external funding, fill in documents, write reports and tackle technological problems (Menzies & Newson, 2007). For them, carrying out research projects turned out to be a "trouble" that may end up with "penalties".

Lack of institutional guidance and help, therefore, caused them to "learn through the glitches" (Olson, 1996, p. 132). Similar to Olson's (1996) analogy between academia and labyrinth, their conceptualization of researcher can be likened to somebody trying to finding their way out of a labyrinth. In this case, the participants struggle to find a way out of a bureaucratic labyrinth. Furthermore, it becomes impossible to run a project without a risk of a friction between managerial and academic aspects, which consumes up the participants' time and energy. As a result, the overall findings related to carrying out research completely supported Walden and Bryan (2010) who also found that the university was perceived as a hindrance to research, research was not

as valued in practice as it was in administrative narratives and bureaucratic workload caused decrease in motivation.

A similar situation applies to projects or individual research studies that require official permission from MoNE. Thus, problems may exceed institutional boundaries. It was obvious, as in Griffiths et al.'s (2010) study, that they definitely had the edge in research activities through their previous links and access to schools and familiarity with the teachers or school administrations. However, narratives of support for collaboration between K-12 schools and university does not necessarily get along with the practice for the participants. In line with Şahin and Kesik's (2020) results, the participants, based on their lived or second-hand experiences, felt aggrieved at bureaucratic system in MoNE through which their applications are either declined or asked for revisions on methodology. Such experiences are serious threats to academic freedom (Doğan & Selenica, 2022; Şahin & Kesik, 2020) and limit their professional agency, and thus they create a pressure on their professional identities. Moreover, some projects can even be marginalized due to their research topics related to political issues (Darder, 2012). Last but not least, the challenges of carrying out research projects in MoNE schools seemed rather discouraging, to the extent that one cannot afford to either apply for permission or conduct a project individually. For teacher educators, this runs the risk of refraining from carrying out research that extends to K-12 schools, and thus having to focuse their resources on their immediate environments presenting opportunities to work on pre-service teachers who are comparatively more accessible.

The participants also negotiated their practices of seeking and securing external funding for their research activities. Firstly, they all highlighted the divide between natural sciences/engineering and social sciences with respect to access to research funds (González-Calvo & Arias-Carballal, 2018). Stemming from the fact that they produce knowledge for the use of industry (Lynch, 2006; Raimondi, 2012), the participants believed that natural sciences and engineering departments are favored by the university administration in XU. The participants feel it necessary to seek and secure external funding due to the decrease or limitations in financial support provided by the university or the state (Ylijoki, 2013). Apparently, they are held self-responsible not only to carry out research but also to find necessary financial support to do that

(Saul, 2005; Walkerdine, 2003). Despite the difficulty of being awarded with external research funds due to their competitive nature, which is the main value of neoliberalism (George, 1999), they feel that they have to try their best to secure funding and continue to produce as Davies et al. (2006) found before. This is evident in their statements about applications for external funding such as "very competitive", "very difficult in our field", "I've tried and I'll try it", "They didn't accept me". As a result, they have become entrepreneurs to be able to access to necessary resources for carrying out research (Ozga, 1998).

It is obvious that the participants try to protect their research practices by staying in the game despite expressing resentment on the competitive nature of securing funds (Balyer, 2011). On the other hand, it can be concluded that an entrepreneurial understanding of research seems to have settled in TE1's mindset (du Gay & Salaman, 1992), and thus new managerial system has implicitly shaped her thoughts and she has become a supporter of such managerial techniques (Davies & Petersen, 2005, p. 85) ("… every field needs to create something [source] of income for itself, and we shouldn't expect everything from the university and the state", TE1). Despite the challenges she experienced due to her critical stance in research, TE5, on the other hand, did not choose to "play the game" (Archer, 2008a) by changing the central value of her work to comply with "what works" to receive funding (Ball, 2001, p. 266; Roberts, 2007). This is in contrast with the practices of some participants in both Archer's (2008) and Davies and Peterson's (2005) studies. From an agentic perspective to professional identity, Fanghanel (2007) and Hökkä et al. (2012) argued that hegemonic discourses may put pressure on professional agencies. However, the findings also demonstrated that it was possible to exercise agency by resisting as well as criticizing such policies as suggested by Eteläpelto et al. (2013).

Some of the participants mentioned academic development program, which was established and has been carried out in XU, as a modest source of fund especially for newly hired academics. They think that they made use of the budget allocated to them by the university upon completion of the program. Considering the highly competitive nature of securing funding both nationally and internationally, this fund made them temporarily less vulnerable to other external funding seeking process. In the same program, however, the university aims to encourage newly hired academics to seek

and secure both national and international funding sources through a briefing on how to apply to such organizations and institutions. It is obvious that the university administration aims to increase both individual and collective productivity in XU. In other words, the participants to the program are taught how to "play the game" (Archer, 2008a). It seems that the university administration expects high performer and productive academics, and therefore helps academics become informed about where and how to apply for grants. However, the administration sustains this introductory support neither during grant proposal writing nor during project execution process which is full of financial and bureaucratic constraints. It can be concluded that the university's expectation from academics does not fully match with the support it provides.

As typical of new managerial systems, the administration not only introduces and invites them to a competition for securing grants but also makes them self-responsible for this (Davies et al., 2006). Moreover, similar to other highly entrepreneurial universities, XU also hosts a technopark that is involved in the university-industry collaboration through technology-oriented companies located on campus. As revealed by the participants, they can apply to Project Management and Consultancy Office, which is affiliated with the technopark, to get service on payment for project management process including grant writing. The existence of such an office, the fact that it works on payment, and the university administration encourages such a collaboration between academics and the office serve as a significant indicator of managerial policies in XU. In other words, a business model of university management is reflected in individual academics' project management. This also shows that their scientific production outputs as well as processes are open to business-like management. It seems that academics who once carried out research and produced scholarship "in sovereign freedom" (Coetzee, 2007, p. 35), now is expected to manage a different relationship with the university that has been managed like a business, and that the relationship may extend to industry as well. Furthermore, academics may also become 'customers' by receiving service when they try to produce scholarship in a business-like university. As a result, the participants' investment in and efforts for seeking and securing funding and the university's encouragement for external funding seem to drive the participants' professional formation to an entrepreneur researcher identity (Darder, 2012).

The participants' problems about grants go beyong seeking and securing funding for research, and even extend to dissemination of research studies. Especially the current appointment and promotion criteria set of XU complicates the challenge of securing travel grant. The participants are required to present in the most prestigious conferences in the field; and the list of conferences approved by the administration is comprised of certain international conferences all held abroad. However, travelling abroad makes attending conferences even more costly. This again implies a mismatch between the administrative practices and expectations. The participants end up paying out of their own money if they travel more than once or add themselves, at best, on the allocated amount. The message sent out by the administration is that academics also need to take financial responsibility for their conference trips and find external funding if necessary.

The participants, moreover, negotiated the importance of networking for researcher identities. It is obvious that they are highly aware of the fact that networking might lead to academic career success. It is also clear that the 'necessity' of forming or taking part in academic networks has almost become a norm in academia, and thus a professional quality that is imposed on academics. It is believed that taking part in international academic networks facilitates professional development, a vision allowing for more collaborations and inquires, and thus career prosperity in the academic marketplace. This concurs with the findings of previous research (e.g., Burris, 2004; Burt, 1992; Faria & Goel, 2010; Heffernan, 2020). Resonating with Heffernan's (2020) and Goel and Grimpe's (2013) studies, it also became evident that access to international networks can be viewed and used as an edge over other candidates in academic employments. On the other hand, new managerialism in universities puts pressure on academics to publish and to be cited more, and it was argued that this caused some academics to abuse their network links for unethical purposes including citation stacking on the author level. In all, academic capital can be accumulated through various means including publications, citations as well as professional reputation; and academic networks, as a form of social capital, has a potential to enable the accumulation of academic capital for teacher educators (Leemann, 2010).

It was also found that XU encourages its academic staff to form and become parts of international academic networks by some direct and indirect strategies (Raj et al. 2017). Academic development program serves for facilitating a learning environment where interdisciplinary networks might be formed within the university. It also provides academics with travel grants so that they can attend networking formation events organized by certain international funding programs. In addition, the administration provides travel grants for, though limited as stated by the participants, and secures time for attendance to academic meetings such as conferences (Goel & Grimpe, 2013). Lastly, the fact that presenting in certain conferences benefits academics' promotion can be considered another strategy to encourage them to attend such meetings that may lead to opportunities for networking. As a result, it seems that the university policies work to extend the individual benefits of academic networks to institutional benefits (Goel & Grimpe, 2013).

Lastly, the participants also mentioned service work they engaged with. One common point for all is that they care much about pre-service teachers' professional learning and development, and thus service to students. Therefore, in line with Altun's (2021) findings, the participants organize seminars with invited speakers; invite practitioners to their lessons; start reading groups and maintain its activities regularly; and take part in graduate students' thesis committees or juries as well as supervising them in thesis writing. They also get engaged in service to their disciplines including giving webinars/seminars, peer reviewing for articles or becoming invited speakers in conferences. It was also found that contribution to administrative work both in the department, Faculty and the university is an indispensable part of their daily work life. However, service to the institution such as attending to meetings, serving as coordinator of particular units or commission members are usually viewed as duties that they are appointed to or asked to fulfill (MacFarlane, 2005). On the other hand, service to students and discipline is completely on a voluntary basis. Regarding external service, the first common point for the participants is that preparing pre-service teachers through teacher education programs is viewed as a type of community service by the participants. Secondly, teaching *Community Service* course through which they increase students' awareness of community service and facilitate their outreach is viewed as a practice of community service. This supports Ergül and Kurtulmuş's (2014) findings. These two activities were also explicitly voiced by

Altun's (2021) participants as two widespread community service types. In this sense, the findings imply that the participants consider their disciplines inherently providing opportunities for community service (Ward, 2003).

Moreover, conducting socially oriented research, disseminating discipline-based knowledge for the consumption of non-academic readers, providing voluntary professional counseling to teachers, giving talks out of campus are other types of outreach activities performed by the participants. In addition to their community orientation, these activities provide an insightful perspective on both research-society symbiosis and teaching-society symbiosis. Considering all, the nature of their practices shows, in line with previous studies (e.g., Colbeck, 1995; Jongbloed et al., 2008), that their internal service work extends to both teacher and researcher roles as well, and thus they may be viewed as complementary roles at times.

From an emotional perspective to professional identity, fierce competition over external funding, lack of guidance and help during research project management, and institutional budget cuts caused stress, frustration, powerlessness, decrease in motivation and struggle for almost all participants (Dugas et al. 2020; Dugas et al. 2018; Winefield et al., 2003). It is widely accepted that teaching is an emotional work (Day, 2018; England & Farkas, 1986), and Wróbel (2013, p. 581) argues that teachers not only teach but also "manage their emotions" when performing their roles. It seems that the participants in this study also needed to manage their emotions in their researcher identities so that they can continue to do their work. In this sense, research can also be considered as an emotional work. Moreover, Zembylas (2003) argues that teacher identity and emotions are discursive. It seems that his argument is valid for researcher identity as well. The participants' negotiations of related experiences show that their emotions are bound to discursive environments. In this case, the participants' professional identities are largely affected by both institutional as well as global academic discourses of competition and self-responsibility. It is apparent that a variety of discourses of emotions develops when managing their research, and their researcher identity is considerably influenced by their interactions with funding institutions, officers in the university, K-12 school teachers, K-12 school administrations, and local administrators of MoNE.

Comparing teacher and researcher identities, it is apparent that the participants can exercise more professional agency in the former and less in the latter. This finding supports Hökkä et al.'s (2012) study. Similar to Leibowitz et al.'s (2012) findings, the accounts of the participants revealed that they feel free to construct their personal pedagogies of teacher education inspired by their educational and professional pasts and their current personal beliefs in, values of, and orientations to teaching. Moreover, in line with the participants in Drake et al. (2019) and Vähäsantanen et al.'s studies (2020), they can exert influence on and decide what to teach and what materials to use when teaching. Nevertheless, the participants' researcher identity seems to be negatively influenced by limited resources and suppressive discourses (e.g., challenges access to external and institutional funding, lack of support from MoNE for doing research in schools, lack of institutional guidance for project management) (Hökkä, et al, 2012; Fanghanel, 2007; Tran & Vu, 2018), and therefore researcher identity is constructed with greater struggles and diminished professional agency (Hökkä et al., 2012).

Yet, they still try to navigate their way through this complicating and exhausting system of executing research with their limited agency in three different modes: bringing suggestions to facilitate research process, though not taken into consideration by the administration yet; criticizing the present mechanisms (Eteläpelto et al., 2013); and showing commitment to the content of their research despite all problems. As for their roles in service work, it seems that the participants exercise high levels of professional agency in both internal and external service. They conduct service to students, discipline and community both voluntarily and intentionally due to the fact that such contributions highly matter to themselves. On the other hand, service to their institution, particularly in the form of administrative work, is not necessarily a form of activity they are enthusiastic about. This is why their professional identity might be partially restricted by carrying out duties that they may not be willing for.

6.4. Discussion on the Requirements of Professional Roles

The participants in general discussed the 'ambitious' appointment and promotion criteria and how they have been affected by them. The participants are aware of the fact that XU is a university that has international aspirations, and therefore has evolved

more ‘ambitious’ expectations from faculty members, which is a widespread managerial reform for other ambitious universities as well (Dai et al., 2021). This is the reason why XU has always established its own additional criteria for recruitment and promotion that are highly above that of CoHE but in line with policies of “world-class” universities. Contrary to Demir et al.’s (2017) findings, the participants support this without underestimating the negative implications and influences on themselves. By making the performance culture rooted in the expectations from faculty members, it seems that XU bases the criteria on “institutional self-interest” (Ball, 2003, p. 218) rather than academics’ own aspirations. Moreover, the administration sends out a message regarding its understanding of a ‘successful academic’ through these criteria. Research productivity is the success metric for academics, and therefore those who are “highly efficient at producing in the right amounts, … in the right places” (Roberts, 2007, p. 359) are viewed as successful. In other words, Adkins (2008) suggests that what makes a piece of work and the worker valuable is the expected return of the work in neoliberal economy. In this case, research and publications, with high expected returns, have been set as targets that attribute value to individual academics in case they are achieved. When negotiating the criteria, it can be said that the participants relied on a neoliberal rhetoric which was evident through their espousal for additional ambitious criteria; however, their accounts were also based on other discourses including submission and criticism. It is obvious that some participants expressed ambivalence over the metric system. They not only criticized the system but also expressed “cynical compliance” (Ball, 2003, p. 236). Yet, it is important to note although an index or quartile based metric system measuring value of academic work was partially justified by some of the participants in setting standards for academics, it still can be considered as a means of reproducing center-based values and practices in the semi-periphery (Yang, 2007, as cited in Flowerdem & Li, 2009, p. 12).

Apparently, the administration is successful at securing compliance with stringent expectations with a motive to increase the rankings and reputations of both the institution and the state in the academic and economic marketplace (Uzuner-Smith & Englander, 2015). In this case, survival of an individual academic is closely linked to survival of the institution and the state in the marketplace (Davies & Bansel, 2007; Uzuner-Smith & Englander, 2015). Joseph (2013) argues that resilience can be used as a form of governmentality in the neoliberal sense with a focus on the adaptability

of individuals. In other words, drawing on neoliberal governmentality, the administration seems to aim at persuading responsibilized academics by global requirements and competitive discourses. These responsibilized academics are also shown "a picture of a world that is beyond our control" (Joseph, 2013, p. 43) and given the message that survival of individual academics in this system can be achieved through individual adaptability to conditions they cannot control or change. The administration seems to have achieved this through the meetings where they informed the faculty about why stringent criteria are needed. Referring to Joseph (2013), the administration in this case showed the faculty a picture of an academic world beyond their control (e.g., global university rankings, expectations of the state, requirements of being a research-oriented university etc.), and therefore encouraged adaptability to new criteria. In this way, academics, including teacher educators, faced lack of opportunities to exercise control over their work (Biesta et al., 2015).

On the other hand, the participants made it clear that such adaptability is not necessarily easy. It seems that they experience this change as "loss, anxiety and struggle … striking at the core of learned skills … and creating doubts about purpose, sense of competence, and self-concept" (O'Sullivan, 2002, p. 185). Moreover, XU's policy and criteria changes for better alignment with international academic marketplace as well as meeting the national expectations from a research-oriented university by CoHE cause the participants live a precarious professional life in XU. Therefore, in line with Ball's (2003, p. 220) argument, the participants have become "ontologically insecure" due to "a flow of changing demands, expectations and indicators that makes one continually accountable and constantly recorded". Consequently, it seems that while XU moves the targets, it also moves the competition forward; and this makes hitting the targets more difficult for the participants. In addition, XU's criteria set is not the only one. IB and Academic Incentive System set out other criteria, and these three criteria sets only partially overlap in total. Apparently, the target for the participants not only 'move' but also 'vary'.

Moreover, adaptability process for the participants has required not only additional time to work on themselves (du Gay, 1996) and their work for a more ambitious career but also emotional management of a variety of feelings including a sense of stress, limitation, demotivation, underachieving, and disadvantaged. At this point, it is

necessary to underline that TE1 did not report similar feelings most probably because she is a non-tenure-track faculty who is not willing or planning for promotion. In this sense, she has not experienced an emotional vulnerability to the extent other participants have experienced. Despite such emotions, the participants have to continue producing as individualized and responsibilized academics. In that sense, the metric system simply overlooks the affective side of academic work as suggested by Clegg (2008). This inevitably leads to a professional self who is fragmented between emotions and external expectations.

In addition to affective dimensions of work, the criteria overlook other aspects of academic work. Failing to meet the research and production-oriented criteria, no matter how qualified one is as a teacher, prevents access to both economic and additional capitals. This situation paves the way for value conflicts for the participants. Some of the participants demonstrate that they have personal values about teaching and commitment to providing a qualified education; and thus attribute self-value to themselves based on this. However, they experience value conflicts both at meso and macro levels (Skelton, 2012) by disagreeing with how XU and national higher education policies situate teaching as compared to research and how these policies quantify academics. For instance, they believe that moral commitment and responsibility towards academic work should determine the worth of an academic work. However, today, a correct ideology of professoriate is not driven by personal values or moral commitment in the academic marketplace but by external metric systems with particular focus on research and economic gains (Bullough, 2014; de Gennaro, 2019). Therefore, they are expected to take part in a performative and competitive game whose rules and targets have been largely set by external agents. In this regard, TE2's metaphor of horse racing helps for making sense of academia.

Furthermore, a researcher role entails practices of publication for the participants. The accounts of the participants revealed that both IB and XU prioritize publications in certain rankings and international indexes. It should be noted that this has a considerable consequence for the participants since such a practice is actually a high-stakes activity due to appointment and promotions issues. Thus, trying hard for certain types of publications to meet the appointment and promotion criteria is one dimension of the issue as suggested by Cameron (2005) and Lillis and Curry (2010). Moreover,

the aim of addressing a broader audience, becoming a part of academic exchanges and gaining recognition is another dimension (Lillis & Curry, 2010) since it is believed that national indexes do not provide such an opportunity. It seems, in this way, that the participants look for opportunities to fit in the international academic circle. This does not mean that they completely reject the value of publishing locally. Still, promotion criteria sets and concerns about a bigger international addressee override their decisions to publish in national indexes in general. The participants show similarities with Çetinkaya's (2017) participants who accommodated themselves to the publication system despite raising criticisms towards universities' requirements about publishing in certain indexes. To conclude, institutional requirements, in this case, are in line with and even above the national higher education policies contrary to Uysal's (2014) findings in her case study, and the participants' work is inevitably geared towards what works better for their career trajectory.

In addition, it was also found that the participants work to publish not only in certain indexes but also in English-medium journals. This resonates with previous studies (e.g., Ingvarsdóttir & Arnbjörnsdóttir, 2018; Brock-Utne, 2001) conducted in different academic contexts. However, it contradicts with Flowerdem and Li's (2009) study where the participants even in the English Departments and holding overseas experience largely preferred their own languages over English for publishing purposes. The participants in the present study have different motives for this practice. Supporting Getahun et al.'s (2021) finding, the impact of their discipline, English medium education they received and English medium instruction they offer can be considered as factors enabling them write in English even if they publish in national journals. In other words, they write in English "by preparation" (Getahun et al., 2021, p. 171). It appears that both national but mostly institutional criteria indirectly encourage the participants to publish in English. This supports Lund's (2015) finding about the fact that English has become norm as the language of not only publication but also communication in Finnish academia.

Moreover, their intention to address international reader, which is often the case, is a determining factor for preference of English (Flowerdem & Li, 2009). As opposed to Canagarajah (1996) and Curry and Lillis' (2004), the participants did not report any frustration with and challenge of writing in English most probably because they have

proficiency not only in English but also in academic writing discourse. Yet, a sense of disappointment was voiced over the dominance of English as a barrier against the use of Turkish as a language of science and access to readers who are either non-academic or out of the discipline. Despite the fact all held positive views about publishing in Turkish, their accounts made it clear that they are bound to language hierarchies prevalent in the academic journal marketplace (Getahun et al., 2021). Still, it is necessary to underline that such English-written publications in prestigious indexed journals pave the way for both mutual benefit (Çetinkaya, 2017) and self-positioning. As for mutual benefit, not only the university may rank higher in university rankings but also an individual academic may achieve better visibility and reputation. In other words, apart from external impositions, they may have their own personal motivations for such a practice. Regarding self-positioning based on Hermans (2014), such a practice may enable the participants to develop an internal I-position such as 'I as addressing international academia'. Furthermore, to be able to develop such an I-position provides them with a 'legitimate researcher identity' given that publishing for international academia is the norm in the department and an expectation in the criteria set. Moreover, as Hermans (2014) further argues, larger society is part of the self. In this case, both the institutional and center-based academia have become more complex, competitive and demanding; and their professional self is also a reflection of these changes. Davies and Petersen (2005) argue that academics as neoliberal subjects can be considered as Darwinian subjects since only the fittest can survive in the marketplace. In the end, writing in English and trying to publish in journals covered by certain indexes can be considered as a survival strategy motivating the participants to do "what works" (Ball, 2001) and making them fit in the system.

Furthermore, the participants tend to have highly positive views regarding international mobility of academics regardless of whether they hold such an experience. This finding concurs with previous studies (e.g., Børing et al., 2015; Groves et al., 2017). The common motive behind their views seems that it provides a new perspective to all stakeholders (Franzoni et al., 2012; Hamza, 2010). More specifically, the participants believe that it is of great benefit to the professional learning of individual teacher educators thanks to their experiences in new academic environments as well as to students and the department when they integrate academic culture and implement academic practices they were exposed to in the host country or

institution (Hamza, 2010). Moreover, the participants also revealed that it contributes to building up academic networks (Yates, 2002). Therefore, it can be concluded that such an experience positively contributed to the professional identities. Additionally, in Bourdieuian (1988) terms, the participants seem to be aware of the fact that mobilized or non-inbred teacher educator is believed to bring capitals to the department. In other words, such experience has a potential to widen the vision of the department by bringing their social capital in the form of academic networks or symbolic capital including the prestige of the host university or the grants received (Burris, 2004).

Gokturk and Yildirim-Tasti (2020) argue that academic inbreeding can be a consideration for institutional recruitment practices in their case study and their participants discussed both negative and positive sides of recruiting inbred faculty. This applies to the present study as well. The participants showed ambivalence over this requirement. Despite the benefits, international mobility requirement for domestic PhD holders can be viewed as an "imposition" to advance academic careers in XU (Morano-Foadi, 2005). This view results from the fact that lectureship position does not officially provide the participants with an opportunity of paid sabbatical and study/research leave and also there is lack of institutional support. Obviously, whenever full-time lecturers in the present study tried to negotiate their professional identity from a broader perspective (e.g., claiming right for paid leave for post-doctorate), they were often reminded of and limited by their teacher identities (Hökka & Etelapelto, 2014; Hökkä et al., 2008; Vähäsantanen et al., 2008). Thus, it seems that they are viewed as owners of a "frozen identity" (Hökka et al., 2012, p. 92) that require them to be "representatives of stable positions, determined mainly by the subject matter they taught" (Hökka & Etelapelto, 2014, p. 45) not only by the administration but also by some colleagues. This suggests that teacher educators, regardless of their academic positions and titles, need institutional and community support to continue their professional learning (Drake et al., 2019; Hökka & Etelapelto, 2014), to practice professional agency, particularly to influence and to make decisions regarding their professional work and careers, and to construct integrated and agentic professional identities.

In this case, it appeared that institutional policies were judged to be inconsistent based on a variation in their implementation. Therefore, TE5 had to try really hard to find the institutional support to be able to exercise agency on her researcher identity. This is why securing permission for post-doctorate leave turned out to be an emotional exhaustion (Zembylas, 2002) as it caused feeling annoyed and disadvantaged throughout this process. In a completely opposite situation, it is possible to understand that TE1 practiced professional agency at the beginning of her career in a way that shaped her professional identity. She preferred not to go for a post-doctorate abroad and not to follow a tenure track position in XU based on her active and value-congruent decision (e.g. "post-doc as an academic imperialism"). Her identification with teaching guided her to exercise power on an issue about her own professional future. This is why she ignored the institutional norms and expectations to "resist the prescribed subjectivity" (Fenwick & Somerville, 2006, p. 256) and waited for a lectureship position. Their decisions and actions show that while one backed out of mobility the other came to agree with the requirement of mobility (Archer, 2008a; Nikunen & Lempiäinen, 2020), but in the end, both exercised professional agency. However, it should also be noted that I-positions are not static and travels in time and space (Hermans, 2014). This is how TE1 abandoned her prior attitude towards international mobility as a requirement for recruitment and has made up with it having realized the professional contribution a mobilized teacher educator could make into the workplace compared to a pure inbred. As a result, her professional identity has changed in the course of time by developing a new I-position.

Additionally, the findings also revealed that the professional roles participants are expected to fulfill are complex, demanding, competing and exclusive at times. It was also found that there is a considerable impact of appointment and promotion criteria on their commitment to their roles. Although the above discussion showed that the participants are highly autonomous and practice professional agency regarding their pedagogical decisions and practices at the individual level, they do not have the same agentic power at the departmental level. In other words, the participants made it explicit that their demands are not necessarily taken into consideration with regard to course distribution (Vähäsantanen et al., 2020). Some of them even used the word "luxury", with an emphasis on lack of it, when describing a match between individual demands and course distributions by the departmental administration. Moreover, it

was obvious that having to teach an extensive repertoire of courses increases the burden of teaching considering the effort one has to put in designing and periodically reviewing each course they teach. This also means that their agentic energy is not only limited but also divided by the extra course loads.

Another burden of teaching comes from the number of students that the teacher educators teach in each section. As students' access to higher education institutions has increased, the student numbers and class sizes have grown as well (Berg, 2001; Sayed, 2002). Considering that students enrolled into English language teacher education programs often lack some language skills and content knowledge, teacher educators are expected to teach courses ranging from pedagogy to content courses, which results in an increase both in number and type of the courses they teach, and thus more effort on behalf of them (Jansen, 2001). In other words, higher education policies beyond the institutional practices are partially influential in the participants' workload. Based on the participants' negotiations of their positions, it was also found that there are hierarchical boundaries established based on the academic positions that the teacher educators occupy in the department. It is believed that full-time lecturer position is lowest at the rank and this causes feeling like a "second-class member" academic (Ylijoki & Henriksson, 2017, p. 1299). This also results in less agency to be able to influence their teaching workload. Academic position and accompanying power differentials seem to be influential in both the number and type of courses taught, and this may interrupt the full-time lecturers' agentic professional identity construction more than that of tenured or tenure-track faculty.

Also, the participants working as full-time lecturers negotiated the researcher-teacher role divide. As previously found (Kondakci et al., 2021; Umbach, 2007), the lecturers in this study have to devote more time on teaching by sacrificing time for research compared to tenured and tenure-track faculty. Some participants compared their own work practice with some other colleagues' practices and approaches to teaching. At the personal level, two of the full-time lecturers (i.e., TE4 and TE5) show similarities with Ylijoki and Henriksson's (2017) participants who were grouped as *the victim of the teaching trap.* Despite being highly devoted to teaching duties, both of them also put effort to advance in research. Yet they are under great difficulty to make a room for research amid the density of teaching work. What is more, they, as found by Mayer

et al. (2011), develop a dawning awareness of the fact that they are not "playing the game to their advantage" (p. 256) especially when they decide to look for opportunities for promotion, and therefore feel resentful of teaching's being undervalued. In this sense, it seems that administrative support at the departmental level regarding course distribution may enable the full-time lecturers to secure time for research (Berg, 2001; Griffiths et al., 2010), and this in turn may positively contribute to their professional identity. A similar concern about the intensity of teaching load was raised by tenured and tenure-track faculty as well. Except TE1, all participants work to meet the promotion criteria of either CoHE or XU, or both and they feel stressed during this challenging process (Bozyiğit & Yangın Ekşi, 2021) especially when their efforts and limited time devoted to do research is threatened by other responsibilities. Similar to universities who have undergone a "collective anxiety" (Peters, 2019, p. 11) in order to feature in university ranking lists, it is patently obvious that the participants have also been experiencing a collective anxiety of collecting points.

As for their departmental community, the full-time lecturers in the present study revealed that some research-oriented teacher educators have pragmatic motives largely dependent on efforts for recognition and meeting ambitious promotion criteria, and therefore overlook teaching (Chetty & Lubben, 2010; Diamond, 1993; Fairweather & Rhoads, 1995; Maguire, 2000; Robinson & McMillan, 2006; Yuan, 2016). This is why the participants believe that such teacher educators teach on autopilot since they have neither time nor motivation to improve their instruction (Xu & Solanki, 2020) and face identity dilemmas as claimed by Barkhuizen (2021) as well. The participants' views support that of the participants from four countries in Guberman et al.'s (2021) study who expressed disappointment over the fact that research is viewed as a more academic engagement, and commitment to research productivity is made "at the expense of teaching" (p. 481). Such a view has detrimental consequences for a unified understanding of scholarship. Promotion and prestige concerns of faculty caused largely by external requirements implicitly lead to a hierarchy and fragmentation of scholarship in which research ranks the first (Boyer, 1990). Also, a widespread and established understanding of hierarchical scholarship runs the risk of marginalizing teacher educators, and particularly lecturers, who are committed to teaching in research-oriented universities.

Furthermore, an overwhelming workload brings problems about work-life balance. This finding supports previous research (e.g., Barkhuizen & Rothmann, 2008; Berg, 2001; Griffiths et al., 2010). Due to the participants' "open-ended commitment/availability" (Morley & Walsh, 1995, p. 1), family and personal life has been partially neglected. From an emotional perspective, they suffer from stress, anxiety, and exhaustion due to failing to release from daily academic and administrative work (Barkhuizen & Rothmann, 2008; Schaffner, 2017; Ylijoki & Mäntylä, 2003; Ylijoki & Ursin, 2013). Supporting Ogbonna and Harris's (2004) finding, that departmental and institutional expectations as well as intensive workload directly and seriously affected their emotional states.

Yet, the fact that drawing on a flexible work schedule not to disturb work-life balance too much and not looking for academic promotion seem to help feel stress and strains of academic work to a lesser degree. In this regard, one of the participants (TE1) can be considered as having a more neutral attitude towards the conflicting and challenging institutional and professional expectations, and therefore she has similarities with Ylijoki and Ursin's (2013) participants who claimed that it is still possible to strike a balance between work and personal life through flexible working conditions. On the other hand, the other participants depicted a much more negative and unfavorable image of their work experience. It appears that new managerialism has not only intensified but also varied their workload and put pressures on their professional identities. In this respect, teacher educators working in this system broadly corresponds to Acker's (1990) universal or abstract worker. Though she discussed it for male employees, this concept seems highly relevant today for women as well. In line with neoliberal principles, the participants are expected to become abstract academic workers who have almost no responsibilities and commitments outside work in order not to fall behind with academic and administrative work. In the present case, this results in very limited commitment to intellectual endeavor, family and even oneself. It seems that the participants do not fully embrace an abstract worker identity causes conflicts in their professional identities with regard to handling excessive workload.

Time is a big problem for carrying out all types of academic works for the participants (Ball, 2003; Davies & Bansel, 2005; Raina, 2019). It appeared they cannot find time

to read thoroughly not only for research purposes but also for personal/professional learning (Bullough, 2014; Menzies & Newson, 2007). Escalating workload in teaching is one reason for that. Such workload creates a sense of failure and powerlessness to catch up with required research expectations (Ylijoki & Mäntylä, 2003). The other reason is the criteria set itself. The quick return expectations for knowledge produced in neoliberal academia urges academics for the effective use of time and prevents them from taking their time for a slow science (Gonzales et al., 2014; Stengers, 2013/2018). As a result, the participants seem to fall into a criteria trap that inevitably captures their time and energy, and furthermore the pressure to meet the criteria in the prescribed time limits causes a rush for time. Moreover, the very same time problem is a barrier for involvement in community service to a greater extent (Altun, 2021; Kondakci et al., 2021). The participants believe that publication-oriented criteria railroad them to a certain type of activity and ignores their commitment to other types of work (Austin, 2010; Fowler, 2017; Mayer et al., 2011), and therefore they demand a reorganization through which their (community) service efforts can be recognized, appreciated and promoted. To conclude, it is clear that current pressures and expectations have led to a conflict between their own conceptualizations of *ideal professional identity* where they take their time and advance in their own pace and *experienced professional identity* that is based on rush, anxiety, and external pressure. Hence, they have to continuously handle a conflict between a desire for self-regulated work and a pressure of prescribed work.

6.5. Discussion on the Contextual Factors

The findings related to collegiality at the departmental level revealed the necessity of colleague support on two dimensions. One is induction phase and the other is ongoing professional development process. Although there is an official academic induction program at the institutional level for newly hired faculty members, there is not one in the department. This does not support Murray's (2008) observation that induction programs are often held at the departments through micro levels of teaching teams. Despite the fact that newcomers become informed about issues mostly related to research and teaching in general and received support for accommodation to institutional culture, they do not have such an opportunity in an organized and

systematized way at the departmental level. Hence, academic socialization at the departmental level is largely on an ad hoc basis (Martinez, 2008; Murray, 2005) requiring individual efforts and initiatives of the new comers through informal exchanges or discussions.

At the departmental level, English language teacher educators can be considered as a type of community of practice as they have shared professional practices and work for a common aim (Lave & Wenger, 1991). It should be noted that participation into a community of practice requires mutual engagement of both parties, and this is why legitimate peripheral participation efforts of new comers may not necessarily lead to full participation in the short run since the attitude of the old timers are highly decisive (Wenger, 1998). In this case, it seems that old timers of the department who are not only fragmented by the variety but also overwhelmed by the intensity of professional work do not necessarily contribute to the induction process of newcomers (Dinkelman et al., 2006; Wilson, 1990). In addition, restructuring of universities through neoliberal premises has led to promoting highly individual academic subjects (Davies et al., 2006; Saul, 2005) due to their focus on their own work to be able to survive in the academic marketplace (Davies & Petersen, 2005). This is also evident in publication-focused talks exchanged in the department. This implies that the dominant discourse is more related to individualism rather than professional caring and sharing (Lynch, 2010; MacFarlane, 2007; Yokoyama, 2006). Therefore, old timers' attitude seems to pave the way for an individualized and non-inclusive working environment where one has to navigate through the academic and departmental socialization mostly on their own. In other words, they mostly rely on "their fairly autonomous and solitary experiences" to construct their professional identity (Montenegro Maggio, 2016, p. 540). Consequently, that the orientation of the newcomers is often taken for granted and they take care of themselves to a great extent is in line with the understanding of self-responsibility, which is a part of neoliberal ethos. This, however, is in fact a challenging and constraining understanding that goes against the formation of a robust professional identity.

Ongoing professional development of the participants is another important aspect of their professional identity (Swennen et al., 2010). The findings showed that conversing about their practices and exchanging professional experiences and

resources with colleagues is highly valued and desired by the participants (Chauvot, 2009; Waterhouse et al., 2021; Williams & Hayler, 2016). However, it appeared that an environment where collegiality and collaboration are prioritized for the purposes of professional development is often lacking in the present micro community. This supports previous studies (e.g., Ataş et al., 2021; Kosnik & Beck, 2008; Levine, 2006). Therefore, it can be concluded that this particular community cannot function as a learning community for the participants as opposed to expectations (Fuentealba Jara & Montenegro Maggio, 2016). Despite the fact that colleagues are regarded as an important contributor to teacher education pedagogy (Russell, 2016) and professional identities are believed to be affected by "strong and stable communities" (Henkel, 2005, p. 157), it is the individuality that reigns in this particular community rather than a strong and supportive community. The findings support Barrow and Xu's (2022) study. They also claim that the communities of practice can help members develop a sense of belonging to a certain society through which they reinforce their professional identities. Considering the lack of collaboration and professional sharing among members, it can be concluded that this community strengthens neither belonging nor professional identity as stated by the participants.

Furthermore, Maaranen et al. (2019) found that a supportive teacher educator community is believed to be encouraging and showing interest to one another's work. In this respect, it seems that the present community does not throw full support or grant recognition to members for their professional endeavors. It seemed that some participants may feel excluded at times based on the lack of administrative and colleague support in addition to their implicit emphasis on the individuality rather than communality. Making some arrangements to facilitate the project management or attending seminars and showing appreciation for the efforts would be considered as a sign of departmental acknowledgement of their contribution to the development of teaching, research and service work in the department. On the other hand, this micro community seems highly mean with giving acknowledgment, and failed to grant them symbolic capital in return for their work on certain occasions. This might be related to their discipline and status. As already implied, there might be a hierarchy of disciplines in the department which is fostered by group endeavours and administrative policies. Another hierarchy may be related to the full time lecturer position that makes the

participants' efforts less recognizable and relevant. Overall, they give rise to feeling upset and undervalued.

In the previous section, it was discussed that the participants are highly committed to service to students. However, they lack this commitment when their own professional development is in question. They simply fail to form communities of interest both for research and teaching purposes, and accordingly they usually fail to contribute to one another's pedagogy and research practices. In addition, while they do their best to be able to address a wider and international audience by publishing in prestigious journals or presenting in international conferences, they do not find it necessary to address their colleagues in their micro-community. Similar to the newcomers' induction, the underlying reason for lack of professional collaboration might be due to neoliberal ethos dominant in the workplace. In line with the opinions of Guberman et al.'s (2021) participants, teacher educators in the present community of practice might be considering professional development in teacher role as an individual effort, and therefore overlook collaboration. Nevertheless, this has detrimental impact on individual teacher educators who seek opportunities for collaborative professional development.

Moreover, Vähäsantanen et al. (2008) found that focusing solely on personal professional development without sharing valuable information with colleagues restrains departmental growth. In this case, for instance, successful pedagogical practices or syllabus designs may run the risk of remaining limited to individual teacher educators. In the same vein, not only time constraints but also "fear of competition and judgemental attitudes of their colleagues" (MacPhail et al., 2019, p. 859) may become barriers for collaboration for professional development. As Smith (2003) found, demanding professional advice and help from as well as holding a reflective dialogue with colleagues might be a highly challenging work for some teacher educators. Lack of an established departmental culture fostering collegiality for development especially in teaching might be another reason. If the administrators create an environment fostering collegial sharing and learning, this provides both individual and departmental benefit (Avidov-Ungar & Forkosh-Baruch, 2018; Hadar & Brody, 2010).

Moreover, the results, as found elsewhere (e.g., Cheng, 2010; Fresko & Nasser, 2001), indicated that the implementation, need and benefit of SETs is a controversial issue among the participants. It was, on the one hand, found that some of the participants reflect on total scores and mostly on comments to improve their teaching and adjust course load (Law et al., 2007; Smith & Welicker-Pollack, 2008; Spencer & Flyr, 1992; Yao & Grady, 2005). On the other hand, it was also found that SET scores and comments does not necessarily lead to a change in teaching if the participants feel that the evaluation was biased, subjective, unjustified and in direct relation to students' own grades (Hira & Cohen, 2011; Maurer, 2006). Similarly, they do not let SET scores to inform their teaching if the participants feel that they have to diverge from their beliefs and values in teaching. Similar to Yuan's (2017) finding, reticent and reluctant students who resist active engagement in professional and academic work have, at times, become a challenge to achieve course objectives. This behavior might be rooted in students' own conceptualizations of good teaching. The fact that students in general view grading as the most important aspect of teaching as opposed to long-term professional development (Nasser-Abu Alhija, 2017) might lead to a value conflict between the instructor and students. Given that some of the participants are aware of this value conflict, they do not feel obliged to go for a change in teaching practices. However, this is not necessarily the case.

The participants revealed that some colleagues adjust both their teaching and evaluation based on SET scores in a way that results in grade inflation (Maurer, 2006; Lewis, 2007; Stroebe, 2020). In other words, the main motive behind the adjustment seems scoring higher in SET rather than improving teaching. This conduct may be attributed to the audit culture dominant in universities. Complying with the audit culture makes teacher educators become more accountable regarding their academic performance. SETs, as a particular audit tool, make them accountable to both students (Sawyer et. al. 2009) and the university administration. In other words, the requirement of accountability implies a power relation through which both students and the administration could exercise some power on teacher educators (Shore & Wright, 2000). They may feel pressured to satisfy students' expectations (Cheng, 2010) as if they were customers (Germain & Scandura, 2005; du Gay, 1996) to be able to avoid negative comments and low scores, and this in turn might influence their promotion and tenure decisions (Lewis, 2007). As a result, audit culture has a potential

to change the teacher educators' professional behavior and values negatively. It seems that SETs function for those teacher educators largely as an instrument to receive promotion rather than reflecting on teaching practices. Regarding this, the participants have opposing views. While SETs can be viewed as a "control mechanism", "pressure" and "weapon", they are also viewed as beneficial and necessary control tools to enhance research-oriented teacher educators' teaching practices. This shows that there is espousal and support for audit culture as well.

No matter how objective and neutral they seem, Shore and Wright (2000) argue that audit tools are types of normative metrics that rank individual academics, and this is why they call auditing a "dividing practice" (p. 61). This argument is relevant for the present case. The participants together with their colleagues are ranked according to their scores both in the department and in the Faculty. Such a ranking system indicates and fosters competitiveness as well as individuality among the colleagues. In addition, SETs are reduced to a numeric final score which has only little meaning to the participants. In other words, teaching is a highly complex work requiring commitment to various aspects including subject, pedagogy and students. However, a single numerical score does not fully explain the effort put in teaching. In line with Smith and Welicker-Pollack's (2008) findings, the participants often draw on comments rather than the numerical score to inform their teaching. Therefore, it can be concluded that qualitative feedback about teaching is more meaningful for individual teacher educators since they can judge and decide what and how to do with the feedback collected. Quantitative feedback, on the other hand, does not contribute much to professional agency; what is more, it becomes a tool through which individual teacher educators can be governed for the purpose of promotion and tenure.

Additionally, the evaluation process has other implications for the participants' professional identity. The findings revealed that teaching is not practiced in isolation but is a social endeavor (Hagenauer & Volet, 2014; Zembylas, 2005b) not only because the participants adjusted their teaching at times based on student feedback but also because they negotiated some emotional states triggered by their students' feedback. They may experience divergent emotions upon reading the qualitative feedback. Negative feedbacks cause stress and emotional exhaustion for the participants, and this supports Watts and Robertson's (2011) findings. Especially

when the participants realize that their effort has not been recognized by students they may feel resentment against students, and even avoid reading the feedbacks. This implies that they may face the risk of missing an opportunity to learn from unbiased and useful feedback (Smith, 2003). Yet, positive and useful feedback seems contributing positively to their professional wellbeing.

As for governance issue, the findings demonstrated that the participants conceptualize shared governance similarly. In line with Kater's (2017) findings, they speak of the importance of two-way communication, transparency, participation in decision making process, respect and making their voice heard. In addition, it seems that they can experience all of them to a large extent through standing bodies such as senates and boards as well as departmental meetings as also found by Fisher et al. (2011). However, it should be noted that there is a more cautious approach towards transparency since some participants sense that the administrations may be avoiding complete loyalty to it. This is why they feel that theirs is a comparatively democratic environment, though not fully. Overall, the findings partially resonate with Lyons and Ingersoll's (2010) study that found that academics have become less influential in decision making processes with regard to academic issues in their institutions due to new managerial policies. However, the results are opposed to Hao's (2016) findings since the participants in the present study are actively involved in certain processes including the faculty recruitment, curriculum change and the selection of departmental chairs. Yet, they also underlined that some of their opinions may not necessarily be taken into consideration or there might be delays at both departmental and institutional levels. Hence this implies that they are slightly less influential and agentic at these levels compared to individual level agency (Vähäsantanen et al., 2020).

It is noticeable that the participants feel high levels of academic freedom as well as agency in their researcher and mostly in teacher roles as suggested by Stodolsky (1989) and Vähäsantanen et al. (2008). In other words, they feel that neither departmental administration nor the central administration (i.e., presidency) perceptibly interferes in their teaching (e.g., choice of material, proposing a new course, course content etc.) and research activities (e.g., interdisciplinary work, research topic). While bringing up some of the debatable or sensitive issues in classrooms, though cautiously, has become possible in XU, this is often not possible

in provincial universities according to the participants. This supports Doğan's (2016) as well as Doğan and Selenica's (2022) findings. Therefore, they feel satisfied, though not to the full extent, with the academic freedom provided in the university contrary to Balyer's (2011) participants in other Turkish universities. This finding also resonates with Shin and Jung's (2014) study showing that exercising high academic freedom provided academics with high job satisfaction in most of the European and in some East Asian countries. As discussed before, partial dissatisfaction of the participants in the present study stems from the fact that they cannot obtain necessary support from both administrations regarding bureaucratic conduct of research, their diminished agency in course distributions as well as the number of courses; and these make them feel constrained with regard to academic freedom.

In addition, the fact that the participants exercise academic freedom and can participate in decision making processes at the departmental and institutional levels contributes to their commitment to the workplace (Vähäsantanen et al., 2008). In general, the participants consider the national context of higher education in order to make judgments about their own cases. Therefore, it can be understood that both institutional and national conditions have a profound influence on their conceptualization of academic freedom and shared governance of universities. They believe that the academic and administrative environment in XU enables them to exercise academic freedom, make their voice heard, and have some control over their academic and administrative work is an exceptional case considering the other universities in Turkey. In this sense, it might be inferred that certain autocratic administrative practices in the Turkish higher education system have not been implemented widely or explicitly in XU. The participants' accounts demonstrated that they may encounter some administrative attempts for top-down decisions at times. These decisions are often based on an entrepreneurial and managerial discourse (e.g., new appointment and promotion criteria and publication criterion for travel grant). If and when they face such an attempt by the central and faculty administration, they practice both individual and collective professional agency to either reach a negotiated decision or completely reject certain proposals and conducts to resist entrepreneurial and governed selves as much as possible. In other words, they show resistance towards and demand modifications about such attempts and implementations if they view them as threats to their academic freedom (Hökkä & Etaelapelto, 2014; Hökkä et al., 2012).

It was also found that the participants believe their monthly base salary is not satisfactory particularly when they consider the amount of effort they put in their professional practices. This result supports the previous studies in the literature (e.g., Bircan & Erdoğmuş, 2020; Yılmaz et al., 2014). When their quality of work life suffers from low salaries (Taşdemir Afşar, 2015), they feel it necessary to take on extra teaching loads to compensate for their low earning. This supports Visakorpi et al. (2008) who concluded that this is a widespread practice in the Turkish academia as civil servant salaries do not meet academics' expectations in general. What is more, additional teaching load brings a decrease in working hours allocated to research practices (Visakorpi et al., 2008) as well as feeling overwhelmed. It was also highlighted by TE1 that one should not take an academic job for money. In this sense, she is similar to Tülübaş and Göktürk's (2018) participants who, despite agreeing that their salaries are low, believe that it is their commitment that motives them to work as academics rather than money. Moreover, it was also revealed that the governments force academics through an unstable and shaky economy to take care of themselves and bear self-responsibility about their lives. In other words, they are expected to secure themselves financially if they are not able to live on their salaries in the current economic conditions.

Also, the participants believe that an ongoing economic instability in the country affects not only the current state but also their future. In addition to feeling difficulty at present in living on money they earn from their job, they are hesitant about their future plans considering exchange rate and economic crisis in the country. In other words, their problem is twofold. One is inherently low salaries and the other is economic crisis that makes their financial situation even worse. However, they underline this is a nation-wide problem, and is relevant for any professional. From an emotional perspective, this situation makes them feel anxious, worried, stressed and insecure. It seems that parental financial support and additional income might work to relieve their financial worries to some extent. As a result, the belief is that the prevailing economic situation and academics' earning do not provide facilitating conditions to do science, but rather decrease motivation. They view themselves as overworked but underpaid. They hold a belief that this may lead even to a moral corruption among academics when they cut down on hours at work as a response to

underpayment. In conclusion, their professional identity regarding this issue is highly insecure, wavering and contains anticipatory anxiety.

Academic incentive system is viewed as a faulty strategy to increase academic performance and productivity. The participants in general do not believe that the system increased their motivation to be more productive (Stazyk, 2012). This finding contradicts with previous research in which a great majority of or all participants agreed that the system boosted their performance (e.g., Atalay, 2018; Demir, 2019; Şahin et al., 2017). In other words, the incentive system, similar to the promotion criteria, is believed to increase individuation (Musselin, 2009) through which academics calculate points of each piece of work and try to maximize their own individual income added on their base salaries. Although differentiated salary model has not been adopted yet by the public universities in Turkey, this might be considered as an introductory step by means of which academics have been familiarized with some aspects of the model. It appeared that the participants apply to the system with a motive to supplement their unsatisfactory base salaries although they actually prefer an increase in the salaries rather than a performance-oriented incentive system. Moreover, a common concern among the participants is about the increase in low-grade publications and accompanying ethical problems as also found in other studies (e.g., Demir, 2019; Jenkins et al., 1998; Kondakci et al., 2021; Şahin et al., 2017).

It also appeared that the system works as a controlling mechanism designed by neoliberal higher education policies at the national level (Atalay, 2018). This is evident when some participants criticized the overdue announcement of incentive criteria as a result of which they were unable to predetermine and arrange the type of academic work in accordance with the criteria. Academic incentive system as a control tool poses certain threats to usual ways of conducting academic work in several ways. First, it mechanizes academics as discussed by some participants. This happens through the standardization of their work. Secondly, as discussed above, XU's and CoHE's promotion criteria already present them with a fragmented and exclusive understanding of scholarship. Academic incentive system may even deepen this fragmented view of scholarship since it promotes similar academic activities and aggrandizes certain research related activities (Holmlund, 2009). Thus, an urge to do research and publish may cause to overlook teaching and service work. This in turn

may lead teacher educators to not only accept and internalize such an understanding of academic work but also contribute to the advancement of it. Lastly, some participants stressed that carrying out research and publishing run the risk of becoming a tool to reach money despite the fact that monetary gain was originally set as a tool motivating for research productivity. In short, monetary gain may become an end itself for academics. This may cause an implicit danger to their intrinsic motivation and self-interest to do research because as Frank (2004) stated "intrinsic motivation is a fragile flower, which may fade in the shadow of extrinsic incentives" (p. 122).

To conclude, it seems that both the impact and the degree of accepting the incentive system is very much related to academics' perceptions (Bøgh Andersen & Pallesen, 2008; Frey, 1997). Rather than a genuine support for their professional endeavor, the system is viewed as a tool controlling and mechanizing academics; distorting quality and nature of academic work; compensating low salaries; and tempting to behave unethically. This is why general attitude of the participants is critical and negative. Therefore, it does not contribute to their professional identity positively and has been reduced solely to monetary gain.

Another important contextual factor that influences the participants' professional practices as well as professional identities is the extent of academic freedom they relish. The findings revealed that they are satisfied neither with the prevailing sociopolitical environment nor with the academic freedom they can exercise in a wider context. This finding supports the prior studies in the literature (e.g., Doğan, 2016; Doğan, 2015; Doğan & Selenica, 2022; Summak, 1998). One reason for that is the historical, national, and religious sensitivity of the society which makes teaching, researching or simply discussing related topics both on and beyond the campus highly controversial and problematic for the participants. This finding can be considered important in the sense that it implies an ongoing and intense division between society and academia. Furthermore, the current governmental policies enable opening up a sharper division between between society and academia as well as fostering the already existing division between academia and the government (Doğan & Selenica, 2022). Despite such a division between academia and the government, there was, as revealed by some participants, an obvious ambivalence over voicing criticism of the governmental policies since the university they work in is also a state-funded one. This

stands as an important factor that impeded their critical subjectivity (Vatansever, 2018). In addition, it has been already revealed and discussed that universities have been reshaped by the government through neoliberal higher education policies. What is more, it seems that the government has intensified such attacks through a political authoritarianism as well (Doğan, 2022; Doğan & Selenica, 2022; Tutkal, 2021; Vatansever, 2018). Thus, considering that the government's higher education policy is shot through with both a political authoritarianism and a neoliberal managerialism, it would not be wrong to name it authoritarian neoliberalism (e.g., Tutkal, 2021). As it has already been demonstrated in the historical background section of this study, there has always been attacks carried out by the previous governments on academic freedom; however, the recent growing authoritarian neoliberalism has made it even more vulnerable.

It is obvious that the year 2016 marked a watershed for not only political authoritarianism in general but also academic freedom in particular. The authoritarianism in academia started with suspensions, court trials, and mass dismissals of academics upon signing a petition and continued with presidential decrees that were issued during a long-lasting state of emergency after the coup attempt and that announced hundreds of academics' mass dismissals and ban from public service. The emotional and psychological backwash of both instances has still been felt. It is apparent that a powerful sense of fear and stress still exists especially given that students convey their complaints about them to either administrators or CIMER as a result of which they can be investigated (Aktaş et al., 2019; Doğan & Selenica, 2022). In this sense, students act as control mechanisms that can constrain the participants' academic freedom. On the other hand, the constraint created by students is detrimental not only to the participants but also to themselves since the students may not learn how to think critically (Hao, 2016) and benefit from diversity of views.

In addition, the threat of unemployment still serves as a deterrent against academic freedom (Aktas et al., 2018; Vatansever, 2018). As a result, the fact that the government may seek retribution against themselves in many unfavorable ways has led to adoption of self-censorship by some participants (Aktas et al., 2018; Doğan & Selenica, 2022). It can be concluded that the fear of experiencing both "economic and

political violence" (Dönmez & Duman, 2021 p. 1134) is the strongest motive that force them to play safe both in teaching and in research. This fear is relevant for all academics regardless of their posts. Despite the fact that tenure is believed to guarantee academic freedom (Hao, 2016; Jeppesen & Nazar, 2012), it is hardly ever the case in practice (Williams & Ceci, 2007). In both instances (i.e., post-coup and petition purges), numerous academics working as assistant, associate or full professor as well as research assistant were suspended, arrested or dismissed. Hence, it became obvious that academic freedom is available to neither tenured nor non-tenured academics. This situation makes them feel even more insecure. Furthermore, students' academic freedom is also affected negatively when the government intervenes in their rights for freedom of expression and protest. Thus, it can be understood that neoliberal authoritarianism limits not only academics but also students.

The very same year was also important for another reason. The president of the country started to appoint rectors after a decree was issued stating that the election of presidents of universities by faculty was abolished. This can be viewed as a serious attack on academic freedom although the election period was still not viewed fully democratic by the participants as the top ranked candidate at the end of the election was not necessarily appointed by the president of the country before 2016. Therefore, it can be said that the implementation of the decree has added more on the violation of academic freedom. In conclusion, the intended result of the appointment procedure, which is the limitation of institutional autonomy and academic freedom, has been successfully obtained by the government. Yet, it is obvious that XU is still viewed as a 'liberated zone' to some extent especially given the democratic violations widespread in many other Turkish universities. Although the participants are highly aware of and anxious about a serious of government crackdowns taking place in the Turkish academia since 2016, they feel safer in XU. The fact that the number of academics who has been influenced severely by this process was very limited in XU contributed to their sense of security.

Another problem is about the organizational structures of universities in Turkey, which has a direct consequence for XU. Despite the fact that faculty board and faculty executive board are believed to be bodies enabling shared governance by the participants, the fact that the lecturers are represented in none of them was raised as a

concern and a violation of democracy. That the lecturers are apparently deprived of official opportunities to contribute to faculty boards has apparently been neglected by higher education law. As a result, the lecturers might be experiencing problems with regard to the legitimacy and credibility of their positions as academics.

CoHE is a very important actor to put governmental policies into practice especially given the superior-subordinate interaction between the two. The president and one third of the members of the council are appointed by the president of the country. Hence, a widespread political authoritarianism practiced by the governing bodies has also been reflected by policies implemented by CoHE. It appeared that CoHE itself is viewed as a type of control mechanism regulating and interfering in academic work as both universities and individual academics are made accountable to it since the day it was first established. One of the complaints of the participants was related to CoHE's centralized power in designing a unified, standard and top-down undergraduate curriculum of English language teaching program (Tezgiden-Cakcak, 2015). The fact that these programs were imposed rather than agreed was a source of threat to teacher educators' academic freedom. It was believed that CoHE did not manage program design and change processes transparently and inclusively as also found by Uztosun and Troudi (2015).

In addition, when the changes in the existing programs were found to be facile, unnecessary and too frequent, this could pave the way for problems with adaptation to the new program and a sense of stress and an increase in workload on behalf of the participants. While the process before CoHE's delegation of authority decision was often experienced negatively and viewed as restrictive, it is possible to say that the delegation decision has provided a partial autonomy to both faculties of education and teacher educators. Yet, the fact that programs are to be built within the general framework of course categories and weights predetermined by CoHE is still constraining. Moreover, CoHE was also found to be restrictive regarding student quotas (Tezgiden-Cakcak, 2015). The cohort accepted to the ELT program in XU is found to be beyond the number that can enable a quality education (Sallan Gül & Gül, 2014). Supporting Asmalı and Çelik's (2021) results, a high number of students is believed by the participants to result in growth in workload for teacher educators as well as less academic care for students, and in turn less quality education. While some

of the factors limiting the participants' academic freedom and a sense of democracy are institutional, most of them largely originate from organizational structure of the Turkish higher education. This is why it is extremely difficult to take actions that can lead to revolutionary changes even beyond their institutions in a climate of neoliberal authoritarianism. Therefore, there seems to left no space for the participants to maneuver in this academic and political climate except clinging on to XU spirit for collective agency to ward off government's neoliberal authoritarianism.

The participants are also heavily influenced by not only the current state of higher education but also the frequent policy change implementations with loose ends or unfavorable results. One important point raised by the participants is that despite university expansion, gaining impetus in the last two decades through the government's neoliberal policies, has enabled access to higher education, it has come with serious quality problems. This finding concurs with previous research (e.g., Altınsoy, 2011; Karataş Acer & Güçlü, 2017a; Özoğlu et al., 2016; Sallan Gül & Gül, 2014; Yalçıntaş & Akkaya, 2019). While the number of universities was 74 at the very beginning of AKP ruling in 2002, it increased up to 178 in 2012 and up to 208 in 2022 (Yükseköğretim Bilgi Yönetim Sistemi, 2022). In line with the participants' observations, the university expansion seems very dramatic. Altbach et al. (2012) claim that "no country can afford mass access and high quality ─ it will never happen" (pp. 186-187), and their claim seems relevant for Turkey as well. Thus, the participants feel cynical about the ongoing big boom in the number of universities as most of them are believed to provide education slightly beyond the level of high schools. This finding supports the study of Yavuz (2010) who also claimed that universities have turned into high schools.

Moreover, it is also argued that establishing new universities has turned out to be a business, which goes against the grain. The higher education statistics also show that 79 out of 208 universities have been established by foundations (Yükseköğretim Bilgi Yönetim Sistemi, 2022) who expect satisfactory monetary returns through their investments in higher education. Therefore, entrepreneurial universities' efforts for economic development might override the importance given to academic quality becomes a consideration for the participants. Additionally, the governments' policies to use newly established universities as a tool to advance the local or regional

economic development of the cities may override the importance of ensuring academic quality is another concern (Doğan & Selenica, 2022). As a result, the active role of capitalists and financers behind the foundation universities in higher education system and the governments' aim to contribute to local economies through new universities might imply that universities are positioned primarily as driving forces of economic development rather than as academic institutions (Karataş Acer & Güçlü, 2017a; Kavili Arap, 2010). It is obvious that a neoliberal understanding of universities is disturbing for the participants.

An additional problem is that the higher education policy makers seem to lack the perfect foresight to judge the possible outcomes of university expansion. While the lack of appropriate policies regulating a match between available vacancies and the number of university graduates has caused academic inflation and qualitative underemployment (Habibi, 2017; Yalçıntaş & Akkaya, 2019), lack of policies encouraging for postsecondary vocational programs has led to a shortage of intermediary staff. The fact that dramatic increase in access to higher education does not often coincide with the access to desired job opportunities is believed to trivialize the significance of holding a university degree. Another problematic issue regarding higher education as well as K-12 education is the structural reforms and changes that are too frequent, ill-planned and that have loose ends. Despite being started enthusiastically by policy makers to develop existing conditions, the implementation of reforms is usually experienced in disappointment by teacher educators and/or teachers. As there is a gulf of difference between reform rhetoric and practice reality, and reforms do not often serve the purpose, the participants feel that there is a positive change neither in higher education nor in basic and secondary education. They obviously cannot reconcile the current state of education systems with their idealizations and expectations. Therefore, it should come as no surprise that they usually feel cynical about the idea of reforms in education. As a result, they feel disadvantaged or pessimistic when trying to position their work and themselves as teacher educators within the system. Their concern about the fact that the current state of higher education seems to partially cause them to lose their motivation and steer them to an understanding of individuality supports Apple's (2001, p. 420) claim that current neoliberal form of education produces "thin morality" that is built upon

competitive individualism at the expense of common good of society informed by "thick morality".

Given all, the participants negotiate a wide range of factors that have an impact on their formation of professional identities. It appeared that the participants are highly vulnerable to the impacts of neoliberal academia at the institutional, national and global levels when fulfilling their roles and forming their professional identities. It is noteworthy that an ongoing growth in neoliberal higher education policies and practices, though highly invisible and normalized, try to permeate into the participants' habits of minds and hearts in order to turn them into neoliberal academics who are expected to be fully oriented towards effectiveness, production, competition and entrepreneurship. Obviously, there are instances where they did not necessarily question some external requirements as well as their own individual habitual practices that are in line with neoliberal ethos, and thus normalized and appropriated themselves to them. On the other hand, there are also instances when they took up a critical stance towards current policies, practices and requirements, and even practiced agency to resist them. On this basis, it is difficult to arrive at any conclusions with regard to the fact that they have completely internalized the neoliberal ethos and discourse, and in turn have become neoliberal teacher educators as academics. Therefore, the findings can be understood as the participants neither purely and simply exhibited neoliberal characteristics nor completely and absolutely immersed themselves into neoliberal discourses. Hence, their professional selves seem to be shaped by competing discourses where they not only largely normalized and reproduced but also partly criticized and resisted the neoliberal policies and practices in academia (Davies & Peterson, 2005; Halford & Leonards, 2006; Scharff, 2016; Yılmaz Şener, 2012). In conclusion, the shifting nature and discourse of academia seems to exert a considerable, profound and formative influence on the participants' professional habits of minds and hearts as teacher educators.

6.6. Discussion on the Political Roles

The interview results showed that the participants care about politics of education and more specifically of learning and teaching of English. They claim that they touch upon such issues in some courses belonging to both undergraduate and graduate programs.

However, the classroom observations revealed that they often lack predetermined, structured and systematized pedagogies to foster pre-service teachers' political socialization. In other words, there is either limited or superficial discussion targeting at issues including that schools are political organizations (Mahony & Hextall, 2000; Sachs, 2005), political interpretations of how and where English language curriculum is developed (Sachs, 2005), how curriculum and assessment implemented, power relations in schools, neocolonial impacts on English teaching and learning etc. There were not many instances where the participants explicitly and purposefully attended how such political discourses and students' developing English language teacher identities and practices might converge when they start teaching in schools. It was clearly observable that when the participants touched upon such issues it was usually in the form of self-expression or short discussion. In other words, the participants usually did not expect any student initiation and based their teaching on teacher delivery of these issues. This might result from the fact that the participants might have believed that teacher delivery was a more effective and time-saving strategy when compared to waiting for students to bring up questions or start a related topic (Tillema & Kremer-Hayon, 2002). Yet, the participants tried to encourage students to express their opinions when they comparatively had longer discussions.

There might be several reasons behind the fact that the participants do not put heavy emphasis on taking up a political stance and integrating political issues in their course contents explicitly, purposefully and systematically. First of all, this might stem from the fact that their own educational background might not have contributed to their own political awareness. Coming from such a system, they might be simply and habitually repeating past patterns of a pedagogical understanding. Apart from educational backgrounds, prior working experiences as teacher might not have informed their current political dispositions. They might not have reflected on the discourse of powers, their own roles and neocolonial impact on English teaching policies in the contexts where they used to work. Moreover, they do not have an experiential knowledge of working in highly underdeveloped and rural areas. Their limited or no experience with diverse learner profile and environment, as suggested by Peercy et al. (2019), might be a hindrance to increase pre-service teachers' political awareness with regard to ethnic, linguistic and cultural diversity they may encounter as future teachers.

In addition, the participants might be considering such issues not as central but peripheral to teacher education pedagogy due to their own professional dispositions. Their philosophies of teaching show that only TE5 prioritized and stressed the importance of supporting pre-service teachers' political and critical awareness. In line with her account, she was the participant who tried to create more opportunities to implement a pedagogy that triggered for students' political awareness. In line with Tezgiden-Cakcak's (2017) results, some of the participants might not have had a pedagogical mission beyond teaching subject matters without considering and challenging dominant discourses despite the importance they attached to such issues in rhetoric. Moreover, the participants, again except TE5, did not mention such a competency when they spoke of teacher competencies they expect pre-service teachers to develop. The competencies they mentioned were highly in line with MoNE's competencies for teaching profession, and both (i.e., the competencies that the participants mentioned and that of MoNE) similarly lacked political awareness. Thus, this becomes an issue that was captured neither in the participants' nor in MoNE's competencies expected from teachers. As a result, their strong focus on governmental expectations (e.g., MoNE's competencies) might have caused them to neglect such critical work (Davies & Petersen, 2005). In addition, the common understanding of ELT, as implied in the interviews, might often be associated with language and linguistics rather than education, and as Crookes and Lehner (1998) argue this might be another reason that might have led some participants to neglect sociopolitical aspects of language teaching. Also, time might be a major constraint on the extent they included such issues in their lessons. Their heavy teaching loads and the extent of topics they planned to cover in each course (Tillema & Kremer-Hayon, 2002) may have rushed them to focus on only technical aspects of topics, and therefore they may have overlooked an extended and systematic coverage of political aspects. In turn, their lessons seem politically 'neutral' but technically loaded. This might cause a single-sided technical interpretation of teacher education work.

Furthermore, the interviews also showed that there is no described or prescribed professional competencies or standards for teacher educators in the Turkish higher education context. Therefore, contributing to pre-service teachers' political awareness and socialization process as well as getting them ready for learner profile and school context where there might be various forms of power discourses might not have been

viewed as an individual responsibility or it just simply might have implied a state of diffusion of responsibility. The participants might have felt less responsible, and thus practiced less agency to role-model political awareness and teach politics of English teaching and learning since they may have taken it granted that other teacher educators might have been doing it. Another issue that they might have taken for granted may be the fact that such issues can somehow be covered in graduate courses. According to the interview results, some participants stated that they focus such issues in a more detailed way when teaching graduate courses. This implies that they might have viewed them a type of specialized knowledge addressing graduate students rather than a core competency for pre-service teachers. However, political awareness is a highly important competency that can prepare pre-service teachers for their future roles. Given that a majority of pre-service teachers do not continue with graduate studies after receiving bachelor's degree, they may lack opportunities to develop such a competency.

Lastly, troubling hegemonic and constraining discourses might have been challenging for the participants. As it was previously demonstrated, the participants work in a climate where political dissent is not brooked. Given that this situation makes them feel threatened, they might have avoided bringing up and discussing some issues from a critical perspective. In addition, pre-service teachers might be showing resistance to learn about politics of ELT and education as they are accustomed to learning through a technicist view of teaching. Furthermore, they often look for the easiest, shortest and intellectually less demanding ways to receive a bachelor's degree as consumers of neoliberal education (Naidoo & Williams, 2015). Therefore, when students do not collaborate with the instructor to increase their political self-awareness and moreover criticize them for being political rather than solely technical with a belief that the latter would benefit them in the labor market, this may create disappointment on behalf of the instructor and their teacher education pedagogy might be challenged by students.

A similar situation might apply to research practices as well. In line with Schwartz's (2014) claim, the participants who write for political or intellectual readers might be belittled by some colleagues for not being academic enough. Additionally, as already stated in the previous section, scholars may not necessarily be granted permission by MoNE to work on certain political issues including multilingual and refugee

education. These show that there are external factors that may limit their political stance in research. The participants, on the other hand, might simply be more interested in more technical, value-free and politically 'neutral' topics as researchers. Then, this also shows that they might be driven by non-political intrinsic motives too.

From a broader perspective, the participants' political roles and activities usually seem to be shaped by ethos of neoliberal education policies, neoliberal governmentality and authoritarianism. Dominant neoliberal discourse in teacher education, though highly invisible and normalized, urge teacher educators to appropriate both themselves and pre-service teachers to the existing social and economic order (Davies & Bansel, 2007). In this sense, expected knowledge base and pedagogy of teacher education can be viewed as a type of political technology through which teacher educators and pre-service teachers are governed. Dreyfus and Rabinow (1982, p. 196) underline that "political technologies advance by taking what is essentially a political problem, removing it from the realm of political discourse, and recasting it in the neutral language of science". In the current context, highly technicized teacher education curriculum and pedagogy detached largely from contextual sociopolitical realities stand as the norm as well as a 'neutral' knowledge base. Norms function as means for individuals both to be governed and to conduct themselves (Shore & Wright, 2000). Additionally, it should be noted that neither teacher education itself nor the so-called technologies are neutral in reality. As Shore and Wright (2000) argue these political technologies bear a new rationale and morale shaping and governing teacher educators' professional work. As a result, teacher education pedagogy has long been degraded to a job training for the labor market rather than a critical work (Dominelli & Hoogvelt, 1996; Giroux, 2014). This has implications for the intellectual characteristics of both teacher educators and pre-service teachers. The hegemony of a highly technicized professionalism might erode the teacher education work into a state suffering from intellectual quality. Thus, becoming an intellectual for teacher educators usually plays second fiddle to becoming careerists (Scott & Marshall, 2009). In the same vein, becoming an intellectual for pre-service teachers plays the second fiddle to becoming skilled professionals in the job market. This is how they appropriate themselves and are appropriated by neoliberal governmentality to the present social and economic order.

In the end, it becomes evident that the participants, regardless of their driving reasons, mostly do not go beyond mentioning such issues only in passing. In other words, political aspects of teaching and learning English cannot receive a widespread attention in a technically dominated pedagogy, and therefore teacher educators' contribution to pre-service teachers' critical political socialization can be considered as a "pedagogical blind spot" (Peercy et al., 2019, p. 4). However, it should be noted that pre-service teachers' critical political socialization into the contexts they are going to work in near future and gaining necessary knowledge and skills to challenge the discourses of powers embedded in the curriculum, materials, workplaces and education system is a considerably important issue. English language teachers work in a hierarchical system in Turkey. A strictly centralized education system, English curriculum mandates, high-stakes tests, parents, limitations of autonomy and agency are some of the elements having power influences on their work. Practicum courses, school visits and limited number of practice teachings do not fully and necessarily provide them with opportunities to recognize, learn about and get prepared for the awaiting power discourses. As claimed by Bar-Tal and Harel (2002) teacher educators are influential agents of this socialization process by teaching content and becoming role models through their own awareness. Only when teacher educators can succeed in contributing to this process can pre-service teachers find an opportunity to grow as full professionals. Namely, not only technical but also political knowledge is required for fully-developed English language teachers. Otherwise, they become nothing more than "technically trained docility" (Nussbaum, 2010, p. 142) who would reproduce habitual patterns of teaching which is not informed by political awareness.

Lastly, the findings revealed that the participants' perceived and true contributions to pre-service teachers' political awareness do not fully match. This is why, it can be concluded that teacher educators need to engage in a practice of critical self-reflexivity (Peercy et al., 2019) so that they can judge their own responsibility, positionality, how and if they reflect it in their teacher education pedagogy, and whether or to what extent there is a discrepancy between their perceived and true contribution to pre-service teachers' political awareness. A detailed and critical analysis of their pedagogical practices from such a standpoint may help them identify the sources of discrepancies as well as developing their pedagogy in this respect. Then and only then can teacher

educators enact “a more reflective, interpretive, historically grounded, and politically engaged pedagogy” (Kramsch, 2014, p. 296).

6.7. Conclusion

I don’t need to tell you how things are, Miss Franklin. Non-scientists think of science as universal. Celestial, even. But science is terrestrial. Territorial. Political.

William Nicholson, 2003

The present study aimed to investigate professional identity formation of English language teacher educators working in a particular research- oriented university in the Turkish context. There were two other foci of the study. One point was about how a variety of official documents produced by XU and IB influence the professional roles of the participants and which professional roles are prioritized by these two institutions. The other focus was based on how the participants fulfill their political roles in their professional work. Official documents, semi-structured interviews as well as field notes taken during course observations were analyzed to provide a detailed and comprehensive answers to the research questions. The data analysis revealed several important findings with regard to the participants’ roles, work and identity formation.

To begin with, given that professional contexts are influential in how teacher educators enact their roles and form their identities (Loughran & Menter, 2019), IB’s criteria set of promotion to associate professorship and XU’s strategic plan, annual reports and appointment and promotion criteria set were analyzed. These documents are important since they set the scene for teacher educators by framing and making explicit the institutional and national policies. The findings revealed that both institutions act as control mechanisms through the implementation of point systems and incentives. In other words, they have established an external control that not only regulates but also standardizes type, content, and number of academic works expected from teacher educators (Uzuner-Smith & Englander, 2015). Although annual reports and strategic plan produced by XU seem to attach equal importance to research, teaching and service activities, promotion criteria set demonstrates that the researcher role has been prioritized by the university. This applies to IB as well. It also appeared that community service as an individual practice has been neither included in the criteria

sets nor encouraged or promoted in other documents under investigation. The documents were based on a neoliberal discourse fostering and prioritizing research and publication oriented academic performance. Moreover, implementing such policies and meeting the external expectations may lead to establish a restrictive and hierarchical understanding of scholarship in which research has the utmost importance (Boyer, 1990). The implicit prioritization of researcher role over the others and related external policies directing teacher educators towards certain types of academic work are deeply influenced by institutional, national and international power relations. The factors including that XU has historically been tasked with international success in the academic marketplace by the governments, has recently been recognized as a research oriented university by CoHE, has become accountable to both national and international performance monitoring indexes and university ranking systems, and lastly its institutional budget allocation has been linked to research and publication oriented performance can be regarded as main motives behind the university's putting more institutional emphasis on research and publication activities. The broad implication of the document analysis is that both the current higher education system in general and XU in particular can be considered as "neoliberalizing space[s]" as a result of production-oriented, performance-driven, and auditing-based policies (Gupta, 2019, p. 423), which in turn leads to professional reformation of teacher educators' work, roles and identity.

In addition, the findings also revealed that teacher educators' professional and educational biographies influence their professional identity formation (Davey, 2013). The participants all worked as first-order English language teachers and followed traditional academic pathways to become English language teacher educators. It appeared that they socialized into their teacher educator identities by drawing on prior formal graduate education and on-the-job learning. The participants were affected by a number of pull and push factors when deciding to become teacher educators. These factors were important since they also affected their commitment to their work. Also, it was revealed that significant others, either as role-models or advice-givers (Holme et al., 2016), and the particular institutional context largely thanks to affiliated honor (Oprisko, 2012) factor positively contributed to their identity construction process. The participants' extent of identification with certain role or work and how they view

themselves professionally are also important considerations for their professional identities.

Moreover, the professional roles and work (i.e., teaching, research and service) they take on are deeply and immensely influential in their professional identity formation. To begin with teaching, the participants' teaching practices has partially been informed by prior first-order teacher experience and they view this prior experience as a strength for teacher education pedagogy (Boyd & Harris, 2010). In addition, the participants draw on certain educational theories when teaching and their pedagogy is built upon eclectic teaching strategies, congruent teaching and experiential learning. When enacting teacher education pedagogies, the participants also rely on teacher competencies and course classifications generated by MoNE and CoHE. The competencies mentioned showed that the participants strongly care about pre-service teachers' personal and professional development and they mostly hold subject-matter orientation to teaching (Hökkä & Eteläpelto, 2014; Vähäsantanen et al., 2008). Regarding instructional materials, the participants are careful about the recency of materials they used. Supporting their eclectic teaching strategies, some also draw on digital pedagogical applications and tools. As for researcher roles, they are committed to carry out research regardless of their academic positions and are highly aware of the fact that academic networking has become a norm that leads to better opportunities to do research and publish. Yet, they often associate carrying out research with bureaucratic challenges either posed by MoNE or resulting largely from a managerial system in XU (Coccia, 2009; Gornitzka et al., 1998). In addition, they experience challenges of seeking and securing funding not only to do research but also to attend academic meetings, which has become increasingly difficult due to frequent budgetary cuts in XU. They feel that institutional guidance and help is not adequate during every phase of project management. As a result, they have become self-responsibilized academics who seek funding and manage every aspect of their research projects. Lastly, the participants are more engaged in internal service (i.e., service to the university, department, discipline and students) than community service. They particularly devote much time to contribute to their students' professional development. Working as a teacher educator who professionally prepares future teachers and teaching *Community Service* course is considered as basics of community service work from their perspective.

External, challenging and competing requirements of their roles and work is another factor that shapes the participants' professional identity. The participants report that they experience difficulty to meet the stringent promotion criteria of XU. In addition to XU, criteria by IB and Academic Incentive System not only complicate but also fragment their effort, attention and understanding of scholarship. While the participants express criticisms over the use of metric and point system; prioritization of publications in certain international indexes and quartiles; as well as hegemony of English as the language of science, they also show "cynical compliance" (Ball, 2003, p. 236). It seems that neoliberal governance technologies ensure the participants' compliance with the system and extensively guide their work. However, the participants demonstrate that adaptability to frequent changes and more ambitious expectations makes them feel "ontologically insecure" (Ball, 2003, p. 220) and emotionally vulnerable. Moreover, they report that they are snowed under the load of courses and number of students they teach. Although they seem more agentic at the individual level, they cannot exercise the same agency at the departmental level. Especially for full-time lecturers, it seems that both their academic position and accompanying power differentials may constrain their agentic professional identity construction. The participants also negotiate the researcher-teacher role divide; difficulty of securing time to do research; and that some colleagues have become research-oriented at the expense of teaching. In addition, it seems that new managerialism has not only intensified but also varied their workload, disturbed their work-life balance, and thus put pressures on their professional identities. Moreover, the participants seem to fall into a criteria trap where they experience an anxiety of collecting points. This also leads the participants to suffer from a rush for time. It can be concluded that there is a mismatch between the participants' own conceptualization of expected professional identity where they do slow science and also work in their own pace and the experienced professional identity that is driven by rush, anxiety and pressure.

Last but not least, the participants' professional identities are also prone to the impact of contextual factors that can be grouped as institutional and national levels. To begin with the institutional level, the accounts of the participants show that there is a necessity of colleague support for both induction phase and ongoing professional development processes of teacher educators. Problems with forming and sustaining a

supportive community of practice seem to constrain the construction of a robust professional identity. The results also show that the implementation and benefit of SETs is a controversial issue for the participants. While unbiased and justified comments may positively contribute to their pedagogy, highly negative and biased feedback as well as only numerical score may not contribute positively to their professional and emotional wellbeing. As for governance and academic freedom in XU, the participants feel that the administrative and academic environment in XU is a comparatively democratic one. Though not to the full extent, that the participants can exercise academic freedom and participate in decision making processes at the departmental and institutional levels contributes to their commitment to the workplace (Vähäsantanen et al., 2008). When they encounter policies and decisions threating the culture of shared governance and academic freedom, they try to make room to exercise professional agency in order to resist or change them (Hökkä & Etaelapelto, 2014; Hökkä et al. 2012).

As for national level, the participants negotiate that they feel being underpaid despite overworking. Unsatisfactorily low salaries accompanied by an unstable economy seem to create unfavorable conditions where they have difficulty in not only living on but also doing science. Academic incentive system, on the other hand, is generally viewed as a system controlling and mechanizing academics, paving the way for low quality work and unethical behavior. It poses some risks to the traditional understanding of scholarship and prioritizes monetary gain. Moreover, the participants do not feel satisfied with the academic freedom they can practice at the national level. The historical, national, and religious sensitivity of students and society in addition to oppressive and aggressive governmental policies stemming from neoliberal authoritarianism that has gained impetus since 2016 are considered as constraints by the participants. A sense of fear to avoid "economic and political violence" (Dönmez & Duman, 2021 p. 1134) of the government seems to lead to tread carefully or even self-censor. Moreover, CoHE is viewed as a type of control mechanism regulating academic and administrative work in universities. The participants criticize the institution's highly centralized structure as a constraining factor for individual and institutional autonomy as well as academic freedom particularly with regard to student quotas, recruitment, and curriculum. Lastly, the participants also mention the current state of the Turkish higher education. They feel pessimistic about the ongoing and big

boom in the number of universities since the academic quality of majority of the universities are believed to be slightly beyond the level of high schools. Moreover, they observe that educational reforms are often with loose ends and bring unfavorable results. Thus, it seems that there is a considerable gap between their ideals and the present state of education systems (i.e., primary, secondary and higher education systems). The existing problems cause them to lose their motivations and to have difficulty in positioning themselves, their labor and efforts within the system.

As for teacher educators' political roles, the participants report that they, as teacher educators, give importance to pre-service teachers' learning about politics of English language teaching and learning. Moreover, they also believe that they integrate such issues into their course content in order to increase pre-service teachers' awareness. However, course observations reveal that there is usually not an explicit, extended and systematic coverage of such issues in lessons, and therefore this can be viewed as a "pedagogical blind spot" (Peercy et al., 2019, p. 4) of the participants. This is valid for their researcher roles as well since they do noy usually adopt a critical lens towards politics of language learning and teaching as researchers, but rather prioritize technical, methodological and functional dimensions. There might be a variety of reasons for this including the impact of their own educational background, working experiences, professional dispositions, time limitations, lack of responsibility or diffusion of responsibility, teaching them in graduate courses, student resistance, a view finding such issues not academic enough, and political authoritarianism of the government. It seems that teacher education curriculum and pedagogies act as neoliberal political technologies that draw a veil over and neutralize hegemonic, constraining and problematic discourses of English language teaching and learning. There seems a discrepancy between the participants' perceived and true contributions to pre-service teachers' political socialization, and this may require the participants' critical self-reflexivity (Peercy et al., 2019) so that they can identify the blind spots and review their own positionality.

To conclude, the participants negotiate and draw on a number of factors to construct their professional identities. Overall, these negotiations allow the conclusion that their identities are prone to policies and external requirements driven by neoliberal managerialism. This is why they sometimes seem to have not only internalized but

also supported some neoliberal ethos and practices. On the other hand, they also seem to resist, reject and express disappointment and resentment with some other policies and expectations. Therefore, the broad implication of the present study is that the institutional, national and international higher education systems considerably influence their habits of minds and hearts although they have not rendered them to pure neoliberal academics yet. Given all, the participants' professional identity can be conceptualized as a fragmented, individualized, responsibilized, multiple, contextual and complex structure; a constant struggle; an emotional ambivalence; and an agentic power.

6.8. Implications of the Study

Based on professional work and roles embedded in educational and professional histories as well as institutional, national, global contexts driven by neoliberal managerial policies, the present study has aimed to reveal multiple and complex structure of English language teacher educators' roles and professional identities. Given the discussion of findings and the relevant literature, several implications are presented below to inform English language teacher educators as well as appropriate units, institutions and authorities.

First, it became apparent that there is a need for induction for teacher educators who have just crossed the boundaries and stepped in a new community of practice and departmental culture. Although the university's orientation program which has recently become a well-organized implementation provides a valuable opportunity for institutional and professional socialization, a micro-level induction program legitimized by the departmental administration's efforts and carried out with the help of senior teacher educators who can mentor the newcomers may ease their transition challenges. Such a mentoring program may positively contribute to newcomers' departmental socialization by preventing them from suffering caused by overwhelming workload, unfamiliar work type, and a feeling of isolation. In addition, this supports not only their professional development but also identity construction process. If this particular community of practice presents paradigmatic trajectories through a departmental induction, they may help newcomers construct their unique

professional identities by role modelling and negotiating past and present career trajectories (Wenger, 1998).

Secondly, the present study revealed that this particular community of practice is actually reigned by individualism with lack of collaboration and support for professional development as well as interest in each other's teaching and research practices. Teacher educators need to take steps to turn themselves to active participants of a learning community. In this sense, their participation into the community should go beyond that of a fish in a bowl in a family's living room (Wenger, 1998). Therefore, both departmental administration encouragement and collective agency of teacher educators may enable the development of a community culture where they, especially in their teacher roles, come together regularly for professional interaction, sharing and learning. For instance, teacher educators who teach the same course may form micro groups where they can have more focused exchanges and regular discussions of teaching practices. Support of the departmental administration may be useful in the sense that they may secure time for this activity just as they normally do for departmental meetings. Thus, teacher educators would not have to worry about time constraints and coordination problems (MacPhail et al., 2019). In addition, it is obvious that teacher educators often log many miles to attend academic meetings where they either disseminate their own research findings or learn about that of others. However, it was found that they do not show the same enthusiasm about their immediate academic environment. As suggested by one of the participants (TE1), they can establish a shared practice through which every member of the community can present their own research in the department before or after attending external academic meetings. In this way, a mutual learning environment as well as opportunities to identify common research interests can be developed. Moreover, it would be beneficial to enable and support research networks through which academics originally belonging to different disciplines (e.g., ELT, literature and linguistics) but to the same department can work together on common research activities. This may help them cross boundaries between disciplines, break hierarchical or competitive structures guiding relations between disciplines, and bring novel perspectives to a shared interest. Given all, they need to put effort to foster an established culture where they come together for the purpose of professional development rather than solely administrative meetings. This, in turn, may have further implications for breaking

prevailing individuality, encouraging collaboration and contributing to institutional belonging.

Thirdly, full-time teacher educators' concerns about their professional legitimacy seem to require institutional attention. As opposed to tenure-track or tenured faculty, they may be solely associated with the teacher role. On the other hand, they may want to invest in and fulfill their researcher roles as well. When they feel difficulty in reconciling the requirements of teacher role with their own expectations to broaden their professional identity by activating researcher role, they feel tension. Therefore, support provided by colleagues, the department and the institution matters a lot for full-time lecturers' robust professional identity construction. Both central and departmental administrations may try to come up with solutions to provide them with access to resources that can contribute to their researcher identity. For instance, they may facilitate paid research leave for full-time lecturers in case they decide to go abroad for post doctorate research. Moreover, this should be set as an institutional policy that each lecturer can equally benefit from. Also, they can be supported by lowering their workload in teaching and administrative service so that they can reserve some time to do research. In this case, they are already supported by the departmental administration who provide all teacher educators with research assistants' assistance when teaching. Although this is a valuable support, they obviously need more time or resources to protect their time for research. In other words, administrators should develop a community where full-time lecturers feel supported to influence and make decisions about their own professional careers instead of feeling like they have been cooped up in prescribed professional identities. Another issue with regard to professional legitimacy is that they are visible and represented as a group in neither faculty board nor faculty executive board. This results from an article in the higher education law, and thus is a common problem for all full-time lecturers across universities in Turkey. This can be viewed as a problem doing serious damage to shared governance culture and practice in XU as well. There seems a need for making a regulation that enables the full-time lecturers' contribution to the departmental/institutional governance. This may also help this particular group communicate firsthand the problems and requests unique to their own academic positions to the boards.

Fourthly, the results indicated that research is an emotional work where teacher educators may need to manage their emotions on day-to-day practices. Given this challenging process may put them under severe emotional stress, the stakeholders should consider the affective dimensions of research work, and thus should facilitate teacher educators' work. In other words, the government should transfer higher funds to universities, which would not be based upon performance, so that they can better support academic staff for both research and academic travel. Moreover, XU should develop policies to offer administrative guidance and help to academic staff who are divided between bureaucratic and academic sides of research work. The responsibilities of staff working in office of sponsored projects as well as project development and coordination office should be reorganized and extended to increase the support and guidance that academic staff can receive. Moreover, better coordination and collaboration between faculties of education and MoNE should be facilitated. MoNE should avoid implementing institutional policies that may foster prevailing bureaucracy and curtail teacher educators' academic freedom. As a result, these changes may help teacher educators construct their professional identities with less struggles and more professional agency.

Fifthly, dominance of English as the language of scholarship and academic publication calls for critical awareness of stakeholders. It seems that teacher educators need to practice higher levels of professional agency to determine the language of academic writing and publishing. On the other hand, their agency is deeply related to contextual factors such as institutional and national promotion criteria as well as academic journals' publishing policies. In other words, national policy makers, institutional administrations and editorial boards of academic journals may be considered influential agents that may challenge existing conditions by supporting a shift towards multilingualism through which national languages are also valued and cared. Therefore, they can play a leading role in calling for the dissemination of research results in multilingual modes through recognition and promotion of efforts put in by authors (Curry & Lillis, 2022). Additionally, translation tools and applications that have lately started to produce very high-quality translations may be used to write an academic manuscript in multilingual forms (Bowker & Buitrago Ciro, 2019; Curry & Lillis, 2022). Then, teacher educators' strict adherence to English for better recognition in international academia as well as tenure and promotion decisions can

be lowered. This may be expected to contribute immensely to the legitimization and development of national languages as the language of scholarship in local contexts.

As for the sixth point, the results also showed that SETs may become source of an emotional stress and may not often lead to a change in the way courses are delivered. Therefore, the central administration of XU should be aware of the fact that SETs can frequently become an audit failure. This is why XU administration should create systematic professional development opportunities in teaching for the academic staff rather than simply collecting students' evaluations (Smith & Welicker-Pollack, 2008). At the departmental level, the suggestion made about fostering collaboration and support for professional development of teacher educators as active participants to the community of practice may also be beneficial for this case. SETs individualize, rank and quantify teacher educators. However, if teacher educators learn and prefer to negotiate the effectiveness of their teaching with students and colleagues instead of relying on an external audit tool which may not necessarily go beyond providing a single numerical score, this may be more meaningful to create positive changes in their teaching. Teacher educators may also turn to design a teaching portfolio (Zabaleta, 2007) for their personal use rather than submitting to the administration for auditing. Instead of simple compilations of lesson plans and materials, these portfolios may also include reflective and critical commentary on plans, materials and techniques used in a particular course. In a collegial community of practice, these portfolios may be exchanged between teacher educators. In addition, teacher educators might ask for unofficial peer observation and evaluation of teaching as well as engaging in video or audio-recording themselves for self-evaluation of teaching. To conclude, evaluation of effectiveness of teaching should be based on individual teacher educators' willingness rather than a tool for external audit trail. It can be designed in a way providing not only summative but also formative feedback, be carried out both as an individual and peer- collaboration work. Lastly, it should serve a professional development purpose.

The seventh point is related to community service work carried out by teacher educators. Pinheiro et al. (2015) claim that community service requires institutional organization, and an institutional strategy cannot be built on academics' individual and spontaneous efforts. From this perspective, it is apparent that the growth in teacher

educators' commitment to community service calls for institutional support which is based on a strategical encouragement. However, document analysis also made it apparent that XU is not very precise about this particular issue. Therefore, the university administration should make it explicit its expectations from the academic staff and also present them with a clear guideline for engagement with community service. In addition, as the findings show NGOs may become powerful means to facilitate community service. Given this, the administration may seek opportunities to partner with both national and international organizations in order to facilitate teacher educators' and NGOs' partnership. For this reason, an office of community service that aims to enable and coordinate partnerships can be established by the presidency. Importantly, Cummings (2006) also warns that engagement in community service work should not be viewed by academics as an extra load on already busy schedules. To avoid such a viewpoint, their commitment to service should be officially recognized and rewarded by the administration (Cummings, 2006; Ward, 2003). Lastly, the administrations may officially secure a certain amount of weekly working hours for carrying out service to ensure the sustainability of their work and commitment. Commitment to community service, after all, requires a change in conventional work patterns (i.e., research and teaching focused work) of teacher educators. Therefore, it is important to note that such a change can be achieved and sustained by the institutional support.

The eighth point is about teacher educators' experiences and perceptions about the current state of academic freedom in higher education. It should not be neglected that academics can survive the undue ideological attacks consisting of authoritarian political impositions and neoliberal higher education policies only through academic freedom. In this respect, both individual freedom and university autonomy should be equally protected since one cannot be maintained without the other. Therefore, policy makers and authorities should go beyond paying lip service to academic freedom and take actions to establish it as the ideological foundation of higher education. The current higher education law should be reviewed both to extend its scope fully and officially and to ensure that academic freedom is a guaranteed right of individual academics. Additionally, authority and responsibilities of CoHE as well as the extent it limits academic freedom should be reconsidered to transform higher education to a decentralized and non-hegemonic system where academics and universities can enjoy

academic freedom. It is important to underline that it is only academics themselves who can redefine their work and identities against prescriptive and oppressive rules and regulations. They need to mold public opinion on this particular issue. As a result of their effort and resistance, the government may have to take notice of public opinion and feel compelled to bow to public pressure and reform the meaning and scope of academic freedom in the current law.

Finally, there is still hope for teacher educators to resist, refuse and change the neoliberal ideology that seems to have permeated the whole system of higher education. Rather than simply complying with managerial demands and external control of criteria for advancement in career, they may collectively go for self-management. The first step for this might be taking notice of the discourses they rely on to negotiate themselves and through which they are negotiated as suggested by Davies (2005). They can try to challenge and unmake the dominant neoliberal discourses to suggest new discourses (Davies, 2005). Apart from a growth in discursive awareness, teacher educators need to be aware of the fact that standardized external criteria determine what is important, valuable and worthy of notice with regard to their work. What is worse, this is internalized, normalized, and thus goes unchallenged by many teacher educators. To reverse this trend, they need to exercise collective agency to influence their work and reclaim standards for academic work. On the other hand, these standards should not go beyond being guidelines and should not become new tools for auditing. In addition, the criteria standardize academic work. However, individual academics do not have to follow a uniform route for career advancement. Therefore, teacher educators who prefer to engage in unconventional types of research activity should not be discouraged (Murray, 2008). The types of research endeavor that fall outside the current scope of the valued and rewarded research by institutional and national levels should be revised and redetermined. Self-study of teaching practices as well as writing books, book chapters, guidelines, instructional materials, lesson plans for the use of first-order teachers can be considered some of unconventional or undervalued contribution to research. Activities of these types should have due value and attention, and in turn reconceptualization of research with a growth in scope may challenge the standardization of research and publication. Also, teacher educators need to have a voice in the process of

development and implementation of new policies both at the institutional and national levels. As a matter of fact, teacher educators need to reclaim a conceptualization of their own professionalism that can be based on professional values, goals, motivations and experiences and the elements that truly constitute the profession (Putnam, 2009; Vanassche & Kelchtermans, 2016). Thus, the administrations and policy makers should attend genuinely to teacher educators' own conceptualization of profession. When they fail to do so, teacher educators suffer from stress and even deprofessionalization, making clear that institutional and national goals cannot be achieved through policies that are incompatible with their own goals (Blackburn & Bentley, 1993). As a result, it can be concluded policy change and implementation is not a mechanic process, but rather bears affective implications and consequences requiring careful consideration of administrators and policy makers. Moreover, these policies should not contribute to the fragmentation of scholarship. Administrators and policy makers should aim to develop and maintain an intellectual and ideological coherence where neither teaching nor community service remains on the periphery of scholarship. Therefore, intellectual rigor in research should be accompanied by intellectual proficiency in teaching as well as responsibility for and commitment to being an academic citizen who cares about civic life and community (Shils, 1997).

6.9. Limitations of the Study and Recommendations for Further Research

This study did have some limitations. To begin with, it was carried out with the participation of five English language teacher educators. Also, the study focused on a single institutional unit of analysis. Therefore, this was a small-scale study. Future research with a larger scale including more participants might advance our understanding of English language teacher educators' professional work, role and identity construction. Moreover, professional identity of teacher educators affiliated with different disciplines can also be investigated. As a qualitative small-scale case study, the findings cannot be generalized to other institutional and national contexts of higher education. Therefore, cross-institutional and cross-national research with regard to English language teacher educators' work, roles and identity might offer valuable insights. Furthermore, despite the initial intention was to achieve full diversity with respect to the academic positions occupied by the participants, there is

not a participant with a full professor title in the sample. In addition, the study presented a gender-imbalanced picture of the sample as it solely composed of female participants. Therefore, future studies might include participants that represent all academic positions and genders. Another suggestion might be related to the diversity of participant groups. Interview data that can be gathered from institutional administrations, national higher education policy makers and pre-service teachers might contribute generously to the interpretation of English language teacher educator roles and identity. Lastly, the participants were observed only in a single course and for a limited period of time. If all their courses had been observed for the whole semester, their political and teacher roles could have been better explored.

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APPENDICES

A. INTERUNIVERSITY BOARD CRITERIA FOR APPOINTMENT TO ASSOCIATE PROFESSORSHIP

Activity Type		**Points**
International Journal Articles (Provided that publications are related to the area of associate professorship applied for and are not produced from the graduate theses written by the candidate)	Article published in a journal covered by SSCI, SCI, SCI-Expanded and AHCI	20
	Article published in a journal covered by international indexes except letter to the editor, summary or book review	15
	Book review article contributing to science through the types of publications covered under items *a* or *b*	5
It is compulsory to obtain minimum 20 points within the scope of item *1a* and *1b*.		
National Journal Articles (Provided that publications are related to the area of associate professorship applied for and are not produced from the graduate theses written by the candidate)	Article published in national peer reviewed journals covered by ULAKBİM	8
	Article published in national peer reviewed journals except item *a*	4
It's compulsory to publish at least 3 articles within the scope of item 2*a*. If foreign candidates and candidates applying for the accreditation of foreign title of associate professorship cannot meet the condition for articles published in national peer reviewed journals covered by ULAKBİM, they will instead provide the same number of articles within the scope of items *a* and *b*.		
Publication from Graduate Thesis (Provided that publications are related to the graduate theses written by the candidate)	Book published by international publishers	10
	Book chapter published by international publishers	8
	Book published by national publishers	5
	Book chapter published by national publishers	4
	Article published in journals covered by SSCI, SCI, SCI-Expanded and AHCI	8
	Article published in journals covered by international subject indexes	6
	Article published in journals covered by ULAKBİM	4
It is compulsory to do at least 1 publication within the scope of item 3. Maximum 10 points can be obtained from this item.		
Books (Provided that publications are not produced from the graduate theses written by the candidate and are related to	Book published by international publishers	20
	Editor of book or author of book chapter published by international publishers	10
	Book published by national publishers	15

the area of associate professorship applied for)	Editor of book or author of book chapter published by national publishers	8
Within the scope of item 4, only original scientific books other than textbooks can be graded, and maximum two chapters in the same book are taken into account. Three or more encyclopedia items are considered a book chapter.		
Citations	For each cited work of the candidate regardless of the number of in-text citations, in journals covered by SSCI, SCI, SCI-Expanded and AHCI; in each of the publications taking place in books published by international publishers and in which the candidate is not involved in as an author	3
	For each cited work of the candidate regardless of the number of in-text citations, in journals covered by indexes other than SSCI, SCI, SCI-Expanded and AHCI; in each of the publications taking place in book chapters published by international publishers and in which the candidate is not involved in as an author	2
	For each cited work of the candidate regardless of the number of in-text citations, in national peer reviewed journals; in each of the publications taking place in in books published by national publishers and in which the candidate is not involved in as an author	1
Within the scope of item 5, a minimum of 4 points is required and a maximum of 20 points can be obtained.		
Graduate Thesis Supervision (Among the completed graduate theses supervised by the candidate)	PhD Thesis Supervision	4
	Master Thesis Supervision	2
Maximum 10 points can be obtained within the scope of item 6. In case of a co-advisor, the main advisor receives the whole point indicated in items *a* and *b* while the co-advisor receives half.		
Research Projects	Coordinator / lead researcher in the ongoing or successfully completed the research projects within the EU Framework Programme	15
	Co-researcher in the ongoing or successfully completed research projects within the EU Framework Programme	10
	Participating in the ongoing or successfully completed internationally funded research projects (excluding compilation and report preparation) out of the scope of item *a* and *b*	6
	Participating in the ongoing or successfully completed research projects carried out with public institutions other than universities	4
Within the scope of item 7, maximum 20 points can be obtained.		
Conferences (Provided that they are related to the scientific area applied for and are not	Full paper or summary (excluding posters) presented at international conferences and published in the proceedings either printed or electronically	3

produced from the graduate theses written by the candidate)	Full paper or summary (excluding posters) presented at national conferences and published in the proceedings either printed or electronically	2
Within the scope of item 8, it is compulsory to receive minimum 5 points and maximum 10 points can be obtained. Maximum 1 paper presented in the same meeting is graded.		
Teaching (Teaching in open, distance or face-to-face environments after completing the doctoral studies)	Master's or doctoral course for one semester	3
	Associate or undergraduate course for one semester	2
Within the scope of item 9, it is compulsory to receive minimum 2 points and maximum 4 points can be obtained. Those who have worked as an instructor for a minimum of 2 years at domestic higher education institutions or foreign ones recognized by CoHE are deemed to have received 2 points.		

B. SAMPLE COURSE OBSERVATION NOTES

ELT Approaches and Methods – Observation Week 1 / Lesson 1

This is a comparatively small classroom and the number of students is high. Therefore, there is only little room in front of the board that the instructor can use. There is not much space between the student desks, therefore she is not able to walk through the lines between the desks.

She is standing next to the teacher's desk and asked the students how their weekend was. The students answered her question by talking about the assignments they had dealt with throughout the weekend. Having listened to the students' answers, she told them that they were going to start with a quick revision of the previous week. Then she announced that that they were going to take a short in-class quiz. She told them that they were going to study Silent Way, and one of the students asked whether it would be included in the quiz or not. She did not reply. In the meantime, she started to take attendance and repeated each and every student's name to be able to learn them. This took several minutes. Then she turned towards the students and asked them to remind her what they had covered in the previous week.

Then she referred to the course assistant reminding the students that he would be with them in the classroom throughout the semester. After that, she turned towards me and introduced me to the students. She told them I was going to be in the classroom observing her for a period of four weeks for a research purpose. She underlined that this observation had nothing to do with the students but was solely related to the instructor. She told them not to worry and everybody laughed at her joke.

Before the revision, one of the students asked for permission to speak. She mentioned a problem she had faced with a few days ago. TE5 had asked the students to go and find a K-12 school where they could do micro-teachings so that they can practice techniques and methods they were going to learn throughout the semester within the framework of this course. So, microteaching was set as a requirement by the instructor to pass the course. However, the student sounded very pessimistic and hopeless since she together with some of her classmates had not been able to find a school that could approve their doing micro-teaching. She asked her to try public schools, and then some other students interrupted their conversation saying that public schools were even more problematic since the administrators asked for official permission from Ministry of National Education. She suggested them find a different school that would not ask for an official permission. She told them to try harder. She reminded them that she did not want them to video record their teaching. She said: "We'll find a way out" if they continue to experience other problems.

She asked the student: "What did we do last week? What concepts did we study?" and waited for a while so that they can have a look at their notes. She continued by asking: "What do you remember about Direct Method?". One of the students raised his hand and talked briefly about the method. She repeated what he said with a higher volume, and said "What else?" by turning towards the other students. Some students started to

give keywords related to the method and she began to write them down on to the board. It turned out to be a comfortable environment where student could come up with important aspects of the method without asking for permission to speak. They added on each other's answers and TE5 frequently asked the question "What else?" to encourage them to answer the question.

She then posed another question to the students: "What are the weakness of Direct Method, or strengths?" Students took several seconds to think about the answer and then they started to give answers one by one. She sometimes asked for clarifications and examples upon their answers. She continued to write down the students' answers. She then asked: "In Direct Method, which skills are given more importance?" She herself gave a reply to this question and then continued with the use of L1 in this method.

She asked whether students were allowed to use L1 in the classroom. The students all answered saying "No!". She asked "Is this a good or bad thing?" Some students said "Yes" and some others "No". One of the students wanted to comment on this issue by giving an example from her own life. Her family had Georgian roots and talked only Georgian at home to teach her this language. However, she said that this did not work since she did not understand the language and could not learn it. TE5 said: "So, you think talking only in the target language may not help." Then, another student provided an opposite example. She compared two different French classes she had taken. In one of them the instructor did not necessarily talk in French while in the other the instructor only used French throughout the semester. She stated that she made use of the latter and increased her fluency. Some other students also shared their points. At this point, she just listened to their answers and did not make any comments.

She then asked the students "What if you want to teach abstract vocabulary items?" She reminded them they could use realia and flash cards to teach concrete words, and then repeated the question. One student said: "Honor", and TE5 asked "How can you show it, demonstrate it?" Two students gave answers such as creating a scenario or giving an explanation in the target language. She said: "But sometimes using L1 is very easy and short-cut". She elaborated on the fact that spending much time just to teach a single word may not be really meaningful. She also added: "But if you use Direct Method and never switch to L1, you may lose time".

One of the students asked whether they can switch to ALM or GTM during the lesson even if they start with Direct Method. She replied him saying that: "Of course, you can have a mixed type method".

And then TE5 asked the students how they can explain 'honor' in English in 10 minutes. One of them tried to give an answer. TE5 said that: "Maybe they spend a lot of time thinking and trying to understand the target language". In this way, she showed the students that it has both advantages and disadvantages and concluded the discussion saying that: "It's up to you. It's up to your student profile. If you only want to stick to English one hundred percent, you can. Or sometimes use Turkish as a shortcut. You decide. I think you should be aware that you have the autonomy to decide. And there is nothing wrong with using Turkish if it is necessary."

She then reminded the students of another topic they had covered in the previous week. It was Approach, Method and Technique. She started to compare Anthony's model with that of Richards and Rodgers. She again used the board for the comparison. Again, the students started to give answers to her questions about what constituted approach, method and technique. So, she drew very detailed models on the board with the help of the students. Some students took a photo of the board. Most of the students were eager to give answers and participate in this quick revision session. In this way, they all co-constructed the answers to TE5's questions.

Then she said that they also covered Audiolingual Method. Before asking any questions, she asked the students to open their books Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, page 42 and to go over the method. Having waited for a few minutes, she asked the learning theory behind the model. The students started to give answers. She talked about the importance of dialogue and situations.

She then showed and introduced an old course book written for English classes. It was Streamline. She told that the book was full of dialogues in line with ALM and distributed a handout photocopied from the book. She called on two students to read the dialogue going on between two characters in the handout. One of the students she called on seemed reluctant to read the dialogue but she tried to encourage him. Some of the students started to laugh at the students who was reading the dialogue. I think they felt like they were in a high school class. Still, they were having great fun.

TE5 told the students that her teacher used this dialogue in the classroom when she was a student in the prep class of high school and asked them to memorize the dialogue. The students got surprised. She told the students: "Next week your homework is to memorize this dialogue and write it five times in your notebooks". She then asked them: "Did you ever do that?" The students said yes. This time she asked "Why did we do these many times?" and gave the answer herself saying that "According to behaviorism language is habit formation". She checked whether this method worked for the students or not. The students were not sure.

Then they talked about types of drills. This time she divided the classroom into two based on their gender and read the same dialogue accordingly. The students laughed and were having fun. At the end of the dialogue, she asked them what they thought about choral repetition. Some said it was weird. She told them they might have felt like that because they were competent users of English.

She continued with showing the students a video about the pronunciation of "I would like a hamburger". While she was getting the computer ready to show the video, she asked the students to have a look at the questions to identify if there were any drills among them. The students asked for a break and she decided to show the video after break time.

C. SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Ne kadar süredir bu bölümde çalışıyorsunuz?
2. Hangi fakülteden mezunsunuz? Bu bölümde çalışmaya başlamadan önce öğretmenlik tecrübeleriniz oldu mu?
3. Neden ve nasıl bu bölümde/üniversitede öğretmen eğitimcisi olmaya karar verdiniz?
4. Kendi eğitim geçmişinizde örnek aldığınız hocalarınız oldu mu? Hangi yönleriyle sizi etkilediler?
5. Eğitim felsefeniz nedir?
6. Öğrencilerinizin nasıl beceriler, değerler ve yeterliliklerle bu bölümden mezun olmasını istersiniz? 6.a. Bu sürece ne kadar ve nasıl bir katkı sağladığınızı düşünüyorsunuz?
7. Kendinizi kim olarak görüyorsunuz? (akademisyen, öğretmen eğitimcisi ya da daha farklı bir kimlik?)
8. Öğrenciler tarafından doldurulan dönem sonu değerlendirme formları hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz? Üzerinizde ne tür etkileri oluyor?
9. Bir akademisyen olarak sıkışmış ya da baskı altında hissettiğiniz durumlar ve zamanlar oluyor mu? Hangi sebeplerden?
10. Bu üniversite ve bölümde öğretim üyesi olabilmek için yurtdışı doktora eğitimi ya da doktora sonrası araştırma gerekliliği olması konusunda ne düşünüyorsunuz?
11. Bilimsel araştırma, yayın ve ders verme açısından Türkiye bağlamındaki deneyimleriniz, karşılaştığınız zorluklar ve kolaylıklar nelerdir?
12. Bu üniversitede görev yaptığınız bölümle alakalı atama ve yükseltme kriterlerine dair fikriniz nedir? 12.a. Bu üniversitenin atama yükselme kriterlerini diğer üniversitelerin kriterleri ile karşılaştırınca nelerin benzer ve farklı olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz?
13. Günümüzdeki toplumsal şartlar mesleki rollerinizi ve çalışmalarınızı nasıl etkiledi?
14. Günümüzdeki siyasi şartlar mesleki rollerinizi ve çalışmalarınızı nasıl etkiledi?

15. Günümüzdeki ekonomik şartlar mesleki rollerinizi ve çalışmalarınızı nasıl etkiledi?
16. Bu bölümdeki iş arkadaşlığının mesleki rol ve kimliğinize etkisini nasıl değerlendirirsiniz?
17. Bir akademisyen olarak bilimsel araştırmalarınıza fon bulma arayışına girdiğinizde nasıl bir yol izliyorsunuz?
18. Sosyal bilimlerin bir kolu olarak disiplininizi fen bilimlerindeki disiplinlerle karşılaştırdığınızda yapılan bilimsel çalışmalar ya da bilimsel etkinlikler için yeterince maddi destek sağlandığını düşünüyor musunuz?
19. İngilizce ve Türkçe yayın yapmak konusunda fikirleriniz ve deneyimleriniz nelerdir?
20. Akademik teşvik hakkında görüşleriniz nelerdir?
    Araştırma yapma, ders verme ve hizmet görevleri/rolleri arasındaki dengeyi nasıl sağlıyorsunuz? 20.a. Hangisine daha çok zaman ayırıyorsunuz veya ayırmak isterdiniz?
21. Bir akademisyenin topluma hizmet sorumluluğu var mıdır? Varsa bunlar nelerdir?
22. Kurumunuzdaki yönetim mekanizmalarına aktif katılım sağlayabiliyor musunuz? Bölüm, fakülte ve kurum düzeyinde değerlendirme yapar mısınız?
23. Ders materyali seçiminde belli kriterleriniz var mı?
24. Türkiye'de İngilizce öğretiminin tarihine ve günümüzdeki durumuna ne kadar hâkimsiniz?
25. Sizce eğitimin ve özellikle de İngiliz dili eğitimin politik bir yönü var mıdır?
    Hem genelde Türkiye'deki üniversiteler hem de daha özelde görev yaptığınız üniversite siyasi otorite tarafından ne ölçüde kontrol mekanizmalarına tabi tutulmaktadır? 25.a. Sizin derslerinizin neresinde ve ne kadarında eğitimin ve özellikle de İngiliz dili eğitiminin politik yönü yer buluyor?
26. Görev yaptığınız birim fakülte ve rektörlük makamları tarafından ne ölçüde kontrol mekanizmalarına tabi tutulmaktadır?
27. Türkiye'de İngilizce öğretimi ile çeşitli uluslararası kuruluşlar (Dünya Bankası, OECD ya da Avrupa Birliği vb.) arasında bir ilişki görüyor musunuz?

D. CODES SCHEMA

BECOMING A TEACHER EDUCATOR

Previous Experience

self discovering career paths
intrinsic motivation
teacher training course abroad
attending ELT events
passion for literature
planned academic career
job offer
novice teacher frustration
part-time work
working as a research assistant
working as an instructor
working as a research fellow
a romantic motive

Role Models

intellectual competence
being hardworking
a modest living
work-life balance
professional competence
friendly attitude
approach to students
approach to profession
tranquility
objectivity in research
professional attitude
humanistic attitude
labor of love
good listener
affective support
cognitive support

Professional Self Views

feeling satisfied with current position
negative message about teaching
no difference between teacher educator & academic
teacher educators as researchers
butterfly effect of teacher education
labor intensive practicum course
academics despising teaching
passing down professional knowledge & manners
language scientist identity
being an academic as a job
teacher educator identity
teacher identity

XU Impact

added value provided by XU
interdisciplinary nature of XU
pursuit of self-realization
XU as a professional institution
XU providing prestige
professionally competent graduates of XU
XU as one of the best universities
XU identity
XU addiction
serving in the country
compulsory service
research freedom
relay race
choice

TEACHER ROLE

Experience and Approach

prior teaching experience
love of teaching

Teacher Competencies

spiritual over material
being a role model for teacher candidates
personal development of teachers
continuous professional development
teachers doing action research
teachers' feedback skills
language skills
critical skills
social awareness
pushing students' intellectual limits
having a growth mindset
being flexible
being fair
differentiated instruction competency
humanist teaching
MoNE's teacher competencies
knowledge competence
classroom management
in-class assessment competency
respect for their own profession
serving the society
self-awareness

Teaching Philosophy

becoming libertarian
recovering from stereotypes
education for questioning
education for removing pressure
providing students with a metaperspective

no ultimate truth
theory & practice complementing each other
importance of theoretical knowledge
importance of discipline in education
importance of questioning
importance of doing research
analysis and synthesis
eclectic teaching
negotiation
interactive teaching
critical approach
co-discovery with students
sociocultural component of learning
affective component of learning
preach what I teach
feeling amazed by learning

Instructional Materials

a teaching point/relevance
beneficial
up-to-date materials
materials requiring analysis and synthesis
materials for critical approaches
trend topics
important theories
articles as materials
manageable material load
Western originated materials
variety of course materials

RESEARCHER ROLE

Research Projects

extensive load of project works
school administrations closed to research
no permission for certain research topics
no administrative support for projects
bureaucratic red tape in project works
teachers enclosed to be researched
lack of vision in project support
waste of time and money in red tape
being punished for project works
paid guidance for projects
need for guidance for project application

Funding for Research

drawing less on university/state
knowledge for the use of market
difficulty in international projects
ADP
nonnative bias abroad
understanding of science
competition for research funds
limited financial support by the university
better support for engineering, positive & applied science
finding support abroad
funding for conferences
critical research and less funding
engineering & private sector cooperation
social sciences less funding
undervaluing social sciences in XU

Academic Network

understanding of research in Turkey
networking for international platforms
XU fostering academic network
efforts to build academic networks
networking opportunities abroad
post doc abroad providing networking
need for network

SERVICE PROVIDER ROLE

Internal Service

contribution to knowledge production
jury membership
journal reviewing
voluntary academic work
supervising students
updating students with guest speakers
lack of academic seminars in XU
lab meetings
administrative meeting load
commission membership
journal reviewer
reading group administrator
forming a peer solidarity
giving webinars
meeting with advisees
extramural studies with students
service as time consuming/tiring
organizing seminars
delivering seminars

External Service

academics as we-centered
current and accurate info transmission
seminars by faculty of education
ethical responsibility
not just collecting points
teaching future teachers
seminars for kindergarteners' parents
connections with K-12 teachers
points for writing for lay readers
informing NGOs with research results
seminars for K-12 teachers
talks on bilingualism

contributing into students' professional & personal development
community service course
dissemination of project results
editor in a nonacademic journal
advising K-12 teachers

ROLE DEMANDS

Appointment and Promotion Criteria

moral responsibility of scientific work
XU tradition
a rotten system
no problems with criteria
impact factor of publications
projects as a requirement
XU targeting international academic market
international competition of XU
national competition of XU
earning your corn as the criterion
change in career plans
science and collecting points
navigating through different criteria sets
imposing publication in certain indexes
feeling incompetent in XU
criteria are individualistic not social
publication oriented criteria
other universities in line with CoHE criteria
necessity of challenging criteria
gap between XU & CoHE criteria
XU criteria as moving target
XU criteria as horse race
criteria limiting scientists
necessity of criteria
XU criteria and other universities
demanding criteria of XU
feeling disadvantaged

Publication Practices

publishing not for the country
English for personal profit
waste of publication in local platforms
importance of Turkish publications
aim to reach a wide readership
SSCI factor
more citation in international publishing
limited participation in national conferences
national publication as a CoHE criterion
English as dominant science language

International Experience and Degree

opinion change
difference between educational systems
difficult but contributing a lot
new experiences
alternatives to post-doc
financial difficulties
familial difficulties
administrative difficulties
problem of post doc requirement
need for support
length of postdoc
postdoc as an imposition
discussing science with peers
postdoc for reading and writing
studying abroad for personal development
useful criterion
transferring academic culture in Turkey
new perspectives
studying abroad is useful
academic imperialism

Role Demands & Conflicts

categorizing scientific work
too much production against science
difficulty in work-life balance
necessity of research for teacher educators
research requires more time
less teaching load to read and write
teaching load of instructors
developed teacher identity
teaching taking most of the time
too much burden on instructors
more teaching load in faculty of education
teaching & research dichotomy
research more prestigious
responsibility of being a supervisor
teaching on autopilot
intensive load of teaching
pragmatic approach of academics
feeling overwhelmed by duties
SSCI publication time consuming
impact of other workloads on research
teaching is priority
desire to decrease course hours
need of time & think to discover
pressure of collecting points
feeling compelled to do research

INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT OF ACADEMIA

Collegial Factors

peer pressure of international publication
no inclusive attitude
lack of collegial sharing/communication
implicitly valuing other disciplines
colleague/peer support abroad
feeling excluded
feeling encouraged

lack of emotional support
institutional belonging
asking for help from colleagues
common preparation of materials/syllabi
teaching requires collaboration

Student Evaluations of Teaching

shift to Turkish
organic instructor-student relationship
student-academic perspective gap
compensation of low grades
emotional load of student comments
necessity of SET
self-adjustment tools
impact of SET in academic promotion
a regulatory tool
grade impact/inflation
paying less regard to SETs
subjective feelings
too negative comments
SETs as threat
late returns of SETs
too quantitative
reliability problem
questioning its contribution
SET as controlling mechanisms
resistance to SET
limited student comments in forms

Governance and Academic Freedom

sharp reaction of faculty
no sharp hierarchy
administration's aligning with faculty
autonomy for material selection
manipulative techniques of administration
feeling glad to be in XU
freedom of speech in XU
controlling university
rector's participation into faculty meetings
ways of self-expression
rector valuing faculty views
not feeling very oppressed in XU
limiting students' club activities
partially democratic culture of XU
not feeling free
top-down criteria
XU tradition
departmental autonomy in XU
resistance to decisions
antidemocratic rector appointment
bottom up recruitment policy
partial consideration of opinions
learner autonomy in XU
participation into program design
making oneself heard
participation into decision-making processes

NATIONAL CONTEXT OF ACADEMIA

Academic Salaries

budget deficit
more income in hard science
additional course fee
self-responsibility
anxiety for future
lack of financial support for graduate students
inadequate salaries
demotivating
parental support
continuous stress
economic instability
moral corruption due to economic reasons
decreased income

Academic Incentive System

feeling like Don Quixote
feeling different
compensation for low salary
meaningless
changing criteria
motivating tool
mechanizing academics
not for production
for nonproductive academics
being against academic incentive
moral corruption through academic incentive
making academics lazy
not incentivizing
money

Academic Freedom

fear of free expression in the class
sociopolitical conditions
too much pressure
difficulty of questioning state authority
politicized society
self-censorship
no free discussion
oppression by societal taboos
worry of self-expression on social media
police raid
students' being taken away for government criticism
value of XU as a shield against oppression
solidarity and resistance in XU
government's limitation on academic freedom
fear of dismissal

climate of fear
no motivation to do science
disciplinary regulations as a threat
the state of emergency as a source of fear
students as control mechanisms
national academic market
opinion expression and being cautious
forbidding LGBT protests

The Council of Higher Education

necessity of control for standards
autonomy in elective courses
necessity of higher education reform
necessity of representatives of instructors
autonomy of universities
crowded faculties of education
negative impact of top-down curriculum changes
top-down curriculum
control mechanism
oppression
controlling faculty of education
non-inclusive decisions
lack of autonomy in student quotas

Turkish Higher Education

expectations and realities in teaching
intellectualism is worthless
technicist academics
challenging times for novice teachers
serving one's self, not community
no difference in language teaching
no difference in student profile
no difference in teacher profile
college system
dead innovations system
impatience in educational reforms
lack of higher education policy
too many universities
private universities
quality of universities
international standards for universities
impact of sociopolitics on universities
Turkey not suitable for doing research
impact of environment on academics
no motivation to live

POLITICAL ROLES

native speakers as ELT teachers
common native speaker norms
ELT as an industry
TOEFL as a global profit company
professional load and sociopolitical awareness
no described political role
lack of political awareness
technicist ELT programs
political identity of ELT teachers
questioning English medium instruction
politics of pedagogy in lesson plans
being immigrant/minority
politics of dominant scientific theories
lack of research on ELT and politics
no sociopolitical discussion in ELT textbooks
language marketing
alienation to one's profession
politics of language/bilingualism
politics of education
language-identity-culture

E. SAMPLE INFORMED CONSENT FORM

ARAŞTIRMAYA GÖNÜLLÜ KATILIM FORMU

Bu araştırma, ODTÜ İngiliz Dili Öğretimi Doktora Programı bünyesinde yürütülen bir doktora tezi kapsamındadır. Bu form sizi araştırma koşulları hakkında bilgilendirmek için hazırlanmıştır.

Çalışmanın Amacı Nedir?
Araştırmanın amacı, İngiliz dili öğretmen eğiticilerinin mesleki ve politik rolleri nasıl yerine getirdikleri ve mesleki kimliklerini nasıl oluşturduklarını araştırmaktır.

Bize Nasıl Yardımcı Olmanızı İsteyeceğiz?
Araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ederseniz, sizden bir mülakata katılmanız beklenmektedir. Yaklaşık olarak iki saat sürmesi beklenen bu mülakatta sizlere çalıştığınız kurumdaki akademik hayat, ders verme, araştırma yapma ve toplumsal hizmet gibi konuları kapsayan sorular yöneltilecektir. Buna ek olarak lisans seviyesinde verdiğiniz bir derste dört haftalık bir sınıf içi gözlem yapılmasına izin vermeniz beklenmektedir.

Sizden Topladığımız Bilgileri Nasıl Kullanacağız?
Araştırmaya katılımınız tamamen gönüllülük temelinde olmalıdır. Sizden kimlik veya çalıştığınız kurum/bölüm/birim ile ilgili belirleyici hiçbir bilgi istenmemektedir. Cevaplarınız tamamıyla gizli tutulacak, sadece araştırmacılar tarafından değerlendirilecektir. Katılımcılardan elde edilecek bilgiler bilimsel yayımlarda kullanılacaktır.

Katılımınızla ilgili bilmeniz gerekenler:
Çalışma, genel olarak kişisel rahatsızlık verecek sorular içermemektedir. Ancak, katılım sırasında sorulardan ya da herhangi başka bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz cevaplama işini yarıda bırakıp çıkmakta serbestsiniz. Böyle bir durumda çalışmayı uygulayan kişiye, çalışmadan çıkmak istediğinizi söylemek yeterli olacaktır.

Araştırmayla ilgili daha fazla bilgi almak isterseniz:
Bu çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz. Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için araştırma görevlisi Zeynep Aysan (E-posta: [redacted]) ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz.

Yukarıdaki bilgileri okudum ve bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum. (Formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra uygulayıcıya geri veriniz).

Adı-Soyadı: Tarih İmza

Ders:

F. APPROVAL OF THE METU HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER

DUMLUPINAR BULVARI 06800
ÇANKAYA ANKARA/TURKEY
T: +90 312 210 22 91
F: +90 312 210 79 59
ueam@metu.edu.tr
www.ueam.metu.edu.tr

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

Sayı: 28620816 / 297

05 Mayıs 2017

Konu: Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Doç.Dr. Betil ERÖZ TUĞA ;

Danışmanlığını yaptığınız doktora öğrencisi Zeynep AYSAN'ın ***"Türkiye'nin Sosyo-ekonomik ve Politik Bağlamının Entelektüel olarak ELT Akademisyenlerinin Akademik ve Politik Rolleri ile Pratikleri Üzerindeki Etkisi"*** başlıklı araştırması İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay **2017-EGT-074** protokol numarası ile **09.10.2017 – 30.03.2018** tarihleri arasında geçerli olmak üzere verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

[redacted]
Prof. Dr. Ş. Halil TURAN
Başkan V

[redacted]
Prof. Dr. Ayhan SOL
Üye

[redacted]
Prof. Dr. Ayhan Gürbüz DEMİR
Üye

[redacted]
Doç. Dr. Başak ÜNDAĞÇI
Üye

[redacted]
Doç. Dr. Zana ÇITAK
Üye

[redacted]
Yrd. Doç. Dr. Pınar KAYGAN
Üye

[redacted]
Yrd. Doç. Dr. Emre SELÇUK
Üye

G. CURRICULUM VITAE

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Surname, Name: Aysan Şahintaş, Zeynep
Nationality: [redacted]
Place of Birth: [redacted]
E-mail: [redacted]
ORCID Code: [redacted]

EDUCATION

Degree	Institution & Program	Graduation Year
PhD	Middle East Technical University *English Language Teaching*	2023
MA	Bilkent University *Teaching English as a Foreign Language* (Full scholarship)	2012
BA	Boğaziçi University *English Language Education*	2009
High School	Nazilli Anatolian Teacher Training High School	2005

WORK EXPERIENCE

Year	Institution	Job Title
2014-2022	Middle East Technical University Faculty of Education, Department of Foreign Language Education	Research Assistant
2013-2014	Aydın Adnan Menderes University Faculty of Education, Department of Foreign Language Education	Research Assistant
2009-2013	Aydın Adnan Menderes University School of Foreign Languages	Lecturer

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

English (C2), French (A2), Italian (A2)

ACADEMIC WORK

Publications

Articles:

Rutkiene, A., Kaçar, I. G., Karakuş, E., Baltacı, H. Ş., Altun, M., Aysan Şahintaş, Z., Barendsen, R., Wierda, R., & Crespo García, B. (2022). The Impact of Flipped Learning on Students' Engagement and Satisfaction Development: A Cross-Country Action Research Study. *Pedagogika, 147*(3), 253-281.

Aysan-Sahintas, Z. (2019). "It's in My Blood": An Expatriate English Language Teacher's Pedagogical Practices and Identity. *i-manager's Journal on English Language Teaching, 9*(1), 1-14.

Aysan-Sahintas, Z., Okur, S., & Demir, M. (2019). Peer Interaction in an EFL Context: Task Variety, Proficiency Level and Awareness of Learners. *i-manager's Journal on English Language Teaching, 9*(4), 14-27.

Book Chapter:

Aysan, Z. (2015). Context of Situation. In B. Eröz-Tuğa (Ed.), *Theoretical Considerations in Language Education: Implications for English Language Teaching* (pp. 149-157). Nüans Publishing.

MA Thesis:

Aysan, Z. (2012). *Reverse Interlanguage Transfer: The Effects of L3 Italian & L3 French on L2 English Pronoun Use* (Unpublished master's thesis). Bilkent University.

Research Project

Flipped Impact Project (FIP), Erasmus+ KA201 - Strategic Partnership for School Education, 2018 -1-TR01-KA201-059386 (Budget: 263.740 €)
Researcher, 2018-2021

Conference Presentations

Karakuş, E., Eren-Gezen, E. & **Aysan-Şahintaş, Z**. (2019**).** Investigating Turkish Pre-service EFL Teachers' Professional Identity through the Use of Metaphors as a Representation of Their Teaching Selves. Talk Presented at CUELT Conference, 18-20 April 2019, Adana, Turkey

Aysan-Şahintaş, Z., Eren-Gezen, E. & Karakuş, E. (2019**).** Linguistically and Culturally Responsive Teaching: Pre-service ELT Teachers in the Turkish Context. Talk Presented at ILTERG Conference, 8-10 April 2019, Antalya, Turkey

Eren-Gezen, E., **Aysan-Şahintaş, Z**. & Karakuş, E. (2019**).** The Relationship among Writing Critical Reflective Journals, Critical Thinking Skills and Writing Skills. Talk Presented at ILTERG Conference, 8-10 April 2019, Antalya, Turkey

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AWARDS

TUBITAK (The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey) 2211-National PhD Scholarship Program

Conference Travel Grant by Fulbright, 2012

H. TURKISH SUMMARY / TÜRKÇE ÖZET

NEOLİBERAL AKADEMİDE ZİHNİN VE KALBİN ALIŞKANLIKLARI: İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENİ EĞİTİMCİLERİNİN MESLEKİ VE POLİTİK ROLLERİ İLE MESLEKİ KİMLİKLERİ ÜZERİNE BİR NİTEL ARAŞTIRMA

1. GİRİŞ

Neoliberal ideolojinin yaygın etkisi günümüzde birçok alanda hayli belirgin şekilde hissedilmektedir. Genel olarak eğitim ve özellikle de yükseköğretim, neoliberal politikaların tüm şiddetiyle hüküm sürdüğü alanlardan biri haline gelmiştir. Akademi, neoliberalleşen yükseköğretim politikaları ve işleyişlerinden, öğretim üyelerinin akademik özgürlüğünün ve üniversitelerin özerkliğinin sınırlandırılması, güvencesiz çalışmadaki artış, üniversite sıralama kriterleri, üretkenlik beklentileri, proje çalışmalarının artan önemi, uluslararası hareketlilik ve derece gereklilikleri, performansa dayalı ücret gibi birçok olumsuz şekilde etkilenmiştir. Dolayısıyla, sosyopolitik ve ekonomik gelişmelerden kaynaklanan bu ağır kuşatma altında, akademisyenlerin mesleki rollerini yerine getirmeleri ve sağlam mesleki kimlikler oluşturmaları oldukça zorlayıcı hale gelmiştir.

1.1. Neoliberal Üniversiteler

Üniversitelerde neoliberal yönetsel sistemlerin uygulanması eğitimin amacı olan eleştirel bilinç ve demokrasiye bağlı yurttaşlar yetiştirme amacını, dolayısıyla da geleneksel toplumsal değerleri zedelemektedir (Beckmann ve Cooper, 2013). Bu politikalar nedeniyle bilgi, entelektüalizmden ziyade ekonomik değerle ilişkilendirilmeye başlanmıştır (Mackinnon ve Brooks, 2001). Ayrıca, üniversiteler de dâhil olmak üzere neoliberal sistemlerde rekabet esastır. Üniversitelerin dünya standartlarında bir kurum olma eğilimi, on yılı aşkın bir süredir üniversite sıralama sistemleri tarafından desteklenmektedir. Diğer bir konu da üniversitelerdeki üretkenlik kültürüdür. Üniversiteler, küresel rekabete

katılmayı amaçlayan devletler tarafından bilgi üretimi ile görevlendirilmekte ve buna karşılık onlar da üniversite lig tablolarında daha iyi sıralamalar elde etmek için bilgi üretimi işini akademisyenlerden beklemektedirler (Uzuner-Smith ve Englander, 2015). Öte yandan, yeni neoliberal yönetim, akademisyenlerin hibe başvurularının yazılması, sunulması ve proje yönetimi gibi idari konulara daha fazla zaman ayırmak zorunda kalması nedeniyle araştırma işlerinde bürokratikleşmenin artmasına da neden olmuştur (Coccia, 2009; Gornitzka vd., 1998). Ayrıca, akademisyenlerin araştırma ve yayın üretkenliğini artırmak için dünya çapında hem hükümetler hem de üniversiteler performansa dayalı ücretlendirme uygular hale gelmişlerdir (Franzoni vd., 2011). Buna ek olarak, denetim kültürü de öğretim saatleri, araştırma fonları, yayın sayısı ve kendilerine yapılan referanslar gibi çeşitli akademik konularda üniversite konseylerine veya komitelerine rapor vermeleri için akademisyenler üzerinde baskı oluşturmaktadır (Hodgins ve Mannix-McNamara, 2021). Öğrencilerin ders değerlendirmeleri (ÖDD), denetim kültürü içerisinde üniversiteler tarafından sıklıkla kullanılan denetim araçlarından birine dönüşmüş durumdadır (Baldwin ve Blattner, 2003). Aynı zamanda, akademisyenlerin öğrencilere karşı tüketici benzeri bir yaklaşımı benimsemelerine yol açacak bir araç olarak da işlev görmektedir (Germain ve Scandura, 2005).

1.2. Neoliberal Özneler Olarak Akademisyenler

Üniversiteler gibi, akademisyenler de neoliberal yükseköğretim politikalarından etkilenmektedir. Dolayısıyla, makro düzeydeki reformların bir sonucu olarak bireyi yeniden inşa etme sürecinden geçen akademisyenler (Beck, 1999), günlük mesleki pratiklerini ve kimliklerini de etkileyen yeni gerekliliklere uyum sağlamaya çalışmaktadırlar. Akademisyenlerden, çalışmalarını hükümetlerin ve piyasanın kullanımına daha uygun hale getirerek daha esnek, üretken ve hükümetlerin mali programlarıyla daha işbirlikçi hale gelmiş şekilde ve tıpkı sistemdeki diğer herhangi bir birey gibi artan performans göstermeleri beklenmektedir (Davies ve Petersen, 2005). Bireyler olarak kendilerinden sorumlu tutulurlar ve kendilerinin girişimcileri olarak başarılı olabilecekleri onlara dayatılmaktadır (Walkerdine, 2003). Bu nedenle, özellikle araştırma üniversitelerinde akademisyenlerin mesleki gelişiminin önemli bir kısmı,

araştırma fonu yazma tekniklerini öğrenmek, akademik ortamda yüksek bir profile sahip olmak ve bunlar için de ders vermeyi ve toplum hizmetini bir kenara bırakmak gibi etkinliklerin teşvik edilmesi yoluyla araştırmacı rolüne yönlendirilmektedir (Darder, 2012). Ayrıca, üretkenliğe odaklanmak, akademisyenleri belirli dizinlerde ve İngilizce yayın yapan akademik dergilerde yayın yapmaya itmektedir (Ingvarsdóttir ve Arnbjörnsdóttir, 2018; Brock-Utne, 2001). Akademisyenlerin tüm bu mücadeleleri onları "ontolojik olarak güvensiz" hissettirmektedir (Ball, 2003, s. 220). Sonuç olarak, hem zihinsel, fiziksel ve duygusal bir baskı durumundan hem de iş ile aile/kişisel zaman/genişletilmiş ortam arasındaki çatışmadan muzdariptirler (Roberts, 2007).

Neoliberal anlayış nedeniyle akademisyenlerin eleştirel ve/veya yaratıcı entelektüel emeğe kayıtsız kalması da akademide yaygın bir durum haline gelmiştir. Bu durum da pedagojinin aşırı basitleştirilmesine ve öğretimi öğrencilerin sorumlu ve eleştirel vatandaşlar olarak eğitilmesine yardımcı olan ahlaki ve entelektüel temellerinden ayıran mekanik bir pedagojiye doğru yönlendirmektedir (Giroux, 2014). Benzer şekilde, zaman baskısı da akademisyenleri tasarlaması ve yürütmesi daha uzun zaman alan araştırmalardan caydıracak şekilde yayın yapmanın hızını arttırmakta ve bu nedenle onları tüm bulguların kapsamlı bir raporu yerine tek bir çalışmadan birkaç makale yayınlamaya teşvik etmektedir (Bauerlein vd., 2010). Ayrıca, neoliberal özneler olarak akademisyenler, bireyciliği teşvik eden rekabet ve kişisel sorumluluk yoluyla daha kolay yönetilir hale getirilmektedir (Davies vd., 2006).

Benzer güvensiz koşullar altında çalışan akademisyenlerin, aynı zamanda, "hayat boyu öğrenmeye" ve "çoklu kariyer yörüngelerine" kendini adamış girişimciler olmaları gerektiğinden, duruma ayak uydurmaları ve işlerinde, kazançlarında ve yaşam tarzlarında sürekli bir değişimle başa çıkmaları beklenmektedir (Walkerdine, 2003, s. 240-241). Dolayısıyla da esnek, uyum sağlayan ve özerk çalışanlar olmaları istenmektedir (Davies ve Petersen, 2005; Walkerdine, 2003). İşe bağlılık ve sorumluluk beklentileri, çalışma saatleri dışında bile akademisyenlerin günlük mesleki sorumluluklardan sıyrılmalarını geciktirmekte veya engellemekte, bu da hem iş ve özel hayat arasındaki ayrımı

belirsizleştirmekte hem de stres ve tükenmişliğe neden olmaktadır (Schaffner, 2017).

1.3. Akademisyen Olarak Öğretmen Eğitimcileri

Öğretmen eğitimcileri, öğretmen eğitimi sisteminin ayrılmaz bir parçası ve paydaşı olmasına rağmen, önemlerinin açıkça tanımlanmadığı ve tanınmadığı görülmektedir (Lunenberg ve Hamilton, 2008). Dahası, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleki uygulamalarının ve kimliklerinin kapsamlı bir açıklaması, uzun yıllardır bir sorun olarak kalmıştır (Ducharme ve Ducharme, 1996; Ham ve Kane, 2004; Olsen ve Buchanan, 2017). Benzer şekilde, farklı bağlamlarda çeşitli rolleri yerine getirebildikleri için öğretmen eğitimcileri için üzerinde anlaşmaya varılmış bir tanım da yoktur. Üniversitelerdeki akademisyenler, staj uygulaması öğretim elemanları, K-12 okullarındaki staj uygulama öğretmenleri ve hizmet içi öğretmenlerin eğitimi için çalışan hizmet içi öğretmen yetiştiricilerinin tümü öğretmen eğitimcisi olarak sayılabilir; ancak, mevcut çalışmanın odak noktası yalnızca akademisyen olarak çalışan üniversite tabanlı öğretmen eğitimcileridir. Genel anlamda, üniversite merkezli öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleki pratikleri, diğer akademisyenlerle aynı çizgide öğretim, araştırma ve hizmete dayalıdır. Ayrıca mesleki çalışmalarında bilginin sosyopolitikasını sorgulayacakları politik roller üstlenmeleri beklenmektedir. Ancak mesleki rollerini yerine getirirken, öğretmen eğitimcileri de kendilerine üretkenlik, rekabet ve performans beklentileri dayatan günümüzün neoliberal yükseköğretim bağlamından etkilenirler. Sonuç olarak, roller mesleki kimliğin üzerine inşa edildiği zeminler olduğu için (Meeus vd., 2018), öğretmen eğitimcilerinin neoliberal akademik bağlamda mesleki ve politik rolleri vasıtasıyla mesleki pratiklerini nasıl yerine getirdikleri kimlikleri açısından da belirleyici bir faktör haline gelmiştir.

1.4. Çalışmanın Amacı ve Önemi

Bu araştırma, üniversitelerde akademisyen olarak görev yapan İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimcilerinin mesleki pratiklerine odaklanmaktadır. Çalışmada, İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimcilerinin mesleki rolleri ve entelektüel olarak politik rolleri ile birlikte mesleki kimlik inşası incelenmektedir. Çalışmanın cevaplamayı amaçladığı araştırma soruları şunlardır:

1. İngilizce öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleki rolleri hem Üniversitelerarası Kurul (ÜAK) hem de Üniversite (XU) tarafından hazırlanan resmi belgelerde nasıl yansıtılmaktadır?
2. İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimcileri mesleki kimliklerini nasıl yapılandırırlar?
    2.1. İngilizce öğretmenleri nasıl İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimcileri haline gelir?
    2.2. İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimcileri mesleki rollerini nasıl yerine getirir?
    2.3. İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimcileri mesleki rollerinin gerektirdiklerinin mesleki kimlikleri üzerindeki etkisini nasıl deneyimler?
    2.4. İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimcileri, kurumsal ve ulusal bağlamların mesleki kimlikleri üzerindeki etkisini nasıl kavramsallaştırır?
3. İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimcilerinin entelektüeller olarak politik rolleri, öğretim ve araştırma pratiklerini hangi şekillerde etkiler?

Bu çalışmanın, üstteki sorular bağlamında, var olan alanyazına konunun özellikleri, teorik çerçevesi, katılımcıları, veri toplama araçları ve araştırma yeri gibi açılardan katkı sağlaması amaçlanmaktadır. Öncelikle, öğretmen eğitimcileri "iyi bir öğretmen eğitiminin merkezinde" olmasına rağmen (Vloet ve van Swet, 2010, s. 149), mesleki yaşamları ve karşılaştıkları zorluklar akademide çok az ilgi uyandırmıştır (Martinez, 2008). Buna ek olarak, benzersiz bir sosyokültürel bağlam olan Türkiye akademisinde çalışan İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimcilerinin mesleki pratikleri ve kimlikleri üzerine ampirik araştırma oldukça azdır. İkinci olarak, var olan alanyazın İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimcilerinin mesleki pratiklerini genellikle parçalı bir şekilde tartışmaktadır (örn. sadece- araştırmacı rolü, sadece-öğretmen rolü, araştırmacı-öğretmen bağlantısı). Ancak bu çalışma, hem öğretmen, araştırmacı ve hizmet sağlayıcı rollerini hem de politik rolleri kapsamlı bir şekilde incelemektedir. Buna ek olarak, araştırmanın teorik çerçevesi olan neoliberalizm konuyu anlamlandırmak adına hem yeni bir dayanak sağlamakta hem de öğretmen eğitimcilerinin neoliberalleşen yükseköğretimle ilgili genel görüşlerini ve bu bağlamdaki günlük davranışlarını açıkça gösterebilen az miktardaki ampirik verinin artmasını sağlamaktadır (Levin ve Aliyeva, 2015).

Ayrıca, bu çalışma eğitim bilimleri/sosyal bilimler alanından, araştırma odaklı bir üniversiteden ve gelişmekte olan bir ülke bağlamından veriler sunarak ağırlıklı olarak fen bilimleri, sadece-araştırma üniversiteleri ve kapitalist ya da gelişmiş

ülkeler bağlamından gelen verilere alternatif oluşturmaktadır. Bir diğer nokta da, alanyazında konuyla ilgili çalışmaların farklı disiplinden (örn. matematik, sosyoloji, işletme, mühendislik vb.) öğretim üyelerinin deneyim ve görüşlerine odaklanmasına rağmen öğretmen eğitimcilerini yeterince kapsamamasıyla ilişkilidir. Bu sebeple, bu çalışma, öğretim üyesi olarak öğretmen eğitimcileri grubuna odaklanmıştır. Genellikle tek bir veri toplama aracı kullanılan önceki çalışmaların aksine, bu çalışma doküman analizi, yarı-yapılandırılmış derinlemesine mülakatlar ve ders gözlemlerinden yararlanarak daha kapsamlı bir veri setine ve dolayısıyla daha kapsamlı bir analize olanak sağlamıştır. Son olarak, araştırmayı ayırt edici kılan özelliklerden biri de araştırmanın yürütüldüğü ve odağındaki üniversite olmuştur. Araştırma odaklı, uluslararası hedeflerle güdülenmiş ve akademik personelinin atama ve yükseltilmesi için hayli rekabetçi ve üretim odaklı bir politikalar izleyen akademik karakteriyle Türkiye'deki birçok üniversiten belirgin bir biçimde ayrılmakta ve bu da çalışmaya farklı bir perspektif ve bağlam üzerinden bakabilmeyi mümkün kılmaktadır.

2. YÖNTEM

Bu çalışma, nitel araştırma yaklaşımıyla tasarlanmıştır. Geniş bir yaklaşımla, nitel araştırma yaklaşımının, bireylerin sosyal bir konuyu nasıl deneyimlediklerini ve/veya yorumladıklarını incelemeyi amaçladığı söylenebilir. Bu genel yaklaşım içinde de çalışmayı yürütmek için vaka çalışması benimsenmiştir. Vaka çalışması, bir sorun ya da olgunun, sorun ya da olguyla ilgili katılımcıların görüşlerine dayalı olarak doğal bağlamlarda kapsamlı ve ayrıntılı bir şekilde incelenmesi olarak açıklanabilir (Gall vd., 2003). Bu tanım çerçevesinde, çalışmanın İngilizce öğretmen eğitimcilerinin neoliberal akademik bağlamda mesleki ve politik rolleri ile mesleki kimliklerini incelemeyi amaçladığı düşünülürse, vaka çalışmasının bu konunun derinlemesine araştırılmasına olanak tanıyan en uygun yöntem olduğu görülmektedir.

2.2. Araştırma Ortamı ve Katılımcılar

Nitel araştırmalar "insanları kendi bölgelerinde izlemeyi" gerektirdiğinden, mevcut nitel vaka çalışması, mesleki rol ve kimlik açısından incelenen İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimcilerinin mesleki pratiklerine de kendi çalışma ortamlarında yani

çalıştıkları üniversitede ve bölümlerinde odaklanılmıştır. Araştırmanın yürütüldüğü üniversitenin gizliliğini sağlamak için adı kurgulanmıştır. Bu nedenle, çalışma boyunca bu üniversite XU olarak adlandırılmaktadır. Özellikle bu üniversiteye odaklanılmasının nedeni, hem üniversitenin hem de bölümün Türkiye'deki diğer üniversiteler ve İngiliz Dili Öğretimi programlarından farklı özelliklere sahip olmasından kaynaklanmaktadır. Program sayısı, öğrenci başarısı ve akademik personel kalitesi açısından hayli rekabetçi olması, eğitim dilinin tamamen İngilizce olması, yüksek seviyede ve özellikle araştırma üretkenliğine odaklı ön şart ve şartlardan oluşan atama ve yükseltme kriterleri benimsiyor olması bu üniversiteyi diğerlerine kıyasla neoliberal yükseköğretim politikaları bağlamında farklı bir yerde konumlandırmaktadır.

Nitel araştırma yaklaşımları genellikle araştırmacıların az sayıda katılımcıya derinlemesine odaklanarak çalışmasını gerektirir. Özellikle vaka çalışmalarında katılımcı sayısı iki ila altı arasında değişmektedir (Duff, 2006). Bu durum mevcut araştırma için de geçerlidir. Katılımcı sayısı beştir. Ayrıca, vaka çalışmalarında katılımcı seçimi çoğunlukla, katılımcıların bir olgu için tipik veya istisnai olmasını gerektirdiği için, örnekleme türü amaçlı örnekleme stratejisi olarak da değerlendirilebilecek elverişli örnekleme stratejisine bağlıdır (Duff, 2008; Miles vd., 2014). Ayrıca, örnekleme türünün hem elverişli hem de amaçlı olarak kabul edilebilmesinin bir diğer nedeni de, katılımcıların ait oldukları evreni temsil etmesi kadar erişim ve iletişim kolaylığı sağlamalarıdır.

2.3. Veri Toplama ve Analiz Süreçleri

Bu çalışmada veri toplama araçları olarak elektronik resmi kurumsal dokümanlar, yarı-yapılandırılmış derinlemesine mülakatlar ve ders gözlemlerinden yararlanılmıştır. Kurumsal dokümanlar kapsamında ÜAK'ın doçentliğe yükseltme kriterleri; üniversitenin resmi internet sayfası da dâhil olmak üzere üniversite tarafından oluşturulan 2018-2022 stratejik plan; 2017, 2018, 2019 ve 2020 yıllık faaliyet raporları; atama ve yükseltme kriterleri; katılımcıların ders izlenceleri ve araştırmacı profilleri gibi belgelerin bir derlemesi incelenmiştir.

Diğer veri kaynaklarından biri de yarı-yapılandırılmış görüşmelerdir. Öğretmen eğitimcilerinin rolleri ve kimliklerine odaklanan benzer araştırmaların

incelenmesi ve mevcut çalışmanın amacının ve teorik çerçevesinin de göz önünde bulundurulmasıyla görüşme soruları oluşturulmuştur. Toplamda beş katılımcıyla görüşmeler yapılmış, her bir görüşme tek bir katılımcı ile özel olarak ve Türkçe gerçekleştirilmiştir. Görüşme yerleri ve yöntemleri belirlenirken de katılımcılarının talepleri göz önüne alınmıştır. Dört katılımcı ile yapılan görüşmelerde ses kaydı alınmış, bir katılımcı ise not alma tekniğinin kullanılmasını istemiştir. Sonuç olarak, toplamda 11 saatlik görüşme verisi elde edilmiştir. Ders gözlemleri içinse her katılımcının bir dersi dört hafta süreyle gözlemlenmiş ve sonuç olarak, toplamda 56 saatlik ders gözlemi yapılmıştır. Oldukça fazla saha notu ile sonuçlanan ders gözlemlerinde katılımcılarla ilgili tüm detaylar not edilmiştir. Yalnızca "nesnel gözlemlerin" değil, aynı zamanda "öznel duyguların" da kapsamlı bir kaydı tutulmuştur (Spradley, 1980, s. 58). Veri toplama araçlarını araştırma sorularıyla ilişkilendirmek gerekirse, ilk soru için doküman analizi, ikinci soru için yarı-yapılandırılmış görüşmeler ve ders gözlemleri, son olarak üçüncü soru için de doküman analizi, yarı-yapılandırılmış görüşmeler ve ders gözlemlerinden yararlanılmıştır.

Miles ve Huberman'ın (1994) veri analizi modeline dayanarak, öncelikle el yazısıyla tutulan saha notları daha sistematik ve düzenli olması için bilgisayara aktarılmıştır. Kurumsal dokümanlar ile saha notları hazır olduğunda doküman analizine başlanmıştır. Bu tür bir analiz, önce gözden geçirme, ardından ayrıntılı okuma ve yorumlama olmak üzere üç adımda gerçekleşmiş ve bu adımlar içerik analizinin temelini oluşturmuştur (Bowen, 2009). Bu anlamda, konuyla ilgili veriler belirlenmiş ve mevcut çalışmanın araştırma sorularıyla ilişkili olarak anlamlı birimler halinde kategorize edilmiştir. Sonrasında, görüşme verilerini deşifre etmek için bu konuda deneyimi olan iki öğrenciden yardım alınmıştır. Merriam'ın (2009) veri analizi adımları takip edilerek, verileri en iyi şekilde anlamak için birkaç kez okunmuş ve daha sonra deşifre edilerek nitel bir veri analiz yazılımı olan MAXQDA 2020'ye girilmiştir. Analiz sürecine tematik içerik analizi ve dolayısıyla kodlama adımıyla devam edilmiştir. Kodlama sürecine ilk olarak bütüncül kodlama uygulanarak başlanmıştır (Saldaña, 2013). Yani belirli veri birimleri okunduktan sonra içerikten edinilen bütüncül izlenim yazılmıştır. Bu yaklaşım, çok ayrıntılı bir kodlama şemasına geçmeden önce verilere aşina olunmasına ve verilerin çok geniş bir şekilde sınıflandırılmasına yardımcı

olmuştur. Sonraki adımlarda, görüşme verilerinin ilk ayrıntılı kodlaması anlamına gelen bir süreç olan birinci döngü kodlaması uygulanmış, sonra da birinci döngüde üretilen ilgili kodlar, daha geniş ve anlamlı kod kalıpları geliştirmek için birlikte gruplandırılmıştır (Saldaña, 2013).

Son olarak, mevcut çalışmada güvenirliği sağlamak için Lincoln ve Guba'nın (1985) nitel araştırmalar için önerdiği dört kriteri temel alınmıştır. İnandırıcılık kriteri, araştırma alanında araştırmacı olarak uzun süre geçirerek gözlem yapmak, üye kontrolü, veri çeşitlemesi, akran/uzman incelemesi ile aktarılabilirlik kriteri tüm araştırma sürecini özellikle de veri toplama yöntemleri, katılımcı profilleri ve veri analizini okura detaylı şekilde aktararak; güvenilirlik kriteri araştırmacının konumu ve veri çeşitlemesi ile ve son olarak doğrulanabilirlik kriteri araştırmanın başından sonuna dek atılan adımların ve alınan kararların nedenleri ile birlikte açıklanmasıyla sağlanmıştır.

3. ANALİZ SONUÇLARI

3.1. İngilizce Öğretmeni Eğitimcilerinin Resmi Dokümanlardaki Mesleki Rolleri

Öncelikle, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin rollerini yerine getirmelerinde ve kimliklerini oluşturmalarında mesleki bağlamların etkili olduğu göz önüne alındığında, ÜAK'ın doçentliğe terfi kriterleri seti ve XU'nun stratejik planı, yıllık faaliyet raporları ile atama ve yükseltme kriterleri seti analiz edildi. Bulgular, her iki kurumun da puan sistemleri ve teşviklerin uygulanması yoluyla öğretmen eğitimcileri üzerinde kontrol mekanizması olarak hareket ettiğini ortaya koymuştur. XU tarafından üretilen yıllık faaliyet raporları ve stratejik plan, araştırma, öğretim ve hizmet faaliyetlerine eşit derecede önem veriyor gibi görünse de, atama yükseltme kriterleri üniversite tarafından araştırmacı rolüne öncelik verildiğini göstermektedir. Bu ÜAK tarafından üretilen belge için de geçerlidir.

Ayrıca, bireysel bir pratik olarak topluma hizmet ne kriter setlerine dahil edilmiş ne de diğer resmi politika dokümanlarında teşvik edilmiş veya öne çıkarılmıştır. Dokümanlar, araştırma ve yayın odaklı akademik performansı teşvik eden ve

önceliklendiren neoliberal bir söylemi temel almaktadır. Araştırmacı rolünün diğer rollere göre dolaylı olarak önceliklendirilmesi ve öğretmen eğitimcilerini belirli akademik çalışma türlerine yönlendiren ilgili dış politikalar, kurumsal, ulusal ve uluslararası güç ilişkileri tarafından derinden etkilenmektedir.

3.2. İngilizce Öğretmeni Eğitimcilerinin Mesleki Rolleri ve Kimlikleri

Ayrıca bulgular, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleki ve eğitimsel biyografilerinin mesleki kimlik oluşumlarıyla ilişkisini ortaya koymuştur. Katılımcıların tümü birinci derece İngilizce öğretmeni olarak çalışmış ve İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimcisi olmak için geleneksel akademik yolları izlemiştir. Öğretmen eğitimcisi kimliklerine önceki lisansüstü eğitim ve iş başında öğrenimden yararlanarak adapte oldukları görülmektedir. Katılımcılar, öğretmen eğitimcisi olmaya karar verirken bir dizi çekici ve itici faktörden etkilenmişlerdir. Bu faktörler, katılımcıların işlerine bağlılıklarını da etkiledikleri için önem taşımaktadır. Ayrıca, özellikle de mesleki rol model veya tavsiye veren kimseler rollerinde önemli kişilerin ve kurumsal bağlamın, katılımcıların kimlik inşa süreçlerine olumlu katkı sağladığı ortaya çıkmıştır. Katılımcıların belirli bir rol veya iş ile özdeşleşme derecesinin ve kendilerini mesleki olarak nasıl gördüklerinin de mesleki kimlikleri için önemli hususlar olduğu bulunmuştur.

Ayrıca, üstlendikleri mesleki roller ve işler mesleki kimlik oluşumunda son derece etkili rol oynamaktadır. Öğretimle başlamak gerekirse, katılımcıların öğretim pratikleri kısmen önceki birinci derecede öğretmenlik deneyimi tarafından şekillenmiş durumdadır ve bu deneyimi de öğretmen eğitimi pedagojisi için bir kazanç olarak görmektedirler. Ek olarak, katılımcılar ders verirken belirli eğitim teorilerinden yararlanmakta ve pedagojileri de eklektik öğretim stratejileri, uyumlu öğretim ve deneyimsel öğrenme üzerine kurulu durumdadır. Katılımcıların, kişisel öğretmen eğitimi pedagojilerini hayata geçirirken MEB ve YÖK tarafından oluşturulan öğretmen yeterliliklerine ve ders sınıflandırmalarına bağlı oldukları görülmektedir. Öğretim materyalleri ile ilgili olarak, katılımcılar kullandıkları materyallerin güncelliğine dikkat etmektedirler. Bazıları eklektik öğretim stratejilerini desteklemek için dijital pedagojik uygulamalardan ve araçlardan da yararlanmaktadır.

Araştırmacı rollerine gelince, akademik konumları ne olursa olsun araştırma yapma konusunda kararlılık göstermekteler ve akademik ağ oluşturmanın, araştırma yapmak ve yayınlamak için daha iyi fırsatlara yol açan bir norm haline geldiğinin bir hayli farkındadırlar. Yine de, araştırma yürütmeyi genellikle ya MEB'in ortaya çıkardığı ya da büyük ölçüde üniversitedeki yönetim sisteminden kaynaklanan bürokratik zorluklarla ilişkilendirmekteler. Buna ek olarak, yalnızca araştırma yapmak için değil, aynı zamanda üniversite yönetimi tarafından sık sık yapılan bütçe kesintileri nedeniyle katılmaları maddi anlamda gittikçe zorlaşan akademik toplantılar için de maddi destek arama ve sağlama konusunda zorluklar yaşamaktadırlar. Kurumsal rehberlik ve yardımın proje yönetiminin her aşaması için aynı şekilde yeterli olmadığını düşünmektedirler. Bu da onları fon arayan ve araştırma projelerinin her yönünü ve aşamasını yönetmek zorunda kalan kendi sorumluluğunu üstlenmiş akademisyenler haline getirmiştir. Son olarak, katılımcılar topluma hizmetten ziyade iç hizmete yani üniversiteye, bölüme, disiplinlerine ve öğrencilere hizmet işine daha çok zaman ayırmaktadır. Özellikle öğrencilerinin mesleki gelişimine katkıda bulunmak için çok zaman harcamaktadırlar. Geleceğin öğretmenlerini mesleki olarak hazırlayan bir öğretmen eğitimcisi olarak çalışmak ve *Topluma Hizmet Uygulamaları* dersi vermek, onların bakış açısıyla topluma hizmetlerinin temelini oluşturmaktadır.

Mesleki rollerinin ve çalışmalarının dış kaynaklı, zorlu ve birbiriyle rekabet eden gereklilikleri, katılımcıların mesleki kimliğini şekillendiren bir başka faktördür. Katılımcılar, XU'nun zorlayıcı terfi kriterlerini karşılamakta sıkıntı yaşadıklarını bildirmektedir. Üniversitenin kriterlerine ek olarak, ÜAK ve Akademik Teşvik Sistemi'nin (ATS) kriter setleri de çabalarını, dikkatlerini ve bilim anlayışlarını karmaşıklaştırmakla kalmayıp, aynı zamanda bölmektedir. Katılımcılar, ölçme ve puan sistemi kullanımı, belirli uluslararası dizinlerde ve Q değerlerinde yayınlara öncelik verilmesi ve bilim dili olarak İngilizcenin hegemonyası konularında eleştirilerini dile getirmektedirler. Sonuç olarak neoliberal yönetim teknolojilerinin, katılımcıların sisteme uyumunu sağladığı ve çalışmalarını yönlendirdiği görülmektedir. Bununla birlikte, katılımcılar, sık sık yaşanan değişikliklere ve sistemin kendilerinden daha iddialı beklentilerine uyum sağlamanın kendilerini hem güvensiz hem de duygusal olarak savunmasız hissettirdiğini göstermektedir. Üstelik verdikleri derslerin ve okuttukları öğrenci

sayısının da ağırlığı altında ezildiklerini belirtmekteler. Bireysel düzeyde daha etken gibi görünseler de bölüm düzeyinde aynı derecede etken olmaları mümkün olmamaktadır. Özellikle de tam zamanlı öğretim görevlileri için, hem akademik konumları hem de buna eşlik eden güç farklılıkları, etken bir mesleki kimlik gelişimini kısıtlayabilmektedir. Katılımcılar ayrıca araştırmacı ve öğretmen rollerinin bölünmüşlüğünü, araştırma yapmak için zaman ayırmanın zorluğunu ve bazı meslektaşlarının öğretimi göz ardı edip araştırma odaklı hale geldiğini de tartışmaktadırlar. Ayrıca neoliberal yönetimin, iş yüklerini yoğunlaştırmakla kalmayıp çeşitlendirdiği, iş-yaşam dengelerini bozduğu ve böylece mesleki kimlikleri üzerinde baskı oluşturduğu da görülmektedir. Bu durum da katılımcıların zaman telaşı yaşamasına neden olmaktadır.

Son olarak, katılımcıların mesleki kimlikleri, kurumsal ve ulusal düzeyler olarak gruplandırılabilecek bağlamsal faktörlerin etkisine de açıktır. Kurumsal düzeyden başlamak gerekirse, katılımcıların ifadeleri, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin hem göreve başlama aşamasında hem de devam eden mesleki gelişim süreçlerinde meslektaş desteğine ihtiyaç olduğunu göstermektedir. Destekleyici bir uygulama topluluğu oluşturmak ve bunu sürdürmekle ilgili sorunlar, sağlam bir mesleki kimlik oluşumunu kısıtlıyor gibi görünmektedir. Sonuçlar ayrıca ÖDD'lerin uygulanmasının ve faydasının katılımcılar için tartışmalı bir konu olduğunu göstermektedir. Tarafsız ve gerekçeli yorumlar pedagojilerine olumlu katkı sağlayabilirken, oldukça olumsuz, önyargılı geri bildirimler ve sadece sayısal bir puan mesleki ve duygusal iyi hallerine olumlu katkı sağlamamaktadır. XU'daki yönetim ve akademik özgürlüğe gelince, katılımcılar XU'daki idari ve akademik ortamın nispeten demokratik olduğunu düşünmektedir. Katılımcıların akademik özgürlüklerini kullanabilmeleri, bölüm ve kurum düzeyinde karar alma süreçlerine büyük ölçüde aktif olarak katılabildiklerini düşünmektedirler. Ayrıca, yönetişim ve akademik özgürlük kültürünü tehdit eden politikalar ve kararlarla karşılaştıklarında, bunlara direnmek veya bunları değiştirmek için mesleki etkenlik göstermeye çalışmaktadırlar.

Ulusal düzeye gelince, katılımcılar fazla çalışmalarına rağmen düşük ücret aldıklarını belirtmektedirler. İstikrarsız bir ekonomiye eşlik eden ve tatmin edici olmaktan uzak olan maaşlar, sadece geçimlerini sağlamakta değil bilim yapmakta

da zorlandıkları elverişsiz koşullar yaratıyor gibi görünmektedir. ATS ise genellikle akademisyenleri kontrol eden ve makineleştiren, düşük kaliteli işlere ve etik dışı davranışlara yol açan bir sistem olarak görülmektedir. Dolayısıyla da geleneksel bilim anlayışı için bazı riskler taşımakta ve parasal kazancın öncelenmesine yol açmaktadır. Ayrıca katılımcılar ulusal düzeyde sergileyebildikleri akademik özgürlükten de tatmin olmamaktadırlar. 2016 yılından itibaren ivme kazanan neoliberal otoriterleşmeden kaynaklanan hükümet politikalarının yanı sıra öğrencilerin ve toplumun tarihsel, ulusal ve dini hassasiyetleri katılımcılar tarafından kısıtlayıcı etmenler olarak değerlendirilmektedir. Tüm bunların sonucu olarak akademisyenlerin özellikle son yıllarda yoğun şekilde maruz kaldıkları soruşturma geçirme ve işten atılma gibi süreçlerden etkilenmeme çabaları dikkatli adımlar atmalarına ve hatta otosansür uygulamalarına yol açmaktadır. Ayrıca YÖK, üniversitelerdeki akademik ve idari çalışmaları düzenleyen ve yöneten bir tür kontrol mekanizması olarak görülmektedir. Katılımcılar, YÖK'ü son derece merkezileşmiş yapısı, öğrenci kontenjanları, işe alım ve müfredat açısından akademik özgürlüğün yanı sıra bireysel ve kurumsal özerkliği kısıtlayıcı bir faktör da olarak eleştirmektedir. Son olarak, katılımcılar Türk yükseköğretiminin mevcut durumundan da bahsetmektedir. Üniversitelerin çoğunun akademik kalitesinin lise seviyesinin biraz üzerinde olduğuna inanmaları nedeniyle, üniversite sayısında devam eden patlama hakkında karamsar hissetmektedirler. Ayrıca, eğitim reformlarının genellikle yarım kalmış olduğunu ve olumsuz sonuçlar getirdiğini hem gözlemlemekte hem de deneyimlemektedirler. Dolayısıyla, kendi idealleri ile eğitim sistemlerinin mevcut durumu arasında önemli bir uçurum olduğu görülmektedir. Mevcut sorunlar motivasyonlarını kaybetmelerine, sistem içinde kendilerini, emeklerini ve çabalarını konumlandırmakta güçlük çekmelerine neden olmaktadır.

3.3. İngilizce Öğretmeni Eğitimcilerinin Politik Rolleri

Öğretmen eğitimcilerinin politik rollerine gelince, katılımcılar görüşmelerde İngilizce öğretme ve öğrenmenin politik yönüne önem verdiklerini ve bu konuları derslerinde genellikle işlediklerini bildirmişlerdir. Ancak ders gözlemleri, derslerde genellikle bu tür konuların açık, kapsamlı ve sistematik bir şekilde ele

alınmadığını ortaya koymaktadır. Görünüşe göre, öğretmen eğitimi müfredatı ve pedagojileri, İngilizce öğretimi ve öğreniminin hegemonik, kısıtlayıcı ve sorunlu söylemlerinin üzerini örten ve bunları yansızlaştıran neoliberal politik teknolojiler olarak işlev görmektedirler. Katılımcıların öğretmen adaylarının siyasal sosyalleşmelerine kendi algıladıkları ve gerçekte olan katkıları arasında bir uyuşmazlık olduğu aşikârdır. Bu durum katılımcıların sadece öğretmen rolünde değil aynı zamanda araştırmacı rolünde de geçerlidir. Benzer şekilde, araştırmacı olarak da katılımcıların çoğu İngiliz dili öğretiminin Türkiye bağlamındaki genişlemesine ve neo-kolonyal ilişkilerine dönük uygulamaları, perspektifleri ve pedagojileri genellikle sorunsallaştırmamakta ve konunun metodolojik ve teknik yönlerine odaklanmaktadır.

4. TARTIŞMA VE ÖNERİLER

Mevcut akademik çalışma anlayışı ve belirli akademik faaliyetlere atfedilen değer, sadece akademik çalışmaların standartlaşmasının değil (Uzuner-Smith ve Englander, 2015) aynı zamanda bunların kontrolün de önünü açmaktadır. Bilgi ekonomisi sistemi ile yönetilen yükseköğretim kurumlarında ekonomik değeri olan belirli iş türlerinin önceliklendirilmesi (Mackinnon ve Brooks, 2001), benzer yönelimli atama ve yükseltme kriterlerinin kullanılmasıyla ÜAK ve XU için geçerli hale gelmiştir. Bu nedenle, öğretmen eğitimcileri artık ancak belirli sayıda makaleyi belirli dizinlerde veya Q değerli dergilerde yayınlatabilmeleri halinde bir üst akademik pozisyona yükseltilebilmektedirler. Bunlara belirli yurtdışı üniversitelerden doktora sonrası araştırma deneyimi ya da doktora derecesi almış olmak ve belirli konferanslarda bildiri sunmak da dâhil edilebilir. Konferanslar, üniversite yönetimi tarafından tanınan ve kabul gören konferanslardan olduğu sürece atama ve yükseltme amacıyla kullanılabilir hale gelmiştir. Açık bir şekilde, bilginin geniş çevrelere yayılması ve ulaştırılması için kullanılabilecek araçlar standartlaştırılmıştır. Standartlaştırma, denetim kültürüne hizmet ederken ve üretkenliği artırmak için oldukça işe yarar olabilirken, aynı zamanda öğretmen eğitimcilerinin hem özerklik hem de seçim ve karar ve verme hakları için bir tehdit oluşturmaktadır.

Ayrıca, kriter setlerinin de açıkça gösterdiği gibi, her bir madde ilgili kurumlar tarafından tasarlanmakta ve kontrol edilmektedir. Bu nedenle, öğretmen

eğitimcileri, Biesta ve diğerlerinin (2015) çalışmasındaki bulgularla benzer şekilde, XU'daki akademik çalışmaları üzerinde irade sergilemek ve öz denetim yapmak konusunda fırsatlarını giderek yitirmektedir. Bu, yükseköğretim kurumlarında neoliberal yöneticiliğin nasıl işlediğini de göstermektedir. Böyle bir sistem, öğretmen eğitimcilerini "yönetilen profesyoneller" haline getirir (Blackmore, 2003, s. 5). Araştırmacı rolünün öğretmen eğitimcileri için önceleştirilmesi, kurumsal, ulusal ve uluslararası güç ilişkileri ağları bağlamında da değerlendirilebilir. XU'nun tarihi boyunce hükümetler tarafından akademik pazarda uluslararası başarı ile görevlendirilmiş olması, yakın zamanda YÖK tarafından araştırma odaklı bir üniversite olarak ilan edilmesi, hem ulusal hem de uluslararası performans izleme endekslerine ve üniversite sıralama sistemlerine karşı sorumlu hale gelmesi ve son olarak üniversitenin kurumsal bütçe tahsisinin araştırma ve yayın odaklı performansla ilişkilendirilmiş olması, üniversitenin araştırma ve yayın faaliyetlerine kurumsal olarak daha fazla önem vermesinin ana nedenleri olarak kabul edilebilir. Bu sebeple, öğretmen eğitimcileri, bu kriterlere ve puan sistemlerine dayanarak, küresel akademik pazarda kendilerinin, kurumlarının ve uluslarının değerini ve sırasını yükseltmek için çok çalışan "küçük sermayeler" haline gelmişlerdir (Brown, 2015, s. 36).

Öğretmen rollerine bakıldığında, katılımcıların mesleki bilgi ve becerilerini herhangi bir ikinci aşama göreve başlama programı olmadan geliştirmiş oldukları aşikârdır. Bu da, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleklerine adım atarken genellikle mentorluk ve göreve başlama programı fırsatlarından yoksun olduğunu iddia eden diğer araştırmalarla örtüşen bir sonuçtur (Guilfoyle vd., 1995, Korthagen vd., 2005; Mayer vd., 2011; Ritter, 2007). Ayrıca, katılımcıların onları birinci derece öğretmenlikten çıkıp ikinci derece öğretmenliğin sınırlarından geçiş yapmalarını sağlayan çeşitli nedenleri vardı. Başka bir ifadeyle, daha önceki araştırmalarda da gösterildiği gibi katılımcılar için öğretmen eğitimcisi olmak hem önceden planlanmış kararlara hem de tesadüflere bağlıdır (Acker, 1997; Barrow ve Xu, 2022; Edmond ve Hayler, 2013; Hayler ve Williams, 2020; Mayer vd., 2011; Montenegro Maggio, 2016). Önemli kişilerin etkileyici mesleki ve kişisel özelliklerinin, öğretmen eğitimcisi olma kararını alma, kendi mesleki stillerini geliştirme ve yeni bir uygulama topluluğuna merkezi katılımı sağlama dâhil olmak üzere katılımcılara öğretmen eğitimi sürecine başarılı şekilde uyum

sağlayabilmeleri için yardımcı olduğu söylenebilir (Lave ve Wenger, 1991). Bunlara ek olarak, staj okullarında öğretmen adaylarını denetlemenin, tüm katılımcıları öğretmen kimlikleriyle daha uyumlu hale getirdiği açıktır (Dinkelman vd., 2006). Sonuç olarak, tüm katılımcıların eğitim ve mesleki geçmişleri boyunca çeşitli kimlikleri bünyesinde barındırdığının altını çizmek önemlidir. Mevcut mesleki benlikleri, önceki kimliklerinin izlerini taşıyan, onların üzerine inşa edilmeye devam edilen veya tamamen yenilerinin oluşturulduğu "bir ben-konumları toplumu" (Hermans, 2014) haline gelmiştir. Son olarak, XU, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin sermaye birikimine olanak sağlayarak (Bourdieu, 1986) onlar için olumlu ve güçlü bir mesleki kimlik oluşumunu kolaylaştırmaktadır ve bu kurumsal bağlılık ile mesleki kimlik arasındaki ilişkiyi gösteren diğer araştırmaların sonuçlarını da desteklemektedir (ayrıca bkz. Day vd., 2005; Little ve Bartlett, 2002; Vähäsantanen vd., 2008).

K-12 okulları ve üniversite seviyesindeki pedagojik farklılıklara rağmen, katılımcılar, öğretmen adaylarına "gerçek tavsiyeler" vermek becerisi (Williams, 2014, s. 320); genç yetişkinlere, okullara ve eğitim sistemine aşinalık; görev ve ödev tasarlama deneyimi gibi belirli unsurları öğretmen eğitimi bağlamına taşıyabilmişlerdir. Bu nedenle, ikinci düzey öğretmen kimlikleri, birinci düzey kimliklerin bazı unsurlarını içermektedir. Ayrıca, katılımcıların kendi öğretim uygulamalarının teorik temelleri hakkında oldukça bilgili ve düşünümsel oldukları anlaşılmaktadır. Deneyimsel öğrenmeye ve yapılandırmacılığa olan bağlılıkları, öğretme anlayışlarının bilgiyi en basit haliyle aktarmaktan ziyade öğrencilerin anlayışını geliştirmeye ve dahası değiştirmeye odaklı olduğunu göstermektedir (González, 2011). Öğretmen yeterliklerine gelince, mevcut çalışmanın bulguları öğretmen eğitimcilerinin aday öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişimi için güçlü bir sorumluluk gösterdiğini ispatlayan Law vd. (2007) ve Shagrir'in (2015) bulgularıyla örtüşmektedir. Tezgiden-Cakcak'ın (2017) araştırmasında da yansıtıldığı üzere, katılımcılar genellikle YÖK ve MEB tarafından oluşturulan ders sınıflandırmalarını ve öğretmen yeterliliklerini temel alarak ders içerikleri ile uygulamalarını buna göre şekillendirmeye çalıştıklarını açıkça ifade etmişlerdir. Bu sonuç, her iki kurumun, özellikle YÖK'ün lisans öğretmen eğitimi müfredatı üzerindeki etkisi açısından şaşırtıcı değildir. Katılımcıların öğretmen adaylarına model olmalarına gelince, bu hem örtük modelleme hem de açık modelleme

(Lunenberg vd., 2007) ve ayrıca uyumlu öğretim (Swennen, Lunenberg ve Korthagen, 2008) yoluyla gerçekleşir. Son olarak, katılımcıların öğretiminin, eklektik öğretim anlayışlarına uygun olarak, öğrencilerin farklılaşan ihtiyaçlarına uyarlanmış bir materyal koleksiyonuna (Edge ve Garton, 2009) dayandığı ve kullandıkları materyallerin türlerinin de onlara dijital pedagojiyi benimseme ve uygulama fırsatı sağladığı anlaşılmaktadır (Agreda Montoro vd., 2015).

Araştırmacı rolleri incelendiğinde, tüm katılımcıların kişisel motivasyonlar kadar bağlamsal faktörlerin ya da gerekliliklerin de bir sonucu olarak araştırmayı sadece kullanmakla/tüketmekle kalmayıp aynı zamanda üretmekle de meşgul oldukları bulunmuştur (Smith, 2011). Araştırmacı rollerine olan bağlılıklarına rağmen, katılımcılar genellikle araştırma yürütmenin olumsuz deneyimlerini ve bir araştırmacı kimliği oluşturmanın zorluklarını dile getirmektedirler. Bu durumun, büyük ölçüde, araştırma projelerinin yürütülmesinde bürokrasinin gittikçe artmasına neden olan XU'daki neoliberal yönetim sistemiyle ilgili olduğu görülmektedir (Coccia, 2009; Gornitzka vd., 1998). Araştırma yapmaya ilişkin genel bulgular, üniversitenin araştırmaya engel olarak algılandığını, araştırmaya idari anlatılarda olduğu kadar pratikte değer verilmediğini ve bürokratik iş yükünün motivasyonda azalmaya neden olduğunu bulan Walden ve Bryan'ı (2010) tamamen destekler niteliktedir. Benzer bir durum, MEB'in resmi iznini gerektiren projeler veya bireysel araştırma çalışmaları için de geçerlidir. Bu da, araştırma yürütmekle ilgili sorunların sıklıkla kurumsal sınırları da aşabildiğini göstermektedir. Yeni neoliberal yönetim sistemlerinin tipik bir örneği olarak, üniversite idaresi katılımcıları araştırma fonu kazanmaya teşvik etmekte ancak bu konudan akademisyenlerin kendilerini sorumlu tutmaktadır (Davies vd., 2006). Genel anlamıyla bu durum, katılımcıların mesleki formasyonlarını girişimci araştırmacı kimliğine doğru yönlendirmektedir (Darder, 2012). Buna ek olarak, XU'nun akademik personelini bazı doğrudan ve dolaylı stratejilerle uluslararası akademik ağlar oluşturmaya ve bunların bir parçası olmaya teşvik ettiği de tespit edilmiştir (Raj vd., 2017). Bu teşvik doğrultusunda, katılımcılar akademik ağlar kurmanın akademik kariyer başarısına yol açabileceğinin bilincindedirler ve buna uygun davranmaya gayret göstermektedirler.

İç hizmetler konusunda, toplantılara katılmak, belirli birimlerin koordinatörlüğünü yapmak veya komisyon üyesi olmak gibi kuruma yapılan hizmetler, katılımcılar tarafından genellikle atandıkları veya yapmaları istenen görevler olarak görülmektedir (MacFarlane, 2005). Öte yandan, öğrencilere ve disiplinlerine hizmet, öğretmen adaylarının mesleki öğrenmelerini ve gelişimlerini çok önemsedikleri için tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayalıdır. Toplum hizmeti ile ilgili olarak, bulgular, katılımcıların disiplinlerinin doğası gereği toplum hizmeti için kendiliğinden fırsatlar sağladığını düşündüklerini göstermektedir (Ward, 2003). Katılımcıların pratikleri, önceki araştırmalarla (örn., Colbeck, 1995; Jongbloed vd., 2008) uyumlu olarak, iç hizmet çalışmalarının hem öğretmen hem de araştırmacı rollerini de kapsadığını ve bu nedenle üç temel rolün de bazen birbirlerini tamamlayabildiklerini göstermektedir.

Mesleki kimliğe duygusal açıdan bakıldığında, bu çalışmadaki katılımcıların da işlerini yapmaya devam edebilmeleri için araştırmacı kimliklerinde duygularını yönetmeleri gerektiği görülmektedir. Bu anlamda, araştırma yapmak duygusal bir iş olarak da değerlendirilebilir. Araştırmacı kimlikleri, finansman sağlayan kurumlar, üniversitedeki görevliler, K-12 okul öğretmenleri, K-12 okul idareleri ve MEB'in yerel yöneticileri ile olan etkileşimlerinden önemli ölçüde etkilenmektedir. Ayrıca duygu durumlarının söylemsel faktörlerle ilişkisi de aşikârdır. Dolayısıyla, katılımcıların mesleki kimlikleri, hem kurumsal hem de küresel akademik rekabet ve öz sorumluluk söylemlerinden büyük ölçüde etkilenmektedir. Son olarak, öğretmen ve araştırmacı kimlikleri karşılaştırıldığında, katılımcıların ilkinde daha fazla, ikincisinde daha az mesleki etkenlik gösterebildikleri görülmektedir (Hökkä vd., 2012). Hizmet işindeki rollerine gelince, katılımcıların, istekli olmayabilecekleri idari görevleri yerine getirmek zorunda kalarak mesleki kimliklerinin kısmen kısıtlanabileceği durumlar dışında, hem iç hem de dış hizmette yüksek düzeyde mesleki etkenlik gösterdikleri anlaşılmaktadır.

Rollerin gereklilikleri ve bunların öğretmen eğitimcileri üzerindeki tezahürleri de mesleki kimliklerini anlamak adına önem taşımaktadır. Katılımcılar, göğüslemek zorunda kaldıkları olumsuz sonuçları ve etkileri göz ardı etmese de XU'nun diğer üniversitelere göre daha zorlayıcı atama ve terfi kriterlerinin olması gerektiğini

düşünmektedirler. Yine de, XU'nun akademisyenlerden beklentilerinin tamamen performans kültürü odaklı olması, atama yükseltme kriterleri ve teşvikleri akademisyenlerin isteklerinden ziyade "kurumsal çıkar" (Ball, 2003, s. 218) üzerine kurduğunu göstermektedir. Üstelik, yönetim bu kriterler üzerinden 'başarılı' akademisyenin kim ve nasıl olduğuna dair bir mesaj da vermektedir. Neoliberal yönetimsellikten yararlanan üniversite yönetimi, sorumlu hale getirdiği akademisyenleri küresel gereklilikler ve rekabetçi söylemlerle ikna etmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Bu sorumlu hale getirilen akademisyenlere, aynı zamanda "kontrolümüz dışındaki bir dünyanın resmi" (Joseph, 2013, s. 43) gösterilmekte ve akademisyenlerin bireysel olarak bu sistem içinde hayatta kalabilmelerinin, kontrol edemedikleri veya değiştiremedikleri koşullara bireysel uyum sağlamalarıyla gerçekleşebileceği mesajı verilmektedir. Öte yandan, katılımcılar bu türde bir uyum sağlamanın hiç de kolay olmadığını açıkça ortaya koymaktadırlar. Daha 'gösterişli' bir kariyer için ek zamana ihtiyaç duymakta, aynı zamanda stres, motivasyon düşüklüğü, başarısızlık, sınırlandırılmış ve dezavantajlı hissetme gibi çeşitli duyguların yönetimi ile de uğraşmaktadırlar. Bu duygularla başa çıkmanın haricinde, ders yükleri, araştırmacı-öğretmen rol çatışmaları ve iş-yaşam dengesiyle ilgili sorunları da göğüsleyerek bireyselleştirilmiş ve sorumlu hale getirilmiş akademisyenler olarak üretmeye devam etmek zorunda kalmaktadırlar. Bu anlamda, ölçme ve kriter sistemi, Clegg'in (2008) de söylediği gibi, akademik çalışmanın duygusal yönünü gözardı etmektedir. Bu sebeple, katılımcılar da kurumsal ve ulusal yükseköğretim politikalarının araştırmacı rolünü öğretmen rolüne kıyasla nasıl konumlandırdığı ve bu politikaların akademisyenleri nasıl ölçtüğünü tartışarak hem orta hem de makro düzeylerde değer çatışmaları yaşadıklarını gözler önüne sermektedir (Skelton, 2012). Yine de, belirli dizinlerde ve İngilizce yayın yapma gerekliliklerine yönelik eleştirilerine rağmen mevcut yayın sistemine uyum sağlamakta ve üniversitenin uluslararası hareketlilik gerekliliklerine olumlu bakmaktadırlar.

Mesleki kimliği etkileyen kurumsal bağlam incelendiğinde, bölüm düzeyindeki uyum sağlamanın, büyük ölçüde doğaçlama ve plansız olarak (Martinez, 2008; Murray, 2005), yeni gelenlerin bireysel çabaları ve inisiyatifleri yoluyla gerçekleştiği görülmektedir. Bu durum mesleki gelişim için de geçerlidir.

Meslektaşları ile mesleki pratikleri hakkında sohbet etmek, deneyimlerini ve kaynaklarını paylaşmak katılımcılar tarafından isteniyor ve önemli görülüyor olsa da (Chauvot, 2009; Waterhouse vd., 2021; Williams ve Hayler, 2016), içinde bulundukları ortam bu anlamda güçlü ve destekleyici bir topluluk olmaktan ziyade bireyselliğin hâkim olduğu bir topluluk olarak görülmektedir. ÖDD'ler, hem öğrencilerin hem de üniversite yönetimininin öğretmen eğitimcileri üzerinde dolaylı şekilde yaptırımlar uygulayabileceği bir güç ilişkisinin oluşmasına neden olabilmektedir (Shore ve Wright, 2000). Katılımcılar, olumsuz yorumlardan ve düşük puanlardan kaçınmak için öğrenciler sanki müşteriymiş gibi (Germain ve Scandura, 2005; du Gay, 1996) beklentilerini karşılama konusunda baskı hissedilebildiğini (Cheng, 2010) ve bu puanların da yükseltme kararları üzerinde etkili olabildiğini (Lewis, 2007) tartışmaktadır. Katılımcılar için öğretimle ilgili neyi nasıl yapacaklarına karar vermelerine olanak sağlayabildiği için nitel dönütlerin daha anlamlı olduğu, nicel dönütlerinse mesleki etkenliğe pek katkıda bulunmadığı; dahası, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin yükseltme ve kadro amacıyla yönetilebileceği bir araç haline de dönüşebildiği sonucuna varılabilmektedir. Katılımcılar, ayrıca, XU'daki akademik ve idari ortamın, akademik özgürlüklerini kullanmalarına, seslerini üniversite yönetimine duyurmalarına ve akademik ve idari işler üzerinde bir miktar kontrol sahibi olmalarına olanak sağladığına inanmakta ve bunun Türkiye'deki diğer üniversiteler dikkate alındığında istisnai bir durum olduğunun altını çizmektedirler. Bu durum, kurumsal aidiyetlerini ve iş tatminini artıran bir faktör olarak kabul edilmektedir (Shin ve Jung, 2014 Vähäsantanen vd., 2008).

Ulusal bağlama bakıldığında, katılımcılar mevcut ekonomik durumun ve akademisyenlerin kazancının bilim yapmayı kolaylaştırıcı koşullar sağlamadığı, aksine motivasyonu azalttığına inanmaktadır. Hükümet politikaları istikrarsız ve sallantılı bir ekonomi aracılığıyla akademisyenleri kendi başlarının çaresine bakmaya ve hayatları hakkında öz sorumluluk taşımaya zorlamaktadır. Ayrıca, ATS'nin hem mesleki kimliğe etkisi hem de bu uygulamanın katılımcılar tarafından kabul derecesinin katılımcıların algılarıyla çok ilişkili olduğu görülmektedir (Bøgh Andersen ve Pallesen, 2008; Frey, 1997). Katılımcıların algılarının ise ATS'nin mesleki çabaları için gerçek bir destek değil de akademisyenleri kontrol eden ve makineleştiren bir araç olarak görüldüğü,

akademik çalışmanın niteliğini ve doğasını bozmakta olduğu, düşük maaşları telafi etmek için uygulandığı ve etik dışı davranmaya teşvik ettiği üzerine kurulu görünmektedir. Bir devlet üniversitesinde çalışmanın eleştirel öznelliklerini baskıladığı (Vatansever, 2018); 2016'da yaşanan ve etkileri hala devam eden bir dizi siyasi olayın neoliberal otoriterleşmeyi giderek arttırdığı ve bunun da işten atılma, soruşturma geçirme, şikâyet edilme gibi endişe ve korku durumlarını derinleştirdiği göz önüne alındığında, katılımcıların ulusal bağlamda kurumsal bağlamdaki kadar özgür ve etken hissedemediği oldukça belirgindir. Buna ek olarak, YÖK tarafından uygulanan politikaların kurumsal özerklik ve bireysel özgürlüklere büyük ölçüde zarar vermekte olduğuna ve dahası kaliteli bir eğitim sağlamayı zorlaştırdığına inanılmaktadır.

Ayrıca, özellikle son 20 yılda hızlı ve kontrolsüz bir biçimde büyüyen hem özel hem devlet üniversitesi sayıları, bu kurumlar tarafından sağlanan akademik eğitim ve öğretimin kalite problemleri ve bunlara ek olarak ilk ve ortaöğretim seviyelerindeki sürekli hale gelen, kötü planlanmış ve takibi yapılmayan reform girişimleri, katılımcıların sistem içinde öğretmen eğitimcileri olarak hem emeklerini hem de kendilerini konumlandırmaya çalışırken giderek daha dezavantajlı ve karamsar hissetmelerine yol açmaktadır. Eğitim sistemlerinin mevcut durumu ile kendi idealleri ve beklentileri arasındaki kopukluğun ve uyuşmazlığın kısmen de olsa motivasyonlarını kaybetmelerine ve bireysellik anlayışına yönelmelerine sebep olduğu anlaşılmaktadır. Son olarak, katılımcıların politik bir duruş sergilemeye ve politik konuları hem ders içerikleri hem araştırmalarıyla açık, amaçlı ve sistematik bir şekilde bütünleştirmeye ağırlık vermedikleri görülmüştür. Bu durumun, kendi eğitim geçmişlerinin etkisi, çalışma deneyimleri, mesleki eğilimleri, zaman kısıtlamaları, sorumluluk eksikliği veya sorumluluğun dağılması, sadece lisansüstü derslerde öğretilip lisans seviyesinde gerekli görülmemesi, öğrenci direnci, bu tür konuları yeterince akademik bulmamaları ve hükümetin siyasi otoriteliğinden çekinmeleri gibi çeşitli nedenleri olabilir.

Genel olarak, katılımcıların tüm tartışmaları, mesleki kimliklerinin neoliberal yönetimler tarafından belirlenen politikalara ve dışardan dayatılan gerekliliklere karşı hayli savunmasız olduğu sonucuna varılmasına izin verir. Bu nedenle bazen

kimi neoliberal değerleri ve pratikleri içselleştirmekle kalmayıp aynı zamanda desteklemektedirler. Öte yandan da, diğer bazı politika ve beklentilere de direnmekte, reddetmekte ve hissettikleri hayal kırıklığını ve kırgınlığı ifade etmektedirler. Dolayısıyla, kurumsal, ulusal ve uluslararası yükseköğretim sistemleri, katılımcıları henüz katıksız neoliberal akademisyenler haline getirmemiş olsalar da, zihinlerinin ve kalplerinin alışkanlıklarını önemli ölçüde etkilemektedir. Sonuç olarak, mevcut çalışmadaki İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimcilerinin mesleki kimlikleri parçalı, bireyselleştirilmiş, sorumlu hale getirilmiş, çoklu, bağlamsal ve karmaşık bir yapı; sürekli bir mücadele; duygusal bir karmaşa ve eylemsel bir güç olarak kavramsallaştırılabilir.

Bulguların tartışması ve ilgili alanyazın göz önüne alındığında, İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimcileri yanı sıra ilgili birimler, kurumlar ve yetkililer için çeşitli öneriler sunulmuştur. İlk olarak, bölüm yönetiminin çabalarıyla faaliyet gösterecek ve yeni başlayan öğretmen eğitimcilerine rehberlik edebilecek ve deneyimli/kıdemli öğretmen eğitimcilerinin yardımıyla yürütülecek mikro düzeyde bir göreve başlama programı, geçiş zorluklarını kolaylaştırabilir. Böyle bir mentorluk programı, yeni gelenlerin bunaltıcı iş yükü, alışkın olmadıkları iş türü ve yalnızlık hissinden kaynaklanan sıkıntılarını önleyerek bölüm kültürüne ve rollerine alışmalarına olumlu katkı sağlayabilir. İkinci olarak, hem bölüm yönetiminin teşviki hem de öğretmen eğitimcilerinin toplu etkenliği, özellikle öğretmen rolleri için, mesleki etkileşim, paylaşım ve öğrenme için düzenli olarak bir araya geldikleri bir uygulama topluluğu kültürünün gelişmesini sağlayabilir. Bunun da, hâkim olan bireysellik kültürünü kırmak, işbirliğini teşvik etmek ve kurumsal aidiyete katkıda bulunmak gibi olumlu sonuçları olabilir. Üçüncü olarak, hem merkezi hem bölüm yönetimleri, tam zamanlı öğretim görevlilerinin, kendilerine atfedilen mesleki kimliklere hapsolmuş gibi hissetmeleri yerine, kendi mesleki kariyerlerini etkilemek ve mesleki kimliklerini genişletmek adına desteklendiklerini hissettikleri bir uygulama topluluğu geliştirilmesinin yolunu açmalıdır. Ayrıca, tam zamanlı öğretim görevlilerinin fakülte kurulu veya fakülte yönetim kuruluna kendi akademik pozisyonlarını temsil eden temsilciler vasıtasıyla katkısını sağlayan bir düzenlemenin gerekli olduğu da açıktır.

Dördüncü olarak, hükümetler araştırma ve akademik seyahatler için daha fazla kaynak ayırarak, üniversite de araştırma projelerinin bürokratik ve akademik yönleri arasında bölünmüş hisseden öğretmen eğitimcilerine idari rehberlik sağlamak için politikalar geliştirerek öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleki kimliklerini daha az mücadele ve daha fazla etkenlik ile oluşturmalarına yardımcı olmalıdırlar. Beşinci olarak, ulusal akademik politikaları düzenleyenler, kurumsal yönetimler ve akademik dergilerin yayın kurulları, ulusal dillere de değer verilmesini ve onların önemsenmesini sağlayan bir çokdilli yayıncılık politikası benimseyerek mevcut koşulları değiştirmek adına girişimde bulunabilir, İngilizce'nin baskın statüsünü daha çoğulcu ve kapsayıcı bir anlayışın kabullenilmesi için sarsabilirler. Altıncı olarak, üniversitenin merkezi yönetimi ÖDD'lerin sıklıkla başarısız birer denetim aracı haline geldiğinin farkında olmalıdır. Bu nedenle, sadece öğrencilerin değerlendirmelerini toplayıp aldıkları puanları ilgili akademik personele göndermek yerine onlar için öğretimde sistematik mesleki gelişim fırsatları yaratmalıdır (Smith ve Welicker-Pollack, 2008). Yedinci olarak, üniversite merkezi yönetimi, topluma hizmet konusunda akademik personelden beklentilerini açıkça belirtmeli ve onlara toplum hizmetine katılım için net bir kılavuz sunmalıdır. Bu göz önüne alındığında, üniversite bağlamında öğretmen eğitimcilerinin ve STK'ların ortaklığını kolaylaştırmak için hem ulusal hem de uluslararası kuruluşlarla ortaklık kurma fırsatları aranabilir. Bu nedenle rektörlük, söz edilen ortaklıkları sağlamayı ve koordine etmeyi amaçlayan bir Topluma Hizmet Ofisi kurabilir.

Sekizinci olarak, mevcut yükseköğretim yasası, hem kapsamının tam anlamıyla ve resmi olarak genişletilmesi hem de akademik özgürlüğün akademisyenler için yasalarla güvence altına alınan bir hak olmasının sağlanması için gözden geçirilmelidir. Bunu gerçekleştirmek için de öğretmen eğitimcilerinin diğer akademisyenlerle birlikte kamuoyu oluşturmak için çabalaması fayda sağlayabilir. Son olarak, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin tüm yükseköğretim sistemine nüfuz etmiş gibi görünen neoliberal ideolojiye direnmesi; onu reddetmesi ve değiştirmesi hala mümkün. Bunun için ilk adım, kendileri için kullandıkları ve kendileri için başkaları tarafından kullanılan söylemlerin farkına varmak olabilir (Davies, 2005). Ayrıca, akademik çalışmaları üzerinde tamamen söz sahibi olmak ve akademik çalışma standartlarını geri almak ya da yeniden tasarlamak için toplu etkenlik

göstermeyi deneyebilirler. Son olarak, günümüzde kurumsal ve ulusal düzeyler tarafından değer verilen ve ödüllendirilen araştırmaların hâlihazırdaki kapsamının dışında kalan geleneksel olmayan araştırma faaliyetlerine gerekli değer ve ilgi hem öğretmen eğitimcileri hem de yönetimler tarafından verilmelidir. Bunun karşılığında da, araştırma pratiklerinin kapsamın artmasıyla araştırmanın yeniden kavramsallaştırılması, standartlaşmış olan araştırma ve yayın faaliyetlerine alternatifler oluşturabilir.

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YAZARIN / AUTHOR

Soyadı / Surname : AYSAN ŞAHİNTAŞ
Adı / Name : Zeynep
Bölümü / Department : İngiliz Dili Öğretimi / English Language Teaching

TEZİN ADI / TITLE OF THE THESIS (**İngilizce** / English):

Habits of Minds and Hearts in Neoliberal Academia: A Qualitative Inquiry into English Language Teacher Educators' Professional and Political Roles and Professional Identity

TEZİN TÜRÜ / DEGREE: **Yüksek Lisans** / Master ☐ **Doktora** / PhD ☒

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